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High Points

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

JANUARY 1933

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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A CONCEPTION OF EDUCATION

We believe . . .

That education is living;

That living implies individual and social growth;

That the process of growth, of achievement, of continuous and progressive improvement, rather than the static outcome and result, becomes the significant thing in education;

That any particular materials or procedure in education should render the learners capable of further education, making them more sensitive to conditions of growth and more able to take advantage of them;

That acquisition of skill, possession of knowledge, attainment of culture are not ends—they are marks and measures of growth and means to its continuing;

That truths for the guidance of a growing life are not dogmatically taught, but are achieved by the power of individual minds, guided by methods of observation, inquiry, experimentation, and reflection;

That moral growth is identical with and parallel to the development of the ability to make intelligent choices and render intelligent judgments;

That an educational program should be organized to provide a succession of activities which will best constitute a continuous reconstruction of experience, since experience is an affair primarily of action;

That any activity is educational which increases the ability intelligently to select, organize, and evaluate the situations that arise in the adaptation of the individual to the social and moral environment;

That the end of education is freedom, growing out of intellectual initiative and independent observation and foresight of the individual, whose mental attitude is socially guided and determined by the interests of the group of which he is a part;

That new ideas growing out of freedom in education find expression in social life and are translated into imaginative vision and the fine art of living;

That the school is primarily a social institution partaking of the nature of the home, the community, and other social agencies and binding them together in a mutual interplay of educational forces through a disciplined mind;

That the solution of the problems of our social order results from the integration of the reorganized and reconstructed experience of the past together with the experimental present, thus giving meaning and purpose to the present and setting up possibilities of directing our future to a satisfying conclusion of further growth through critical and constructive thinking;

That the Golden Age lies ahead of us and not behind us.

Prepared as a Group Project by members of the Institute of Education class in Philosophy of Education, New York University, conducted by Professor Alfred L. Hall-Quest at Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania.

—THE KADELPHIAN REVIEW
November, 1932

REPORT OF THE DEAN OF BOYS AT THE THOMAS JEFFERSON HIGH SCHOOL

NOTE: The report that follows on work with boys is one of a series given at conferences held during the term February to June, 1932 under the direction of Mildred I. Freigang, Administrative Assistant and Dean. Child guidance in its various ramifications at the Thomas Jefferson High School is in charge of a group of co-worktrs under her general supervision. The present article necessarily gives but a partial picture. For a suggestion of the rest—the entire school is organized to meet the needs of the child—one may glance at the accompanying diagram which attempts roughly to denote both distribution of function and centralization of responsibility.

ELIAS LIEBERMAN,
Principal, Thomas Jefferson High School

YEARS ago the only "problem cases" of a high school were the so-called "bad boys." Pupils guilty of major infractions were referred to "disciplinarians," stern, "powerful" personalities who administered punishment in the form of severe reprimands, penalty assignments, demerits, detention, cancelling of privileges, demotion, and expulsion. The successful disciplinarian attained his ends, such as they were, by a display of authority and force. There was practically no attempt at guidance nor were the disciplinarians especially trained or chosen for corrective work. In some high schools troublesome pupils were reported to grade advisers, in others to departmental chairmen, floor managers, or to the director of the Student Service squad.

The earliest steps in the proper handling of problem children were made in connection with wayward girls. Since symptoms of emotional disorder were more easily detected in girls than in boys, and might have more serious consequences, it was thought advisable to assign the task of solving the problems of "bad girls" to women of special training and sympathetic understanding. Today in many all-girl and co-educational high schools one of the administrative assistants is also the "Dean of Girls" whose duties, although particularly concerned with girls, vary with the organization of their respective schools.

More recently, the findings of psychiatry and its educational offspring "mental hygiene" have indicated that the "bad boy" needs sympathetic understanding and guidance just as much as his sister. To this end, many of the new high schools have in their organization a "Dean of Boys," a rank and file (in salary rating) teacher who is able to devote considerable time to the needs of boys because he is exempted from a certain number of teaching periods.

When the Thomas Jefferson High School was organized eight years ago, Dr. Elias Lieberman, a man of wide experience with the problems of boys because of his activities in settlement work, included the office of "Dean of Boys" in his organization. To this post he always tried to appoint a man who, by training and temperament, was especially equipped to understand and guide the adolescent boy.

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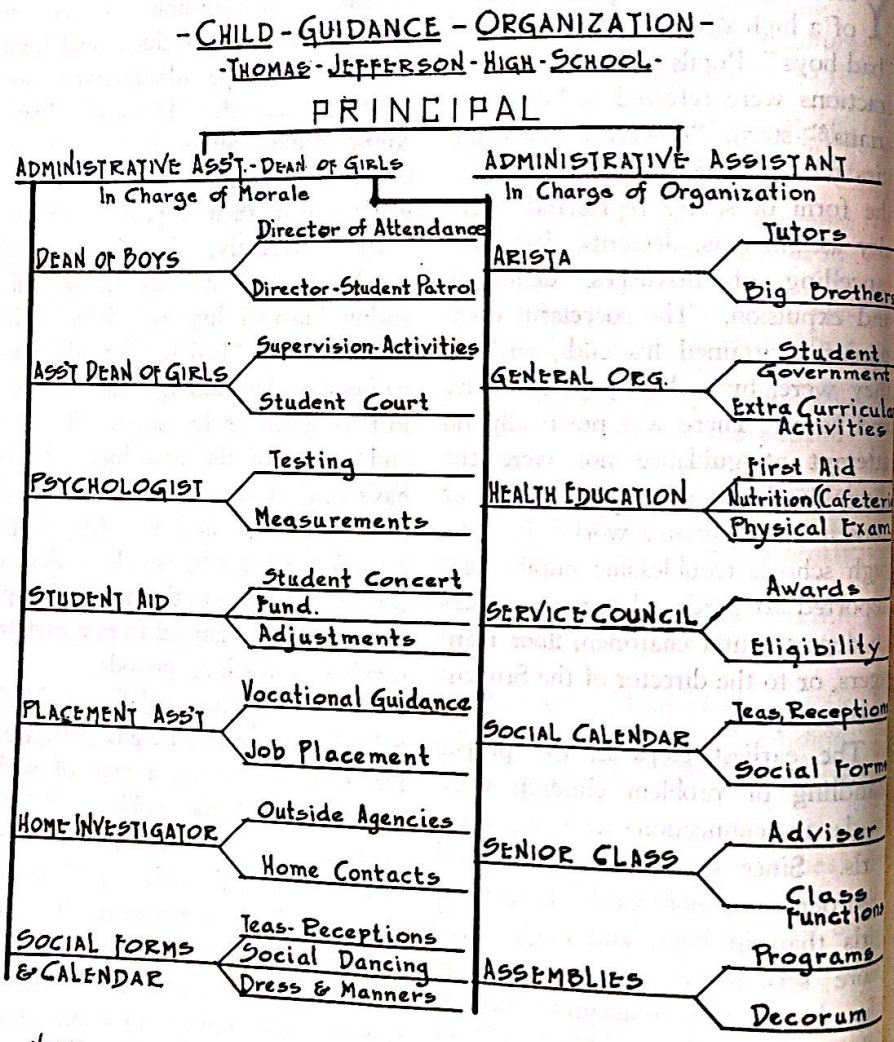
From the very start such excellent work was done in this school in the field of child guidance that we at Thomas Jefferson feel that our "Department of Morale" headed by Miss Freygang, Administrative Assistant and Dean of Girls, anticipated the work now planned by the Bureau of Child Guidance of the Board of Education.

The appended diagram shows the organization of the Thomas Jefferson High School for the purpose of guidance. The administratice assistant and Dean of Girls coördinates all the agencies within the school that can be brought to bear upon the problems of boys and girls. Such coördination makes it an easy matter to refer specific problems to the proper department.



NOTE-The Grade Advisers and the Program Committee function under the direct supervision of the Administrative Assistant in Charge of Organization. The work of these two bodies is intimately connected, however, with effective Child Guidance

In such an organization it will be seen that the office of the "Dean of Boys" becomes a clearing house for all the problems of boys and that the chief value of the Dean is as a diagnostician who refers a pupil to the proper department after obtaining and interpreting all the relevant data.

The directors of attendance, student patrol, and traffic squad act as assistant deans and have their headquarters in the office of the Dean of Boys. This arrangement makes it possible for the Dean to integrate these important functions and to keep in close touch with truants and chronic offenders against law and order.

When pupils are reported to the Dean, the first procedure is diagnosis. There is no haste. Every effort is made to obtain complete histories, to get at under-lying causes, to understand the "whole" boy. Parents are consulted. When parents cannot or will not come, or when a better understanding of family conditions is necessary, the social service investigator establishes connections with the home.

Cases whose solution seem obvious are immediately referred to the proper department. I list below some of the type cases of considerable frequency whose diagnosis is not only readily obtained but also indicates the cure.

1. Behavior problems due to worry over failure in one or two subjects. Pupil is referred to tutoring committee of Arista.
2. Failure in entire program. Pupil is referred to psychologist for battery of tests. Program rearranged, or course of study changed, or trade school is advised. (Where failures are not the cause but the results of emotional disorders, the cases are handled by specialists on a psychiatric basis.)
3. Symptoms of protest or revolt because of the teacher-pupil equation. (For example, a pupil rebels when forced to repeat subject with teacher who failed him the previous term). Program is changed with consent of grade adviser, chairman of department and the teacher concerned.
4. Physical insufficiency. Referred to Health Education Department; nutrition class; clinics; eye-glasses, braces, treatment advised and financed by Student Aid Fund, if necessary. Elevator privilege. Light program.
5. Poverty. Placement Clerk for vocational guidance and employment. Student Aid. Outside agencies.
6. Immaturity, social insufficiency, bad companions, poor use of leisure time. "Big Brother" Committee of Arista; school clubs; intra-mural or varsity athletics; social forms class; opportunities for directed service.
7. Feelings of inferiority or inadequacy due to attitude of parents; odious comparisons with more successful children of family. Social Service investigator. Parents consulted and educated. Opportunities for school service; student patrol; clubs; athletics.

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Needless to say, in many cases the "cure" is neither complete nor permanent. We know, however, that we are making use of every department of a well-integrated organization to help our students adjust themselves.

The following is a list of some of the cases which we have every reason to believe were satisfactorily adjusted. Very serious cases, of course, were either adjusted entirely by outside agencies or adjusted by the school with their prescription advice and assistance.

1. R. Truant. Refused to attend classes. Third term. Repeating all subjects. Age 13. Rapid advance in elementary school without study.

Diagnosis: Rushed through elementary school. Did not know how to prepare lessons. Immature. Crushed by first failures. Browbeaten by parent, a physician who could not understand how his son could be a failure.

Treatment: Put in charge of Big Brother who escorted him to school and helped him prepare his lessons. Frequent interviews with Dean caused father to adopt different attitude.

Result: R. is now attending classes regularly and passing all his subjects but one.

2. J. Chronic disorder in class and corridors. Age 16. Height 6 ft. 4 in.

Diagnosis: Ostensibly proud of his unusual proportions, inwardly felt too conspicuous. No outlet for tremendous energy.

Treatment: Introduced him to coaches of swimming and basketball teams. Eventually he made the varsity in both sports. Although he remained a problem case, he behaved well enough to complete his course. At present he is a regularly licensed swimming instructor and content with his lot.

3. H. Truant. Age 15. Disorderly in school. Low I. Q. Wished to learn trade. Parent insisted on academic course.

Diagnosis: Protest. Tired of being compared with his brilliant older brother. Skillful with tools, wished to become an electrician.

Treatment: Transfer arranged to trade school. At present working as electrician's helper and satisfied.

4. P. Belligerent in school. Good student. Parent worried about his connections with a youthful gang of toughs, not members of the school, operating in the neighborhood. Joy-rides in "borrowed" automobile.

Diagnosis: Boy too easily influenced.

Treatment: Parents, well to-do, agreed to move far away. Transfer arranged to another school. Follow up.

Result: P. found new and better companions, was graduated with grades above average. At present he is attending College of Pharmacy, doing well. Parents are pleased.

5. F. Member of same gang. Poor scholar. Age 15. Found school work too difficult. Wished to enter business at once.

Treatment: Transfer arranged to private business school. F. now working as shoe-salesman and keeping out of trouble.

Note: The gang was broken up by the police, not, however, before one of its members was shot in a brawl and another was convicted of attempted burglary.

6. S. Failing all subjects. Age 16. Apathetic. Poor mixer. Parent severe. Complained he did not study. Spent all his time reading cheap novels. One other child in family, age 9, a girl.

Diagnosis: Jealousy of sister. Desired affection of parents. Parents cold. Failures in school, symptoms of protest.

Treatment: Education of parent who had been deceived by the boy's apparent resentment of overtures of affection. Mother and child introduced to each other all over again.

Results: S. changed completely when he realized parents really loved him. Passed all subjects for three consecutive terms and was graduated. Now attending college at night and working during the day.

7. Z. Chronic disorder. Hysterical rage when reprimanded. Made scenes. Age 17. Fourth term. Low grade explained by long absence because of illness. Mature. Amenable to reason when calm.

Diagnosis: Investigation showed illness was nervous disorder. Doctors pronounced him cured. Hysterical outbursts superinduced to revive situations pleasant to him when he was ill and to enable him to escape responsibilities.

Treatment: Education of parents. Examination by specialist showed he was well physically and mentally. Frequent interviews with Dean. Unmasked.

Result: Complete change. Toned down. Completed course. At present attending college at night. Working as a counter salesman during the day.

8. S. Refusal to recite in elocution class. Cut elocution frequently. Age 16. Height 6 ft. 2 in. Bashful. Poor student.

Diagnosis: Typical symptoms of over-grown boy. Felt too conspicuous for his poor scholarship.

Treatment: When asked why he did not try to make athletic teams, he replied that he was too clumsy. Introduced him to football coach.

Result: Played regularly on football team until his graduation. No further trouble.

9. A. Ran away from home four years ago. No trace. Parents thought he was dead. Age 16 at the time. Arista calibre. Omnivorous reader. Suddenly reappeared at the beginning of the current term and asked for advice from the Deans. Explained that he had run away because of a family scandal. Refused to go home and threatened to run away again if his parents were informed of his return. Wished to complete high school studies in order to enter a technical college. Claimed he was self-supporting.

Diagnosis: He really wanted to return to his parents but feared that they hated him and would not forgive the suffering he had caused.

Treatment: Parents were notified at once. Agreed to wait until boy returned of his own volition. Meet-

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ing arranged with brother. Everything cleared up. Arranged enrollment in evening high school. Course mapped out.

Result: A. returned home. Attending night school regularly. Reports regularly to Dean who teaches in the evening school which he attends.

10. B. Chronic trouble maker in subject classes and in cafeteria. Fair student. Tall. Good-looking. Vain. Worked as usher in large theatre.

Diagnosis: Outward bravado, inward feeling of inferiority. Desired to attract attention.

Treatment: Induced him to join school operetta.

Results: He performed in leading rôle, attended rehearsals regularly for months, and kept out of trouble during that time.

11. I. Truant. Indifferent student. Good-looking. Effeminate.

Diagnosis: I. loves father, who is ostensibly a failure in life. Forced to model himself after his mother, who dominates everyone and everything. Mother keeps boy near her all the time. Truancy and failures the result of protest and wish to identify himself with his father.

Treatment: Education of parent. Frequent interviews with boy.

Result: I. attends school regularly now. Case still pending.

Although the cases listed above have been submitted in outline form, one should not assume that the pupils involved were treated arbitrarily, categorically or with haste. Many important details were omitted for obvious reasons. Some cases were under consideration for a long time. During the past eight years the Dean of Girls and the Dean of Boys handled thousands of cases, ranging from brief interviews on routine matters to complicated adjustments involving our entire department of guidance. In this work we received valuable assistance from the class teachers who have become more and more "mental hygiene" minded and have developed that attitude of class "awareness" so necessary for the understanding of the "whole" pupil.

We are especially indebted to our principal, Dr. Elias Lieberman, who conceived and inspired our work in child guidance and whose friendly supervision and sage advice aided us immeasurably both in the organization of the department as a whole and in the solution of difficult problems.

We have tried to show in this report how adjustments in cases that are not too intricate can be successfully made by the agencies within a school properly organized for guidance. Clinical cases belonging to the field of abnormal psychology should be, and in this school always have been, referred to professional psychiatrists.

We close this report with a detailed account of a major adjustment accomplished by the Dean of Boys and Dean of Girls working together. A case of this nature ordinarily beyond the scope of a high school was undertaken by the Deans because outside agencies had failed.

X. A girl, age 16, Arista caliber, emotional disorder. Major symptom—complete loss of voice at frequent intervals. Recently had undergone operation for removal of tonsils. Referred her to throat clinics. Clinics pronounced operation successful and referred her to psychiatrists. Psychiatrist referred her back to surgeons, and so on.

Diagnosis by Dean: X., a very fine type of girl, was very dissatisfied with life. She studied many hours every day and then worked at counter in her father's candy store until midnight. She found this work very tiresome and unpleasant. She had no time for recreation or social life. She wanted to step out, "wear fine clothes," "go places." Often had vaguely formed ideas of suicide.

After her operation for the removal of tonsils she became quite ill. For a while she could not speak. She exaggerated her condition and thought she was dying. She left the hospital fully recovered. She associated loss of voice with death. Afterwards when moved to self-pity and ideas of suicide she lost her voice. When the full story had been elicited from her, she readily admitted that she could prevent the loss of voice if she wished to. She has not lost her voice since the beginning of the current term.

Proper steps were taken for the education of the parents and the improvement of family conditions.

The girl found recreation and social life in the activities of the school. Follow up. She seems happy today and exhibits no symptoms.

SAYWELL B. MULDORF,
Dean of Boys.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

ROADS TO CREATIVE TESTING IN HIGH SCHOOL SCIENCE

AT THE present time most of us are agreed, at least in theory, that in the ideal school situation the student should be interested in his work if worth-while results are to be obtained. Coming now to tests, the question is: How interested are students in taking them? Obviously, there can be no absolute answer, inasmuch as their attitude hinges upon a variety of complex factors: the type of test, the amount of material covered, and many others. Nevertheless, the chorus of disgusted Oh's and Ah's greeting the ears of the teacher when a test is announced would appear to furnish some evidence that examinations are, to say the least, distasteful. It seems obvious, therefore, that some thought should be devoted to a consideration of how to affect for the better the attitudes of students towards tests. True, many are convinced that our pupils will always dislike taking them because the irksome task of reviewing the past work is involved. However, the writer believes it to be entirely feasible to change this attitude

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for the better, save for those few students who will always resent a "showdown" on their lack of achievement.

Some time ago, four of the writer's classes were given an essay-type test based upon a unit of work in biology. As soon as they had finished, the students were given a mimeographed sheet bearing the following instructions:

Below you will find a list of ten possible ways to spend an hour. Read the list carefully and then decide which of the ten you would like most to do. Place the number one (1) in the parentheses to the right of your choice. Then decide which of the nine remaining possibilities you would next prefer to do. Place the number two (2) in the parentheses next to this choice. Continue until you have numbered all ten possibilities in the order of your preference. (The results for this first questionnaire, based upon the essay-type test, are shown in column I.)

While it is true that other factors, for instance, the difficulty of the unit[2] may have contributed to the above results, still it is evident that the essay-type test is unpopular with the student. The somewhat onerous task of running errands for mother is preferred! Moreover, numerous conversations with the students served to verify this.[3]

Three weeks later, they were given a new-type test consisting of 30 true-false, 20 completion, 10 multiple choice, and 10 matching items. Again they were given the questionnaire to fill out. From the results given in column II, it may be seen that the task of "taking a test similar to the one just taken" had advanced from the eighth to the fifth place; indicating that this type of test is much more to their liking than the essay-type.

	I	II	III	IV
1. Go swimming[1]	(1)	(2)	(1)	(1)
2. Go to the movies	(2)	(1)	(2)	(2)
3. Do an experiment in biology	(3)	(3)	(4)	(4)
4. Listen to a lecture on biology	(4)	(4)	(5)	(5)
5. Read your text-book	(5)	(6)	(6)	(6)
6. Run errands for your mother	(6)	(8)	(8)	(8)
7. Do written homework in biology	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)
8. Take a test similar to the one just taken	(8)	(5)	(3)	(3)
9. Wash the dishes after supper	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)
10. Stay after school for bad behavior	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)

This procedure was pursued a step further. Boys and girls of high school age, if given only a little encouragement, can do surprisingly well those things which we are prone to believe only teachers can do. To a deplorable extent, we tend to assume all responsibility and initiative in the classroom, thus cutting down upon the creative opportunities of the student. We fail to realize that it is through precisely those activities which we so unnecessarily take upon ourselves that true growth and education are to be fostered.

Allowing the students to devise their own tests is an excellent means for increasing their "creative opportunities." In practice, this was accomplished by the writer and each of his classes, who jointly selected a committee of four students. Their duties were not only to devise but to administer and mark tests.

After two new-type tests had been written and administered by the committee for each class, the students were again given the questionnaire to fill out. The results, seen in column III, show them to be overwhelmingly in favor of their own tests. We may conclude that the use of this simple procedure is a step in the right direction, whereby interest in tests will encourage effort on the part of the student.

However, we have not yet exhausted the possibilities of stimulating interest and effort in testing. With the system of marking which we now employ, we tend to set student against student; encouraging them to "beat" their neighbors. Vicious effects are often produced in that the backward child is hopelessly discouraged by his consistently low standing while his brighter neighbor is spoiled. This undesirable state of affairs may be minimized by the simple device of having students compete for marks, not against their fellows, but against themselves. To achieve this, the first requirement is for the teacher never to divulge a student's grade to the rest of the class. The second is to have each student graph his test results so that he may be in a position to see at a glance whether or not he is making progress.

However, a difficulty which arises is this: a mark of 85% received by a student in one test may be the equivalent of 65%, let us say, received in another. This follows from the fact that tests vary in difficulty. In this case, a student's graph would have no meaning since the drop of 20 points is only a seeming drop. This difficulty may be avoided by the simple device of ascertaining the central tendency—mode, mean or median—of a class or of a number of classes in preceding tests. This will give us a *standard* mode, mean, or median. For information as to the derivation of the mode, median, or mean, any elementary text-book of educational statistics is suggested. The next step is to obtain the central tendency of the test which we desire to graph. For example, let us assume that our standard mean (the arithmetic average of a number of classes in preceding tests) is 72% and that the test which is to be graphed has a mean of 67%. This would indicate, roughly speaking, that the test is more difficult than usual. Consequently, the difference between the two means (5%) should be added to all the grades of the test. Similarly,

[1] The above ten choices were not presented in the above order lest it influence the student.

[2] The unit in question was the structure of the digestive system.

[3] Similar results were obtained by a fellow science teacher who employed the identical procedure in veryifying the results given in all four columns. Altogether, 201 students took part in the experiment.

The results given in column I should not be interpreted as meaning that the essay-type question should be abandoned. There are many excellent reasons which might be advanced for its inclusion in tests.

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if the mean of the test to be graphed is 79%, the difference (7%) should be subtracted from all the grades before returning the papers. It should be noted that there are more accurate methods of equating tests. Nevertheless, it will be found that the above method is the most convenient for ordinary use.

The writer found that the practice of graphing supplied an astonishingly potent form of motivation both for bright and dull individuals. Altogether, three new-type tests (devised by the writer) were given the students to be graphed. At the end of the third test, the questionnaire was again administered. The results, seen in column IV, conclusively demonstrate the popularity of graphing with students.

Besides the above, there are other, perhaps more artificial means of stimulating interest in tests. To begin with, why not use new types of questions? In the past we have ignored the fact that new varieties of test items not only add interest and zest to testing, but may also measure certain types of information more effectively than do those in common use. A favorite of the writer is the code-type of question.

Instructions: By finding out what each letter of the following code word stands for, you will discover the name of a great scientist whose work will be taken up later.

U	N	Q	S	A
( )	( )	( )	( )	(H)

Solve it as follows:

Letter A: Place an H in the parentheses below letter A if carbon dioxide is given off in respiration. If it is not given off, place the letter P below letter A. (Since this gas is given off, H is correct. Consequently it is placed below letter A.)

Letter N: Change to O if root hairs take in soil water through the process of osmosis. If they do not, change to E.

Letter S: Change to N if lack of vitamin D causes scurvy. Change to R if lack of this vitamin causes beri-beri.

Letter Q: Change to E if haemoglobin is not present in red blood cells. If it is present, place *nothing* in the parentheses below letter Q.

Letter U: Change to S if the ovary of a flower is part of the perianth. Change to K if it is part of the pistil.[1]

The use of contests is also suggested. In practice, the writer divides the class into two equal sections. The students are then given slips of paper, each bearing a question based upon a previous unit or units of work. After five minutes, a member from each group recites alternately. The writer acts as referee, deciding whether the answers are correct, partially correct, or incorrect. His decision may be challenged by any member of the class. It will be found that such contests are amazingly effective in provoking a critical and questioning spirit on the part of the students, especially if the teacher encourages them in defending their views. It is, perhaps, not too far-fetched to say that this is in accordance with the spirit of science as contrasted with that of authority; in accordance with the spirit of Galileo, who, when forced by the Inquisition to recant his statement that the earth revolves about the sun, is said to have muttered under his breath, "Eppur si muove"—and yet it moves.

As we all know, students who have just completed an examination are especially eager to go over it with someone who can check their work. Why not harness this splendid learning attitude by going over the answers as soon as possible? Common sense would indicate that the teaching value of a test is especially high if it is gone over immediately and that there is a sharp decline in this value if much time elapses between the time a test is given and the time it is gone over. So the motto of the teacher after giving an examination should be to "strike while the iron is hot."

A final point which cannot receive sufficient emphasis is this: we must endeavor to give the student some sort of insight into the purposes of testing. In too many instances, he has little understanding of what is expected of him other than a high mark. He fails, as a rule, to realize that one of the most important, if not the most important, function of a test is to have him review his work for permanent acquisition. Can we wonder why the practice of last-minute cramming is well-nigh universal?

The responsibility for this state of affairs falls squarely upon the teacher. He, too, requires more insight into the aims and purposes of testing. This, alone, can do away with so-called tests of science, depending largely upon memoriter knowledge of the text-book. It is unnecessary to dwell upon the fact that memorization of the facts of the text kills a science and that examinations, based upon these same facts buries it.

LEON NORDAN DIAMOND.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

[1] The following references may prove useful in devising new types of questions: Webb, Hanor A., "Variety, the Spice of Testing," *General Science Quarterly*, 13:93-98, January, 1929.
Meister, Morris, "Twenty Ways to Test Your Class," *The Science Classroom*, Vol. XI, No. 5-6, February, March, 1932.

A MODIFIED COURSE IN FIRST YEAR MATHEMATICS

SEVERAL years ago the writer contributed an article to HIGH POINTS describing a modified course in geometry introduced at Manual Training High School for the benefit of pupils unable to assimilate the formal Regents' course. Since that time the high school enrollment has continued to increase steadily and substantially. It is becoming increasingly evident that a considerable number of boys and girls in the first year of high school, possibly twenty per cent of the total in this grade, lack the mental ability necessary to succeed in elementary algebra. For these pupils we have organized and put into operation this term a modified one-year course in mathematics.

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If pupils who lack the necessary mental equipment for success in algebra are compelled to pursue this subject, as is generally the case at the present time, they are bound to fail in large numbers. At best they will complete the course in probably twice the normal time. When they do pass, they have acquired very little real mathematical mastery or appreciation. Is the enormous outlay of time, energy and City funds expended on such pupils justified in the light of the doubtful and scanty return? Some educators whose interests and sympathies, I might say prejudices, are hostile to mathematics, believe that this lowest group should be denied all mathematical training in high school. Against this view, not only all teachers of mathematics but all persons seriously concerned in the educational welfare of our high school boys and girls should rise in arms. The remedy is not "Give them no mathematics!" but "Give them mathematics which they can understand, mathematics which appeals to them as interesting, and practical as well as educational, mathematics which *can* and *will* function in their lives, in school and out, and help make them more efficient and more useful members of society!"

At present, the lowest twenty per cent of our students, as determined by intelligence tests, take this modified course. The course is open also to pupils who have failed badly and repeatedly in first term algebra. We are experimenting, however, with a specially constructed arithmetic test as an instrument to forecast probable success or failure in algebra.

General Description of the Course

Content

It is not expected that the pupils enrolled in this course will ever take any additional mathematics. Consequently, the most valuable elements of mathematical content and training in the light of the degree of ability possessed by this group have been incorporated into the syllabus. The general content of the course is as follows:

1. A review of the fundamental processes of arithmetic and their application to common business problems and other familiar situations within the range of the pupils' experiences and interests.

2. Statistical graphs. (Intelligent reading of newspapers and magazines demands at least an elementary knowledge of this subject.)

3. Informal Geometry.
   (a) An elementary study of form and geometric relations and constructions.
   (b) Mensuration of lines, angles, common areas and volumes.
   (c) Indirect measurement.

4. Beginnings of Algebra.
   (a) Development of a generalized number idea.
   (b) Meaning and use of the formula and the equation.
   (c) Application to simple problems in arithmetic and mensurational geometry.

Method

The method of instruction, like the content, must be adapted to the inferior assimilative powers of this group. Care should be taken that each new topic be introduced concretely. In arithmetic, the business life situations back of profit and loss, commission, interest, insurance, and the like, should be made real and understandable to the pupils. Plenty of opportunity should be allowed for class discussion. Copious drill should be provided, oral and written, and varied as to type. In graphic work and in informal geometry, each pupil's desk, equipped with ruler, compasses and protractor, should serve as a laboratory in which number relations and important properties of geometric form are discovered, measured, studied and applied. Above all, the teachers assigned to these classes must be patient, sympathetic, ingenious, and capable of meeting the pupils at their known intellectual level.

Syllabus

In the interest of definiteness, the syllabus for each term has been arranged in seventy full-period lessons, including six review lessons and six class tests. Inasmuch as the average Fall term contains between eighty and eighty-five actual teaching periods, and the Spring term is even longer, it is believed that sufficient time has been allowed to complete the course with ample provision for review.

It should be noted that comparatively few lessons are devoted to drill in fundamental arithmetic operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication, division of integers, fractions and decimals. It is better that most of this work be handled incidentally in connection with applied topics calling for skill in these processes.

The sequence of topics provides for the correlation of algebra with arithmetic (as exemplified in the extensive use of the equation to solve the indirect cases of percentage, profit and loss, commission, taxes, insurance, etc.), the correlation of geometry with arithmetic (as in drawing to scale and the simpler exercises in mensuration), and the correlation of geometry with algebra (as in the somewhat more involved exercises in mensuration and in numerical work applying geometric relations).

Text-book

The text-book employed is "Modern Practical Arithmetic" by Hayes, Gibson, Bodley, Watson (D. C. Heath & Company). This book contains, in addition to a large amount of practical arithmetic, a considerable body of material in informal geometry and algebra.

Syllabus Proper

First Term

Period

1. Perimeters of rectangles and squares, pp. 169-170. Use of graph paper is recommended. Review table of linear measure, page 445.
2. Areas of rectangles and squares, pp. 169-170. Review table of square measure, page 446. Use graph paper to derive formula.
3. Drill on addition and subtraction of integers and decimals, pp. 2, 3, 4, 5, 7.

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First Term—(continued)

Period

4. Drill on addition and subtraction of fractions, pp. 3, 8.
5. Drill on multiplication of integers by integers and by fractions, page 9.
6. Construction of circles, pp. 178-179, including meaning of center, radius, diameter, arc.
7. Circumference of circle. Derive formula experimentally. Use Pi equals 22/7.
8. Area of circle, pp. 180-181.
9. Review lesson.
10. Test.
11. & 12. Drawing to scale, pp. 375-378. Consult Math. 3 syllabus for additional exercises on this topic.
13. Division of integers and fractions, pp. 13, 16.
14. Useful short cuts in multiplication and division, pp. 10, 14, 15. Select the most commonly used short cuts.
15. Finding a fraction and a per cent of a number, pp. 17, 28-30.
16. Profit and loss: given cost and per cent gain or loss, find gain, loss, selling price, page 44, ex. 23-29 and other selected exercises of this type on pp. 45, 46, 47.
17. Computing profit and loss on selling price, pp. 48-49. Select exercises in which selling price and rate of gain or loss is given.
18. Commission. Explain commission. Select only exercises where the amount of commission or proceeds is to be found, page 52, ex. 8-23; page 53, ex. 30-33 and other exercises of this type on pages 53 and 54.
19. Review lesson.
20. Test.
21. Trade discount. Finding amount of discount and net amount when list price and per cent discount are given, page 60; page 61, ex. 1-4, 7, 8, 9 and selected exercises of this type on pages 62, 63, 64.
22. Successive discounts, pp. 65, 66. Finding net price when list price and per cents of discounts are given.
23. Bills and discounts, pp. 68, 69, 70.
24. Insurance, meaning and use, pp. 71, 72. Finding premium when policy face and rate of insurance are given. Selected exercises: page 73/1, 2, 4; 74/11; 75/14, 15.
25. Taxes, discussion, pp. 76, 77. Finding amount of tax when assessed valuation and tax rate are given, page 78/2, 6; 79/7, 9, 10, 11, 12; also selected exercises on page 81.
26. Interest. Finding interest and amount, pp. 103-109.
27. Finding difference in time between two dates, pp. 110, 111.
28. Promissory notes, description, pp. 129-134. Computing interest on promissory notes, pp. 135-136.
29. Review lesson.
30. Test.

First Term—(continued)

Period

31. & 32. Bar graphs, construction and interpretation, pp. 379-380, 383-385, 387, 389, 390, 395.
33. & 34. Broken line graphs, construction and interpretation, pp. 382, 388, 390, 391, 392, 395.
35. Meaning, notation, kinds of angles (right, acute, obtuse, straight), meaning of perpendicular, pp. 157, 365, 366.
36. Measurement of angles by means of protractor, construction of angle equal to a given angle by protractor, page 157. Table of angle measure, page 157.
37. & 38. Circular graphs, construction and interpretation, pp. 382, 386, 393, 394.
39. Review lesson.
40. Test.
41. Checks, bank accounts, pp. 137-140, 141, 142.
42. Verifying monthly bank statements. Make up exercises of this type.
43 & 44. Bank discount, pp. 143-147, 264.
45. Sending money by draft, pp. 148-150.
46. Sending money by postal money order, pp. 151, 152.
47. Marking goods (beginning of algebraic symbolism), pp. 245, 247.
48. Meaning of algebraic expressions of the general form a x as x, 2x, .5x, 1/3x, etc. Evaluation for numerical values of x, meaning of

First Term (continued)

Period

coefficient. Select exercises on page 400, such as 1-5, 14, 17, 18, 20, etc.

49. Review lesson.
50. Test.
51. Meaning of equation, solution of equations of the type $ax=b$ by means of division axiom, pp. 415, 419. Select exercises such as page 415/4, 11, 17, 18, 26, etc.
52. Solution of equations of the type $\frac{a}{b}x=c$ by means of multiplication axiom, p. 418/37-40.
Make up additional exercises of this type, especially exercises like $4y=8$, $\frac{3}{100}x=6$, etc.
53. Application of equations to finding the number of which another is a given fractional or decimal part, page 19.
54. Application of equations to finding what fractional or decimal part one number is of another, page 18.
55. Application of equations to finding what per cent one number is of another, pp. 31-33, 41 C and D.
56. & 57. Application of equations to finding the number of which another number is a given per cent and miscellaneous problems, pages 34-40, also page 42 E and F.
58. Application of equations to profit and loss problems, that is, finding the cost or the rate of profit or loss, pp. 43-46.

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First Term (continued)

Period

59. Review lesson.
60. Test.
61. Application of equations to profit and loss, continued, pp. 47-49.
62. Application of equations to commission, that is, finding the selling price or commission rate, pp. 57-59.
63. Application of equations to exercises on trade discount where rate of discount or list price is to be determined, pp. 62, 63, 64.
64. Lines: different kinds (straight, broken, curved), naming of lines, line segments, measurements of line segments with compasses (including laying off a line segment equal to a given segment, to the sum and difference of given segments).
65. Bisection of a straight line segment, page 367. Verify by ruler measurement and by compass measurement. Apply to division of a line segment into 4, 8 equal parts and to finding the side of a square when the perimeter is given.
66. Erection of a perpendicular to a given line at a point in the line. Verify construction with protractor. Page 182, including exercises, also selected exercises on pp. 369, 370.
67. Construction of square and rectangle with straight edge and compasses, pp. 183-184, exercises on page 189.

First Term (continued)

Period

68. Construction of acute, obtuse and right triangles, pp. 183, 184, ex on page 189.
69. Bisection of an angle. Verify construction with protractor. Page 368. Apply to selected exercises on pp. 369-370, especially construction with straight edge and compasses of an angle equal to 45°, 22½°, etc.
70. Construction of an angle equal to a given angle by means of straight edge and compasses, page 369. Verify construction with protractor. Apply to geometric construction of an angle equal to twice a given angle, sum and difference of two given angles.

Second Term

1. Review the following geometric constructions: bisect a line, bisect an angle, construct a right angle, construct an angle equal to a given angle. Pages 182, 183, 187, 368.
2. & 3. Construction of a triangle congruent to a given triangle by making asa=asa, p. 371; by making sas=sas, pp. 371-372; by making sss=sss, p. 372.
4. Construction of a line parallel to a given line. Show also how draughtsmen construct parallels by means of triangles.
5. Definition of parallelogram, geometric construction of parallelogram, page 188. Derive experimentally, by paper cutting, the

Second Term (continued)

Period

formula for the area of a parallelogram.

6. Application of the formula K=bh as an algebraic equation for finding area, base or altitude of a parallelogram and rectangle, pp. 166/1-4, 167/22, 23. Make up additional exercises in which the base or altitude is unknown.
7. & 8. Derive by paper cutting the formula for the area of a triangle, K=½bh, and apply it as an equation to determine the area, the base or the altitude when the remaining parts are given, pp. 166-167. Include exercises on right triangle areas.
9. Review lesson.
10. Test.
11. Application of algebraic equations to exercises in insurance in which the rate or face of the policy is unknown, pp. 73-74.
12. Application of algebraic equation to exercises in taxes in which the tax rate or assessed valuation is unknown, pp. 78, 79.
13. Ratio, pp. 282-283.
14. Proportion; product of means equals product of extremes; solving proportions for unknown term, pp. 284-285.
15. Solution of simple problems by means of proportion, pp. 286-287-288.
16. Enlarging or reducing a given triangle by constructing corresponding angles equal. Define similar figures. Verify by measurement

Second Term (continued)

Period

that corresponding sides of similar triangles are proportional.

17. Enlarging or reducing rectangles, squares and parallelograms, pp. 373-374.
18. Application of proportion to finding sides of similar polygons. For example, the sides of a triangle are 4″, 5″, 8″; find each side of a similar triangle whose smallest side is 6″. Include similar exercises involving squares, rectangles and parallelograms.
19. Review lesson.
20. Test.
21. Lateral and total surfaces of rectangular solids, including cubes. Use models of these solids. Make up suitable exercises.
22. & 23. Volumes of rectangular solids, including cubes, pp. 277-281.
24. Volume of a prism, page 309. Display models of prisms.
25. Review finding circumference and area of a circle when radius or diameter is given, pp. 305-306-307, 308.
26. Lateral area and total area of a cylinder, pp. 310-311. Display model of cylinder.
27. Volume of a cylinder, pp. 311, 312.
28. Surface and volume of a sphere. Make up easy exercises. Include finding surface and volume of the earth assuming it to be a sphere of radius 4,000 miles.
29. Review lesson.
30. Test.

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Second Term (continued)

Period

31. Powers of numbers, pp. 291-292, and square root of numbers by inspection, page 293.

32. & 33. Extraction of square root including finding result to one or two decimal places, pp. 294-297.

34. & 35. Pythagorean theorem for right triangles verified on graph paper. Apply to finding hypothenuse of a right triangle when the arms are given, pp. 299-302, and finding diagonal of a rectangle or square, page 303.

36. Addition of like positive terms, pp. 398-399.

37. Algebraic expression of perimeters of rectangles and squares, pp. 404-405. Numerical evaluation of above.

38. Meaning and evaluation of monomials, page 400.

39. Review lesson.

40. Test.

41. Algebraic expression for area of a square and for volume of a cube, pp. 404, 406. Include numerical evaluation.

42. Evaluation of simple binomials, page 401.

43. Meaning of positive and negative numbers, page 411. Show also graphic position of positive and negative numbers with reference to the zero point on a straight line.

44. Addition of like terms, positive and negative, pp. 412, 413.

Second Term (continued)

Period

45. Algebraic solution of problems involving perimeters of squares and rectangles leading to equations of type $ax=b$, pp. 423, 424.

46. Formula building. The pupil should be led to derive the following formulas after a consideration of a sufficient number of illustrative numerical cases:

Profit and loss:	$S=C+P$, $S=C-L$, $C=S-P$, $C=S+L$, $P=Cr$, $L=Cr$.
Commission:	$C=Sr$
Interest:	$I=prt$, $A=p+prt$
Distance:	$d=rt$
Tax:	$T=Vr$
Cost of articles at p cents each:	$C=pn$

47. & 48. Use of formulas given in preceding lesson to solve the simpler problems in interest, profit and loss, taxes, insurance, pp. 432, 433, 434, 439, 440, 441.

49. Review lesson.

50. Test.

51. Meaning of average. Apply to finding average mark, average earning, average temperature, baseball average. Make up suitable exercises of this type.

52. & 53. Stocks, pp. 265-268.

54. & 55. Bonds, pp. 269-271.

56. Investments, pp. 272-274.

57. Mortgages, page 459.

58. Income tax. Make up simple exercises in computing New York State income tax.

59. Review lesson.

60. Test.

Second Term—(continued)

Period

61. Verify by means of protractor or by juxtaposition the fact that the sum of the angles about a point equals 360°, also by protractor or superposition that vertical angles are equal. Make up simple numerical exercises based upon these properties.

62. Construction of isosceles triangle, equilateral triangle.

63. Verify by protractor or superposition that base angles of an isosceles triangle are equal. Verify by protractor that each angle of an equilateral triangle is 60°. Apply to geometric construction of an angle of 60°, 30°, 15°, 120°.

64. Verify by protractor or juxtaposition that the sum of the angles of any triangle is 180°. Make up simple numerical exercises, arithmetic and algebraic, making use of this fact.

65. Construction of right triangles by means of ruler and protractor when an arm and an acute angle are given, when the two arms are given, when the hypothenuse and an acute angle are given.

66. Drawing right triangles to scale when parts mentioned in preceding lesson are given and determining the approximate true values of the remaining parts by measurement. For example, construct a right triangle in which an arm is 50 ft. and an acute angle is

Second Term—(continued)

Period

35°; what is the length of the other two sides of the triangle?

67. Angle of elevation. Solve problems involving angle of elevation by means of scale drawings. Select exercises in Wells and Hart, New Elementary Algebra, page 263. Use round numbers for lengths of sides.

68. Meaning of opposite side, adjacent side, with reference to an acute angle of a right triangle. Use of table multipliers (tangents) to find the length of the opposite side when the adjacent side and the acute angle are known. Solve the same exercises of preceding period by means of this table of multipliers.

69. Solving additional problems in indirect measurement by means of scale drawings. See Wells and Hart, New Elementary Algebra, pages 270, 271, ex. 19, 20, 28, 34. Use round numbers.

70. Use of table of multipliers (sines) to find the length of an arm of a right triangle when the opposite acute angle and the hypothenuse are given. Apply to simple improvised problems in numerical trigonometry. It is not necessary to teach the definitions of sine and tangent or even to mention these terms.

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CHARACTER TRAINING *

THE SCHOOL must face the situation that character training is one of its most important problems today. This problem would present no difficulties to the school if each child came to it with a good inheritance, intelligent parents, and appropriate environmental influences. Unfortunately this situation does not obtain. As a result the school is compelled to take over the work of these other social agents in addition to the burdensome task which it already has to accomplish.

There are, it seems to me, certain pertinent questions that we ought to ask ourselves about character training before we can definitely determine the whys and wherefore of our methods and procedures. These questions are: What are the elements to be considered in character training? Can the school deal with these elements? If so, how? Finally, what precautions must we take in dealing with such elements?

The elements of character can only be studied in relation to action because it is by virtue of action or by the inhibition of an action that an individual makes known the texture of his character to others and even to himself. Let us see what elements operate to compel an individual to choose one course of action from among many and to carry it into effect. The execution of an act involves the functioning of desires, the play of ideals, habits and attitudes to make a proper choice, and the exercise of the will to enforce action. For example: Johnny Brown on a bright, sunny school morning suddenly gets the desire to go down to the beach to take a swim. He is immediately confronted by his habit of never having been late to school, his boast at home that he has never yet been absent from school, and by his attitude of fearful respect which he bears towards his father who, he feels, might be seriously displeased were he to receive a notice that Johnny had played truant. All these factors immediately begin to play upon Johnny's mind and have a distinct bearing on his choice of action, and if Johnny's ideal, habits and attitudes are urgent enough, Johnny's will will be set into motion and compel him to hasten with renewed energy to school. It is important to note that the will functions only when ideals, habits and attitudes are very firmly rooted. Therefore, our program in character training ought to be the proper development of ideals, habits and attitudes.

Now there are two schools of thought with reference to character training. One school believes that proper ideals, habits and attitudes may be implanted by the direct teaching of ethics as a distinct subject in the course of study. The other school believes that character training should be carried on incidental to classroom instruction whenever the subject material presents a basis for human interest or whenever classroom discipline presents a problem.

I favor the incidental method of character training, first, because it is practically impossible to get a sufficient number of teachers who are temperamentally qualified to arouse the impulses or emotional attitudes that are essential to create moral behavior; secondly, because moral conduct is a cumulative product of years of experience; and thirdly, because character is the outcome of many factors, the least important of which is instruction in morals.

How are we to proceed in the classroom in order to build up these elements of character incidentally? We stated previously that desire precedes action. The school has no need to create desires because they are always present either consciously or subconsciously. The problem of the school is, rather, to focus consciousness upon appropriate desires so that they may be the ones chosen by the individual from among other desires for fulfillment. The choice of an appropriate desire is dependent upon a background of appropriate ideals. It is, therefore, the business of the school to develop ideals. Charters has formulated a very helpful plan for teaching an ideal of conduct. (1) Bring the desire into the focus of consciousness; (2) diagnose the situation; (3) develop a plan of action; (4) require practice or execution of a plan; (5) generalize the ideal or ideals involved. Let us apply these steps to a classroom situation. A teacher may be confronted by a class which is not exactly disorderly. The members of the class, however, have no conception whatsoever of courtesy as an ideal of conduct. They do not speak directly to the class when reciting; they interrupt their classmates and call out without permission.

The first step to be taken would be to focus the attention of the class on the desire for courtesy. This can be done by getting them to realize and admit that time is being wasted because of lack of courtesy. The teacher can then call for suggestions to remedy this situation. In the discussion that follows pupils would be guided to formulate a plan of action. Their part in the execution of such a plan should be especially stressed. After the plan has been in operation for several weeks, the class should be led to summarize the benefits that have resulted. The last step should then be an active application wherever possible of courtesy to other school situations.

When it comes to the development of proper habits which, like ideals, form a part of the basis of character, there are just one or two practical suggestions that I would like to make. Habits as related to character are most apt to be connected with classroom situations rather than with subject material situations. It is incumbent upon the teacher to watch for those golden moments in classroom situations in which strong incentives for the development of proper habits of conduct may be found. For example: five or

*A talk given before the teachers of Annex No. 1 of the Abraham Lincoln High School, one of a series planned by Mr. André Fontaine, head of this Annex.

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six pupils are habitually late to a recitation period. This condition presents an opportunity for the teacher to develop the habit of punctuality on the basis of a social need. Here is an important incentive which the teacher may employ. In addition, it is most important to remember that no teacher can implant a habit without specific preparation, which includes the choice of appropriate stimuli, the outline of the reaction desired, and the development of proper incentives and exercises to insure sufficient practice.

Very little is known about attitudes except that they are the by-products of experiences that take the form of preferences. These preferences frequently conflict with each other. The stronger ones determine the course towards which the will will be impelled. Professor Dewey states the case very well when he says: "Choice of an action is not the emergence of preference out of indifference, it is the emergence of a unified preference out of competing preferences." It is therefore the duty of the teacher, when the subject material or classroom situation permits, to emphasize very strongly those attitudes or preferences, if you will, that conform to social needs and standards, with the hope that by making these sufficiently strong they will propel the will into action in the right direction. The improper development of strong attitudes has in good measure been responsible for the failure of some of the teaching in citizenship. Tommy Jones has been taught that cleanliness is a worthy ideal, for many individual and social reasons. Nevertheless, Tommy will repeatedly wa through the corridors of the scho and fail time and again to pick up a of the litter he may stumble upon. H failure to react socially to this situ tion is most probably due to the fa that his attitude towards cleanlin has not been sufficiently developed overcome other conflicting attitud such as, perhaps, the fear of bei seen picking up the litter by one his fellow students who may label hi as a "goody-goody."

A strong attitude can usually be d veloped on the basis of a real ind vidual need strikingly brought to t attention of the pupil. I had a ve clear illustration of this fact in one my classes last term. Many of t boys in this class wore their sweate throughout the entire period. I quested them to remove their sweate and at the same time asked them state the disadvantages of weari sweaters in class. This method did produce satisfactory results. A numb of the students continued to wo sweaters. Shortly after this incid we began the study of bacteria. W inoculated various Petri dishes wi bacteria from different sources, su as air, water, food, etc., among wh were a sweater and a clean shirt. W grew the culture and I proved to class that the sweater bore many mo bacteria than did the clean shirt. Af this, I seldom had to remind any mo ber of the class that sweaters were to be worn in class. I also noti that, without much further effort my part, this same group which under my supervision during the fu period left the room in a much cleaner condition than they had heretofore done. In addition, I should like to add that I have a great number of these boys in one of my classes this term. The other day I checked up and found only three boys wearing sweaters. They were all boys who had not been members of this group last term.

The school can do very little directly to train the will because the will is functional in its operation and is an active outgrowth of our ideals, our habits and attitudes. There is, however, one practice sometimes carried on in classrooms related to discipline that tends to interfere with the proper operation of the will. I refer to the practice of giving negative orders, such as "Don't talk without permission!" "Don't look at your neighbor's paper!" In such commands the "Don'ts" recede to the marginal finger of consciousness and "talk" and "look" are brought into the focus of consciousness. Such commands should be given in positive form. "Speak only when called on." "Keep your eyes on your own paper." This should be done because it is simpler to carry out an action than to repress the tendency to action.

In conclusion, I wish to state that what makes character training so difficult for all teachers is the fact that the school, as it is at present organized, still dedicates itself primarily to the training of the intellect. If teachers were not burdened with the pressure of time, they might be able to accomplish more in the way of character training. We must, however, recognize the fact that moral conduct is the cumulative product of active experiences and it is the duty of the teacher if he wishes to train character, to take the time to present appropriate experiences with due reference to scientific procedure.

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Annex 1.

PROVISION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN PUBLIC SCHOOL HOME ECONOMICS CLASSES

I. INTRODUCTION.

THE SCOPE of this study will be confined to a discussion of policies providing for individual differences, and the possibilities of adapting subject-matter to the capacities of public school pupils in the home economics classes. The following questions are pertinent:

1. Why are we concerned about individual differences?
2. What evidence have we that is valid regarding the adjustment of individual differences?
3. What is the nature of differences in public school pupils?
4. What are some devices and methods that may be used to meet these differences?
5. What criteria should be our guide in adopting policies for individual adjustment in home

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economics courses that will also meet with the ultimate aims of education?

II. Why Are We Concerned?

During the period beginning with the World War and continuing up to the present, many significant changes have taken place in modern civilization which profoundly affect the activities of the individual. Machine production has created more leisure. Wealth and leisure combined have raised the standardization of the masses to a higher level of learning, with the result that the requirements for employment in all lines of work have been raised.

With mass instruction on a high level, the need arises for individuals as leaders in industry, in the trades, in the arts; for originality in music, in literature, and in the drama; for the differentiation of individuals as social and industrial assets.

The United States, being the "melting" pot that it is, has discovered by many years of experience that the influx of the peoples from foreign countries with differing racial characteristics, adds many desirable factors, and gives color, variety, and the interest of differentness.

Competition with foreign countries in all lines of human endeavor has created a demand for leaders, for the individuals who vary from the standard type and who attain ranking positions in athletic attainments, in invention, in commerce, in transportation, in designing in all of its branches.

The individual is relatively more of a personality than ever before.

Psychology, in its modern phases has centered public attention on the individual. Psycho-analysis emphasized complexes and inhibitions and pointed out individual differences due to inherited tendencies, natural geographical environment, man-made environment, and social inheritance.

The scientific attitude of questioning old theories has extended to all fields, political, religious, social and educational.

Whenever a rapid transformation of the conditions of living has taken place, the tendency has been for the curriculum to lag behind.

New movements do not originate in the public schools, but rather come as a demand from conditions and social pressure outside of the school.

With a social and economic demand for leaders, individualism was stressed as a life problem, and the schools reflected the thought by changing from mass instruction to the handling of individual differences.

Analysis of "the laws of learning" and "the thinking process," the realization that no two people are alike in mental capacity, and that living in the present is as important as preparing to live in the future, brought about a new conception of education, and a changing curriculum.

III. What Is Being Done to Adjust School to Individuals?

The rise of the junior high school was probably the outward manifestation of a recognition that elementary and secondary schools failed to fill the needs of the school child. For a time, its position was precarious, but science and psychology developed rapidly enough to analyze the objectives of the three types of schools and to state their respective aims clearly.

Professor Bonser says: "It is the purpose of the elementary school to provide experience in meeting the common needs of all, regardless of sex, vocation, or social status. As children develop individual capacities, as vocational interests make their appeals with more marked differences in response, and as the economic conditions of the home begin to make their influence felt, the wholly unified work of the elementary school must come to a close. The secondary school should provide activities meeting the needs of small groups or even of individual students. Individual differences and needs should be responded to in the full measure in which they exist. The junior high school marks a movement forward from the unified elementary school to the differentiated, departmental plan of the senior high school. It provides much greater opportunity for trying out in activities of individual interest."

The junior high school was a recognition that all students were not fitted by temperament or ability to follow the senior high school curriculum with profit to themselves or to society.

With the three types of schools, nearly all of the attempts to individualize instruction fall under two main heads:

1. Provisions for individual differences while retaining the class system of organization and method.
2. Provisions for strictly individual instruction.

Special experiments in both of the above divisions are briefly described as follows:

1. *Modern Batavia Plan.*

   This plan is commonly known as the "class-individual" method. Part of the time is given to class instruction, and part to individual instruction. Where the classes are very large, two teachers are used—a regular teacher for class, and a special teacher for individual instruction. The special teacher devotes her time to pulling up the laggards to normal standard.

2. *Ability Grouping.*

   The regular class is divided into three groups, on the basis of intelligence and achievement tests, with the judgment of the teacher as an additional factor in classification. These groups are known as (x), superior, (y), middle group, and (z), lower group. The (x) group—20% of the class—covers the regular subject matter of the grade in a shorter time and is given an enriched course in the subject; the (y) group—60% of the class—does the regular courses; the (z) group—20% of the class—are given a simplified course (minimal essentials).

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"Rapid advancement" or "retardation" classes are other terms applied to classes when grouped according to ability.

3. *Differentiated Assignments.*

This system of instruction provides for individual differences by allowing additional credits for all work done beyond the minimal requirements. In the Chicago University High School, some courses are organized into a number of units (14). All pupils are required to take the first ten units and are permitted to select two of the last four units. The superior pupils in a group take all fourteen units, after which they may take advanced work and receive additional credit.

4. *Pueblo Plan.*

Under this plan each pupil goes ahead just as fast as he can. It resembles the 17th century plan of instruction, when the teacher heard every pupil recite that portion of work that he had been able to prepare. The program is rather flexible and follows very much the common practice of kindergarten classes, on through high school.

5. *Strictly Individual.*

In this system the instruction is purely individual, each student developing according to his own ability and at his own rate of speed. The teacher's function is to help when needed.

6. *Socialized Recitation.*

Like the project method, the socialized recitation allows for individual differences. If organized as a club, leadership and executive ability have full play, while the routine worker falls into line on her own level of learning.

7. *Winnetka Schools.*

The Winnetka, Illinois, schools were the first public schools to undertake provisions for individual differences. Under the Winnetka plan each pupil may take as much time as he needs to master a unit of work. There are two parts to the curriculum:

1. Common knowledge and skills.
2. Self-expression—individual interests.

In both these divisions of work the pupil is placed on what might be termed "a piece work basis," instead of the usual "time work basis." No child ever fails at Winnetka, nor does he ever skip a grade. Pupils get the habit of mastering everything they undertake. The second part of the above divisions of school activities recognizes the "law of variation" as a factor in the full development of the child.

Other towns or schools have adopted and are using the Winnetka plan.

8. *Dalton Plan.*

The Dalton Plan was put into operation by Miss Parkhurst in a private school of her own. After successful efforts there, it was put into the public schools of Dalton, Massachusetts, from which it received its name. It is used throughout by several schools, the outstanding example being the Manhattan Trade School for Girls in New York City, and in part or in adapted forms by many other schools. Its outstanding success has been obtained in foreign countries. Notable among these are England and Russia, where Miss Parkhurst was hired to install the system.

The Dalton Plan provides for the individual three special features, namely:

1. Freedom in study.
2. Coöperation and interaction.
3. Time budgeting.

This system is commonly known as the "laboratory method" (see Prof. Johnson's article in "The Classroom Teacher"), or sometimes as the "contract method." All subject matter is given in the form of "contracts." It is an effort to make the life of the school correspond socially to life outside the school. Pupils are given freedom to work without interruption while pursuing a present interest. The method develops concentration. The system calls for individual promotion and graduation.

9. *Project Method.*

The project method is one of the best for taking care of individual differences. As it is a purposeful activity carried forward in a natural environment, each type of ability may find its level and develop from there as in a life situation. Reference work and outside assignments easily adjust to the individual without particular stress being laid on native deficiencies.

10. *Requirements and Electives.*

In high schools, individual differences are handled by means of required subjects and electives. Requirements are the minimum while electives are added as extras to the programs of the superior group.

11. *Number of Subjects.*

This is also a high school method of taking care of individual differences. A pupil of low or inferior intelligence is programmed for fewer subjects than the superior student.

12. *Variety of Courses.*

A variety of courses is a device used by high schools for taking care of individual differences. The classical or college preparatory course is often permitted to superior children only. Commercial courses, home economics courses, vocational courses are all prepared with an idea of differences in individual ability and interests.

13. *Special Schools.*

Special schools, such as vocational schools, trade schools, open air

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schools, schools for the blind, opportunity schools, evening schools, part-time schools, and Montessori schools have all been provided on account of individual differences.

14. *Extra-Curricular Activities.*

Many a child has shown his first real interest or leadership or skill through a school paper, an athletic contest, a hiking club or some other project which is not a designated part of the course of study. Clubs and organizations of pupil groups have a place in every school as a means of developing and taking care of individual differences.

This survey serves as representative of what is being done in different parts of the country in an effort to adjust schools to the individual. As to results, most authorities on the subject agree that

1. Ability grouping is only a halfway step and does not solve the problem entirely of adjusting school to individual differences.
2. Individual work does not save time for the talented pupils, or those who would normally be repeaters.
3. In Winnetka, an unusually large amount of time is devoted to group and creative activities.
4. The tendency of individual instruction does not seem to be so much toward getting children through school at an early age, as toward using the time saved for broader and deeper education.
5. Individual work increases efficiency in the tool subjects.
6. Individual work does not place an undue burden upon the teacher.
7. Individual promotions appear definitely to decrease retardation and corresponding over-ageness.
8. While individual work is an advantage to the superior student, lack of the audience situation has a tendency to slow down the already slow pupil.

The ideal adjustment of schools to the personal needs of individual pupils is far from being wholly realized. It is only in the beginning stage at present and, as Washburne expresses it, "the surface has only been scratched." The special interest in this survey is to inquire what provisions should be made for individual differences in home economics classes.

IV. Status of Home Economics Courses in Public Schools.

For the past thirty years, home economics has been recognized as a part of the regular school curriculum. It has been included in elementary schools for the seventh and eighth grades, sometimes even commencing as low as the sixth. In secondary schools during that time, it has varied from a requirement to an elective, depending upon the nature of the school. Unless it was a purely academic high school, some form of home economics was included. Teachers were specially trained in colleges, universities, and normal schools, not only in subject-matter, but in methods of teaching the subject as well.

Individual instruction as far as performance goes, during these years, has been a reality. The equipment for cooking classes has always been of the individual type, each student, for the most part, carrying forward her work alone from the measuring to the serving. All pictures of equipment in catalogues of the past show the hollow square table, with each student working at a one or two burner gas plate, the table with the lockers forming an individual kitchen. In sewing, each garment made by the student has been an individual performance.

While performance within the group was individual, the subject-matter for the group was uniform. The class, as a group, studied the same subject-matter for each term, regardless of the individual differences of students. Superior children have been grouped with the average or slow unless a system of ability grouping prevailed within the academic subjects. An intelligent teacher of home economics adjusted the work to fit individual differences in ability by adding executive, monitorial or inspectorial duties to the regular class work of the superior student. This amounted to differentiated assignments within the group. The home economics classes were labeled "special" as compared with the academic classes, signifying special subject-matter, special methods of teaching, special ways of performing and reacting by the students.

It is well to consider this in the light of the new requirements of education. Kilpatrick tells us that "to learn is acquiring new ways of behavior. Only as students practice thinking and choice and responsibility for results can they learn to think and choose and accept responsibilities. The best schools wish active purposeful work in their pupils. School activities must be linked with life activities."

Thorndike proved by repeated experiments that the study of sewing was as educative as Latin or mathematics.

Existing new developments in the principles of modern educational processes must be applied to the subject of home economics as well as any other course in the curriculum. The tendency to individualize instruction in the public schools should be applied to home economics subjects more easily and with less readjustments than it could be to other subjects. The advantages to be gained would be not only those that are common to the other subjects of the curriculum, but also those which are most vital in all home economics development—the cultivation of attitudes and appreciations.

Some of the most common objections to individualized instruction are that it is undemocratic in principle, that it would eliminate the opportunity for inter-action, that it tends to eliminate the stimulus that comes from group activity. These objections have already been partially answered, but there are other questions bearing on the general aims of democratic education which might be inserted at this

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point, and which concern home economics classes particularly.

1. In what proportion, if adopted in a public school, will the advantages and disadvantages of individual instruction in home economics vary if the number of pupils in a class increases?
2. While individual instruction may develop certain inherent talents, does the lack of the audience situation retard the development of certain social characteristics in the individual which are valuable in life?
3. How far can the advantages be increased and the disadvantages be decreased by improved technique in individual instruction?
4. Is the type of group activities used in the individualized schools effective in producing initiative?

V. What Is the Nature of Individual Differences?

Assuming that there is no question in regard to individual differences in temperament and ability among school children, we may proceed to find out to what extent these differences exist and to what extent they can be provided for in home economics classes. The work of Thorndike, Terman, Ruch, Crossman, Green, Gates, McCall, Otis, and others equally noted in measuring intelligence, achievement, and performance, have shown graphically the great extent of differences present in an average classroom of the public schools. There have been attempts made to devise measurement tests of ability as related to home economics fields, but as yet none of these has proved to be of any great value except in measuring a knowledge of facts or skills, and to a degree organization and judgment. Murdock, Trilling, Lucy Fulton, Grace McAdam and others have prepared and published home economics tests, as well as the home economics or research departments of Ohio, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota; Wisconsin University and Teachers College has worked out some standardized tests in home economics subjects. But authorities are generally agreed that these measure only what they measure, and, by the very difficulty they encounter, prove the variability and range of differences inherent in individuals. The so-called standards of ability in cooking or sewing are by no means fixed or universally accepted as absolute, tangible measurements. A loaf of bread may be made according to a recipe and tally with the requirements for a good loaf of bread when baked, yet as compared with other loaves vary as to flavor. A dress may be made according to pattern with excellent sewing, yet lack the style, fit, and appearance to make it a desirable garment. The so-called tangible factor is only subjectively so, and therefore more or less a matter of judgment. If this is true, what hope is there of measuring, weighing, or rating the intangible factors or the unknown factors objectively? In associated and concomitant learnings lie the most vital part of home economics. But we are not so much concerned with the problem of measuring ability at present as we are in developing ability.

The class system of home economics instruction rarely provides for anything more than the so-called tangible element. If home economics were confined to mechanical doing, the recognition of individual differences would not be of serious import. Granting that home economics has a much broader scope in attitudes and appreciations toward citizenship, worthy home membership, ethical character, and right use of leisure, and since these functions of home economics training are intangibly different in each individual, it becomes necessary to provide for such differences in all home economics courses. The fact that in the average school home economics class we find a group of pupils of about the same age, does not signify in any sense that they have the same interests or ability. Age is no longer a sound basis for classification generally, and particularly not in home economics classes. In the light of what educational research has revealed, it becomes a responsibility of the schools to identify and provide for these differences. In every public school home economics class we may expect to find a wide range of differences in respect to the following:

1. Intelligence.
2. Talent.
3. Temporary interests.
4. Home background.
5. Special inheritance.
6. Biological inheritance.

Summarizing the effect of these differences in individual pupils upon their reactions to the stimuli of subject-matter and methods of teaching, the differences may hypothetically be reduced to interest, taste, and ability. In order to integrate these inherent differences, home economics courses should take into account, then:

1. The necessity of provisions for differences on the basis of interest, taste and ability.
2. The necessity for meeting such differences by
   a. Methods of teaching;
   b. Methods of class organization;
   c. Variation of curriculum.

VI. Some Suggestive Devices to Meet Individual Differences.

1. *Methods of Teaching:*

There is no need to point out how the class system in public schools fails to take into account the different interests, tastes, and abilities to any great extent. While this is perhaps not so true in regard to home economics as it is in other subjects, nevertheless it is a fault. In order to function economically, the public school is forced, in many cases, to march thirty or forty pupils of non-descript capacity into a classroom to receive home economics instruction. Under such circumstances, all individuality must necessarily be suppressed in order to make the machinery move. What exercises the class receives are rigidly standardized on the general assumption that all pupils of a certain class are "average pupils," whereas it is evident that no two could possibly be alike, even in the ability to measure. If two mem-

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bers of a class receive the same rating, it is no criterion that both pupils have made the same errors, nor that both have mastered an equal amount of subject matter, nor that one is not capable of going farther and deeper into a project than the other.

So long as human nature varies in individuals, it will be impractical to apply one system of teaching to a heterogeneous group of interests, tastes, and abilities, and expect to obtain their full development. A cast iron method of teaching presupposes a similarity of capacity which never exists in pupils of the average classroom. Unless the method is flexible in practice, it will tend to cramp and often destroy the very qualities it is intended to develop—charm, personal magnetism, the social qualities, doing motivated by intelligent thinking. The socialized recitation and the project method have helped solve the difficulties of individual differences in this respect. Dramatization, the pretending to be a family or to being grown up, with a kitchen of one's own, has always played a part in the teaching of home economics.

Unless a pupil is allowed to work a great part of the time by herself, she will never attain self-reliance or acquire ability to master a difficulty. The Dalton plan has its advantages. It supplies the personal stimulus necessary. It keeps the exercise from becoming mechanical. It allows for rapid advancement while taking care of the average and slow pupil.

Few subjects require better preparation of her lesson on the part of a teacher than does home economics. There is no subject in the curriculum whose separate lessons are so far reaching in associate and concomitant learnings. The emotionalized attitudes connected with the study of home economics condition and, to a large extent, determine the future responses of the student toward home and work within the home. No other subject is so closely linked with the personal and social life of the individual in the present or tends to cause such definite reactions in the future.

Theoretically the presentation, as to principles and methods, should be no different than those which govern good teaching generally. They should, however, in practice be more versatile in order to provide for the variation of individual capacity. Flexibility must be the foundation and the keynote—flexibility of technique to match variations of temperament and ability.

2. *Organization of Classes.*

Such provisions for individual differences in methods of teaching as suggested above need not interfere to any great extent with the regular organization of classes. The course of study, the program, the equipment, the grading and promotions should all be planned to meet the needs of the individual pupil. The general aim should be to give each pupil a chance to work up to the full measure of her capacity.

The public schools of Winnetka have done this quite successfully. They have modified their curriculum and administrative procedure to accomplish two purposes: to make greater adaptation to individual differences than is customary in public schools, and at the same time to provide for the desirable socialized and self-expressive activities.

Schools on the Dalton Plan have adapted the curriculum and administrative policies to individual differences. It is no longer a matter of experiment at the Brooklyn Industrial High School for Girls. Here 1,900 girls spend the time for two years on contracts in vocational work, including millinery and sewing trades, and cooking as a trade for all branches of cafeteria or tea room work. Individual enrollment, promotion, and graduation do not interfere with administration or curriculum making, nor detract from the social benefits derived as a member of a group.

The unit kitchen, the apartment, and the practice house have, for some years, helped home economics adjust to individual differences. While keeping the class organizations uniform with other school subjects, within the department, individual projects have trained for self-reliance and creative thinking. The apartment and unit kitchen provide opportunity for the superior and average student. The class kitchen is a means by which the teacher easily handles the slow or retarded pupils, or those having a low intelligence quotient. Separate sewing, cooking, and millinery rooms have helped handle the regular class organization while catering to individual differences.

3. *Variation of Curriculum.*

With new methods, new materials, new procedures and new ideas being constantly introduced in all branches of home economics, flexibility is not a new requirement. It has been a practice for many years in a general way. As compared with Latin or Geometry, its flexibility is obvious as to subject matter. Individual presentation is but a step farther.

The course of study in cooking and household management furnishes a variety of subjects. If the subjects are based on the needs of a community, according to the basic principles of education, a list would be almost endless. From such a list, it is not difficult to find material which is of value to differing interests and abilities.

It is evident, however, that the public school, with its restrictions, can not develop a pupil in all phases of home economics. It must concentrate on those elements and principles which are fundamental in the lives of all people. What class instruction has tried to accomplish, more or less, was to thrust this mass of material on every pupil, hoping that by the law of averages some would profit by it. By such a policy, gifted pupils are held back, while the non-gifted become discouraged by the competition.

With the fundamental principles of home economics thoroughly started in the primary grades, pupils should be allowed to progress independently of each other, according to their special interests, tastes, and abilities. Individual achievement should be the sole

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basis for advancement. A pupil should be rated on the units of work she has actually mastered, irrespective of what other members of the class have accomplished. She should be allowed to decide which branch of home economics she will select. No subject has within itself such a variety of vocations from which to choose. It is one in which women have been trained for centuries and allows the exercise of abilities ranging from organization, executive, and personnel work to that of the merest routine.

VII. Criteria for Judging Provisions.

The ultimate aims of education in a democracy must be recognized. The value of group activities as a desirable social element in education must be maintained to a certain extent in order to develop a sense of coöperation on the part of the pupil. The importance of this element has been recognized and provided for in most of the experimental plans reviewed at the beginning of this article.

Complete individualized instruction is out of the question, due to the present school organization which must take into consideration the cost per capita to the community and the time element as related to the school day and age of the individual. Aside from these considerations, it would eliminate the stimulus that comes from group activity.

The nearest approach to a practical demonstration providing for individual differences, while at the same time retaining the best features of the class system, is a combination of both as described in the Batavia plan. In this plan the group stimulus is preserved and at the same time ample provision is made for explicit individual instruction.

A factor in evaluating provisions for individual differences is the psychological change which takes place during the development of pupils. The same policy can not apply to kindergarten and high school pupils. This has already been recognized in the organization of the school system, according to the natural divisions of the levels of learning. The most critical period in respect to psychological changes is the junior high school age, when the interests, tastes and abilities of pupils require a greater scope of outlet. The Dalton plan functions at this period with notable success. The provision of exploratory courses in junior high schools tide the individual over the time of difficult adjustment between childhood and the learning of a vocation as an adult.

VIII. Conclusions.

If home economics is to maintain its place in the curriculum in the public schools, it must meet the social and industrial needs of the community. The trend of modern social and industrial influences raises the status of the individual to a greater sense of freedom than ever before. Psychology has demonstrated that individual differences must be taken into account if the full development of the pupil is to be attained.

In a large city like New York, where the great problem is to "provide a seat for every child," any attempt to individualize instruction in academic subjects would be hampered by numerous modifications of the theory. But, as far as home economics instruction is concerned, results to date are probably more favorable than in any other subject in the curriculum. Inasmuch as individual interests, tastes and abilities are recognized in the divisions of the subject within the curriculum, in class organization, in equipment, and in methods of teaching, individual differences are provided for far in advance of the present trend.

The tendency in education to break away from subjects and to correlate information around "centers of interest" points to home economics as an important center of interest to differing individuals. The family has always been a group of individuals differing in age, interest, ability and sex. Each has an interest in geography as related to foods, textiles, building materials, and travel. History centers around the home both in peace as to the development of utensils, architecture and industries, and in war, which is usually for the purpose of protecting the home. Civics certainly enters in the home. "A nation is no stronger than its homes." Of what use is English? To communicate with our families our employers, our friends, our co-workers. Vocations have directly to do with the support of a home. The home then should be one of the important divisions in the new curriculum, attracting and holding the interest of many differing individuals.

Grace J. Ferguson.
Brooklyn Industrial High School for Girls.

CLUB WORK AND ACTIVITIES IN THE FIELD OF GERMAN*

Club work in the modern foreign language field requires no brief. Its desirability is unchallenged. It is a vital force in equipping a student for the more abundant life because it brings to him those experiences which the home school cannot provide and because it helps to answer the question, "How am I to spend my leisure?"

This great merit of the club and the activities which it sponsors and encourages can only issue, however, if the club reflects the interests of the student-members. The writer of this article sponsored the German Club in Bryant High School, was its faculty adviser during its first seven years, and then, after an interim, acted in that capacity for another year. Therefore she offers not theories, but the fruits of personal experience.

The language club is only an adjunct to the main business of language

* This is one of a series of articles on "Club Work and Activities" and "Music" prepared for use in the teaching of the different modern foreign languages.—Editor.

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teaching. The faculty adviser must be only a guide when guidance is asked, not the motive power. Not what the faculty adviser wishes, but what the boys and girls themselves desire, must determine the club programs. The club will be successful only to the degree that the students, not the teacher, initiate projects and assume responsibility. Teacher-imposed activities become a task; self-imposed tasks, a joy. And without this joyousness, this glow of pleasure, no helpful attitudes will be carried over into adult life.

What of the faculty adviser? Has she nothing to do except to be present at the meetings as a chaperon? Decidedly. The faculty adviser must be a teacher who firmly believes in the benefits of extra-curricular activities, who has great affection for and sympathy with young people in general, who loves teaching and especially teaching the language whose club needs guidance. Then this teacher must know just what sort of club she wishes to advise. For with careful guidance, well-defined principles may be followed without the sponsor appearing too much in the foreground.

Let me be very specific. When our German club was organized, I knew that I wished to take the group out in quest of those experiences which could not be offered within the home school. The question of size immediately assumed importance. For myself, I knew that thirty-five was the largest number for which I was willing to assume responsibility. For we had a typical German picnic each semester; we visited the museums, the old Irving Place Theater, art shops by previous arrangement, Columbia University with its occasional special exhibits, statues and monuments pertinent to our field. With more than thirty-five young people, I should have felt like "the old woman who lived in a shoe." This desire to go afield in order to enlarge our horizons was the determining factor. Had we limited ourselves to the meetings within the home school, more boys and girls could have been welcomed. We met twice a month—I believe that is the ideal number of meetings. We had talented members who played the piano so that the club rejoiced in song; there were frequent open meetings to which all students of German were welcomed and many at which other clubs in the school were the guests of honor. Many of the faculty also attended our open meetings. One rule from which no deviation was permitted was that there should be only one meeting a term at which refreshments were permitted. (You see the faculty adviser must do the braking). At this meeting the parents were welcomed.

The club permits students to meet in an intimate and social atmosphere with others of like interests. Will this intimate, social atmosphere be heightened by compulsory use of the foreign language? I doubt it. But I do believe that routine matters of procedure may well be carried out in the foreign tongue. Then the nature of the program, as interpreted by the participants, must determine the later course of the meeting. For the club must be a forum where the club members can

ride their hobbies. And if the limitation of language makes the road rocky, then the young people simply will not ride. The program must neither be over the heads of the participants, nor must it play down to them. Some will bring their treasures in German, but others must be permitted to offer theirs in English, or they will not offer them at all.

I offer some suggestions both relative to bibliography and to activities:

1. *General Bibliography*

Blackhorn, Laura: Our High School Clubs. The Macmillan Company, 1928.

Cole, Robert D.: Modern Foreign Languages and their Teaching. D. Appleton and Company, 1931.

Draper, E. M. and Roberts, A. C.: Principles of American Secondary Education. The Century Company, 1932.

Foster, C. R.: Extracurricular Activities. Johnson Publishing Company, 1925.

Fretwell, E. K.: Extra-Curricular Activities in the Secondary Schools. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931.

McKown, H. C.: School Clubs. The Macmillan Company, 1929.

Schirmer, Mariele: "Bibliography of Articles on German Clubs." *Monatshefte*, Vol. 20, March, 1928.

"The Significance of the Modern Language Club." *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 7, November, 1922.

2. *Special Bibliography*

J. A. Hess: "A Guide for German Clubs." *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 11, January, 1927. Reprints are procurable from Professor Hess at Ohio University, Athens, Ohio; price 30 cents.

Young, Caroline M.: "The German Club." *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 1, March, 1917.

Both of these articles suggest a suitable constitution with the necessary formulae for conducting the meetings in German.

3. *Games*

Professor Hess's article also lists twenty German conversational games. Many conversational games played in the students' own homes may be readily adapted to the foreign language. In addition to conversational games, there are many suitable "Quartett" games such as:

Bunte Blumen.
Tier-Quartett.
Die Weltstadt Berlin.
Dichter-Komponisten-Zitaten-Wagner-Quartett.

For beginners, the "Do you speak English?"-Quartett is fun.

These and many more may be had at B. Westermann Company, Inc., 13 West 46th St., New York City.

4. *Book-stores specializing in German books:*

A. Bruderhausen, 55 West 45th Street.
G. E. Stechert and Company, 31 East 10th Street.
E. Steiger and Company, 49 Murray Street.
B. Westermann Company Inc., 13 West 46th Street.

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No list given is complete; omissions are no reflection upon the firms not mentioned.

At Bruderhausen's a very complete assortment of German calendars is available.

5. *Libraries*

In its circulation department the New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and 42nd Street, has a very large collection of German books, including many of the most modern ones. Most of the branch libraries of the N. Y. P. L. have small German collections and all will borrow books desired by a reader.

There is also a "Leihbibliothek" at the "Foreign News Depot" in the Times Square Building, entrance at the corner of Seventh Avenue and 42d Street, where the current literature of Germany may be rented at a very nominal fee.

But books in English about Germany, Germans, German life, music, art, and history are undoubtedly of greater value to the young student than those in the German language. And all libraries have these.

It is also important that every school library have an interesting collection of such books as well as of superbly illustrated books. For the pictures make an appeal more potent than any text.

Among others I recommend:

Die Blauen Buecher (many titles).
Der Eiserne Hammer (many titles).
Seemanns farbige Kuenstlermappen (many titles).
Schaubuecher.
Geographical Monographs.
Baedeker: Deutschland. (This is a veritable mine of information and inspiration for the teacher.)
Ganghofer, Ludwig: Hochland-zauber.
Kurt Hielscher: Deutschland.
Kurt Hielscher: Austria.
Presber: Das Deutschland-Buch.
Roch, Carl O.: Die Alpen rufen!
Baker, Suzanne H. Barbe: Wayfarer in Bavaria.
Danton, George H.: Germany Ten Years After. (For older students.)
Diesel, Eugen: Germany and the Germans.
Jais, Regina: Legendary Germany. Oberammergau and Bayreuth.
Letts, Malcolm: Wayfarer in Central Germany.
Letts, Malcolm: Wayfarer on the Rhine.
Mac Kinder, H. J.: The Rhine, Its Valleys and History.
McBride, Robert Medill: Towns and People of Modern Germany.
Millet: Danube.
Peck, Ann Merriman: Young Germany.
Schauffer: Romantic Germany.
Schoonmaker: Come with me through Germany.
Shuster, George N.: The Germans. (For older students).
Untermeyer, Louis: Blue Rhine-Black Forest.

6. *Music*

Huncke, George D.: Music in Germany. HIGH POINTS, June, 1931

In this field we are particularly favored. Not a day but what radio programs offer good German music. Throughout the season, the daily newspapers publish pictures and programs of musicians appearing on the concert and opera stage; the recitals and operas are reviewed; and the opportunities for first-hand knowledge of German music are legion. The pupils will be happy to coöperate in gathering this material.

The Inter-City High School Club which meets Saturdays throughout the season is a potent agency for fostering an interest in German song and also in German instrumental music.

Then at all shops where phonograph and victrola records are sold, the catalogues list those suitable for club work, ranging from Beethoven symphonies to "Du, du, liegst mir im Herzen."

Records remind us that the Linguaphone Institute, 10 East 43d Street, New York, has excellent records spoken by Dr. Erich Drach, Berlin. These are beautiful models of diction and phrasing and range from "Die Lorelei" to "Die Drei Ringe" aus "Nathan der Weise." These may be effectively used in club work.

The libraries all circulate books about German music.

Suitable for use in German Club are the following:

Fidelitas.
Humperdinck: Sang und Klang fürs Kinderherz.
Heribert und Grüger: Liederfibel.
Volksliederbuch fuer die deutsche Jugend.
Von rosen ein kreutzelein (Blaue Bücher).
Alte deutsche Volkslieder.
Zupfgeigenhansl.

7. *Travel Pictures, Talkies, Lantern Slides*

The commercial houses offer many "talkies" daily, since there are more than a half dozen which present only German films. Many of the neighborhood houses also offer German "talkies" and the International Cinema League, 11 West 42d Street, New York, is coöperating with the Director of Modern Languages in the senior high schools in offering visual-aural instruction. The present offerings in the field of German greatly exceed those in other language fields.

The American Museum of Natural History has available for school use a few films such as:

Across the St. Gothard Alps, two reels.

Austria: Winter Sports in, one reel.
Hamburg, two reels.

North Sea: Over the Sunny, two reels.

The Hamburg-American Line, 39 Broadway, has films which it will not lend for school assemblies, but it may send an operator to show them before clubs, particularly if adults are in the audience. Each request will be considered on its own merits.

The same is true of the *German Railroads Information Office*, 665 Fifth Avenue, which also has beautiful slides. But both of the above are most generous with their pamphlets. Throughout this Goethe Year both

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have supplied illustrated Goethe material in great quantities for use in the schools, and the German Railroads Information Office gladly gives beautiful posters to the teachers for classroom display. *The German Tourist Information Official of the North German Lloyd*, 57 Broadway, is also very helpful.

The Carl Schurz Foundation, 225 South 15th Street, Philadelphia, has a six-reel film depicting Goethe's life.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art will lend lantern slides from its collection, which includes material illustrative of German architecture, sculpture, paintings, crafts, etchings, engravings and woodcuts.

There are many reels of travel film taken by teachers and their friends which can undoubtedly be made available to the students of our schools. But since in each case this borrowing would be a personal matter, it behooves those interested to locate this rich material.

Then there are the commercial travelogues of Branson De Cou, Burton Holmes, and E. M. Newman, to which attention may be called.

8. *Museums*

The Metropolitan Museum of Art offers great treasures.

In the Architectural Hall may be found a model of the Butchers' Guild House in Hildesheim (1529), a replica of Peter Vischer's Monument of St. Sebald in Nuremberg, and a construction of Nuremberg as it appeared in 1625.

There is also a charming Swiss room. There are wood carvings, metal work, crystal vessels, ivory carvings, stained glass, ceramics, sculpture, armor, engravings, etchings, woodcuts, and lithographs.

In the field of painting there are examples from the early period up through the art of Dürer and Holbien to the moderns, Arnold Böcklin, Franz von Lehnbach, Hans Thorna, and Max Lieberman.

We have already referred to the lantern slide collection, and mention must be made of the privilege of having guides to take groups to study exhibits in any definite field of interest.

The Brooklyn Museum of Art

The Brooklyn Museum has many German paintings ranging from Lukas Cranach through Arnold Bloecklin, Franz von Lehnbach and Fritz von Uhde to Franz Stueck. It also boasts old German furniture, and its curators will be happy to arrange lectures to be given at the Museum illustrated with its lantern slides of Hildesheim, Cologne, and Nuremberg

The Museum of Modern Art, 11 West 53d Street, has had one exhibition of current German art.

The Roerich Museum, 310 Riverside Drive, has had several lesser but very significant exhibits.

The Grolier Club invited the public to a very interesting display.

Columbia University, as a part of its contribution to the Goethe Year, offered the public the opportunity to visit a very fine collection of Hauptmanniana which was exhibited in Avery Hall.

Even a casual reading of the newspapers will disclose the temporary quarters at which German art may be studied. For every commercial gallery has potential importance from the museum standpoint.

9. *Monuments*

"German Realia," Report of a committee consisting of Pauline M. Sesso, Chairman, Alexander O. Bechert, J. B. E. Jonas, and George J. Lenz. HIGH POINTS, Vol. 6 No. 1, January, 1925.

In 1859, in commemoration of the hundredth anniversary of Schiller's birthday, the Germans presented to the city statues of Goethe, Schiller and Mozart, which adorn the Mall in Central Park. Since that time the number has grown apace, and again has the city acquired a bust of Goethe, the gift of the Goethe Society of America, unveiled in Bryant Park, November 26, 1932.

10. *Realia*

Our very large German population has so greatly influenced our daily lives that a list of realia is superfluous.

The Christmas season proclaims the German influence with its trees, its Lebkuchen and Spruengele, its toys from Nuremberg, its tinsel ornaments.

Easter too is eloquent with its Easter bunnies and gaily colored eggs. But in our daily lives, from the aluminum saucepan from the 5-and-10-cent store, which is used in preparing breakfast, to the evening crowned by the glories of Wagnerian opera, German crafts and arts are intertwined with the very stuff of life itself.

11. *Periodicals, Newspapers*

The *Deutsches Haus* at Columbia University probably receives a greater number of German newspapers and magazines for the general reader than any other institution in the United States. These may be read by the visitor.

The *Foreign News Depot* in the Times Building at Seventh Avenue and 42d Street has a large selection of the best German dailies and magazines.

The News Stand at the 5th Avenue Station of the I. R. T. on 42d Street near 5th Avenue also carries a large selection of dailies.

Das Deutsche Echo, which may be ordered through the Board of Education, is making a conscious effort to appeal to the American boy and girl of high school age. It is issued monthly except July and August.

Deutsch-Amerika und Sport Rundschau, published weekly by the Staats-Herold Corporation, is of undoubted interest to our boys and girls.

Die Woche and Velhagen and Klasings Monatshefte also contain much that will interest our older language students.

The *National Geographic Magazine* often has valuable articles such as:

Dinkelsbuehl, Romantic Vision from the Past, December, 1931.

Tyrol, The Happy Mountain Land, March, 1932.

Styria, a Favored Vacation Land, October, 1932.

In honor of the Goethe year *The Connoisseur with International Studio* published "Shades of Goethe," illus-

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trated with many shades, i. e. silhouettes.

Alertness will seize upon suitable material as it presents itself in our magazines from time to time.

The German teacher will find professional inspiration in keeping abreast of such special magazines as:

Modern Language Journal
German Quarterly
Germanic Review
Monatshefte fuer deutschen Unterricht
Modern Language Forum

12. *Maps*

Dennoyer-Geppert Company
Rand-McNally
Eduard Gaeblers: Schulwandkarte von Deutschland, der Schweiz und Oesterreich
Dietrich Reimers Werbe- und Verkehrs-Karte des Deutschen Reiches fuer Handel and Industrie

The *German Service Bureau* of the University of Wisconsin is only too happy to assist teachers of German relative to any professional matter.

13. *Suggested Club Activities*

1. Singing German Songs.
2. Book exhibits in the school library.
3. Calendar: Preparation of German.
4. Celebration of birthdays of great Germans, and of German festivals.
5. Dramatization of stories read by members of the club.
6. Historical studies of Germans and of German-Americans.
7. Music, Instrumental (this may offer an entire program, or may contribute to a program).
8. Names, Meaning of Family (this search for meanings will prove fascinating to some pupils).
9. Plays; an ambitious group can easily present more than a one-act play. The plays must be neither too difficult nor too childish. The holidays offer inspiration for original community plays. It is not necessary for all of the characters to speak German. This bi-lingual feature broadens the appeal. And, therefore, some years ago the German Club of Bryant had a hilarious time with our own Mark Twain's three-act "Meisterschaft."

The German book stores can assist in offering plays, but the *German Service Bureau* of the University of Wisconsin, mentioned above, can undoubtedly prove more helpful than any other agency.

10. Post cards (these awaken great interest and enlist many contributors; they may well be limited to a given part of a German speaking country for any one meeting).
11. Publication of German page in the school paper.
12. Science (socialization of the club will give scope to interests of the students, and he who has a scientific hobby will wish to talk upon that one which engrosses him; there may even be demonstrations).
13. Stamps (collections may illustrate German geography, history, great men, etc.).
14. Statues and monuments of Germans and to German-Americans (locating these will be an interesting neighborhood project).
15. Talkies, German language.
16. Travel talks, illustrated. (These may be given by a student who has been abroad, or by a member of the faculty.)
17. Trips to:

Art Museums and Galleries.

Deutsches Haus at Columbia. (On this visit the faculty adviser should take the group to the Carl Schurz monument at 116th Street and Morningside Drive.)

German landmarks in our Community.

Libraries with German collections.

Monuments to Germans and German-Americans.

Parks named in honor of German-Americans.

Schools named in honor of German-Americans.

Special art Exhibits.

18. The Bulletin Board. This should be an educational influence in directing attention to matters of current information, in presenting Kulturkunde, and in implanting the desire for first-hand knowledge of the finer things that will enrich the present and so make possible a spiritual life aglow with the radiance of German thought, German art, and German music.

MYRTLE J. JOSEPH.
Bryant High School.

GRAPHS AS AIDS TO INDIVIDUALIZATION AND SOCIALIZATION OF PUPILS

CULTIVATION of effective habits of work in pupils was considered so important a factor in furthering the aims of secondary education—individual development and social efficiency—that two days were set aside last fall for conferences on that topic for New York City high school teachers. It was a most useful procedure and no doubt many carried away plenty of food for thought.

Good habits of work, like all desirable habits, in order to become ingrained and be made permanent, should be established as early in the life of the individual as possible. By the time the pupil reaches the high school grade he is already equipped with habits, useful, indifferent or slovenly. Unfortunately many students do enter the high schools with poor habits. It would appear, then, that the training for the acquisition of effective habits should begin early in the elementary and be emphasized throughout the lower grades. But, having these students with us in high school, what can we, in the classroom, do to make them unlearn their poor habits of work and take on more desirable ones? Perhaps the following experiments may prove helpful as one of the means of stimulating greater endeavor.

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At the beginning of the September, 1932 term, every student in my classes was asked to keep a graph of the marks he obtained in all full-period tests and in the midterm examination —a sort of record of achievement. There were two classes of Biology I and three of Biology II. The purpose of these graphs was to have the pupil draw some concrete picture of his progress which he must necessarily look upon everytime he enters his mark. Without some such record he soon loses track of his progress.

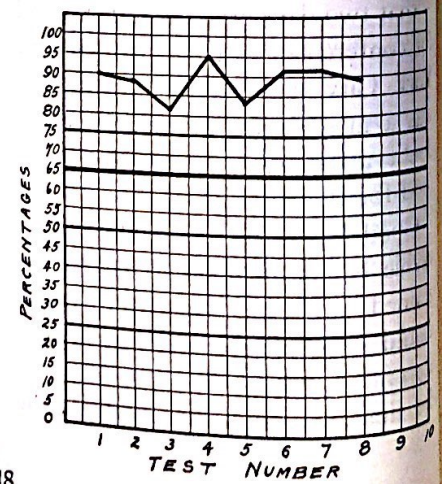
These tests were given at the conclusion of each "unit" of work and were uniform for all classes of the same grade. At first these tests were announced, but the pupils soon learned to expect them when the unit was completed. The examination questions were necessarily factual, but there were also many of the so-called "thought-provoking" kind. The students were held responsible for all subject matter presented in class and studied from the text-book. For home-study pages were never assigned; this required additional self-reliant work, if the pupils were to obtain good marks in the examinations, as the text-books now in use at our school do not follow the order of the new biology syllabus. The aim of these procedures was to develop better habits to study and work.

I thought, at first, that all this would serve as sufficient incentive for the pupil to attain marks of a high level, but the results of the first three tests were not encouraging. On the fourth, the mid-term, the pupils, in general, did very poorly. I thought I would appeal to that sense of rivalry which is so strong in youths of adolescent age. Without disclosing any individual marks, I announced the relative rank which each pupil obtained in his midterm examination; that is, the pupil of highest rank first, next highest second, and so on down to the lowest and last. The reaction was remarkable. They received the idea enthusiastically. It gave the whole thing the semblance of a game. When put to a vote it was overwhelmingly decided to follow this procedure in all future examination. Thus the coöperation of a large number of pupils was obtained.

A study, at the end the term, of these graphs showed a general improvement of the work of most of the pupils *after* that mid-term examination. Other findings are as follows:

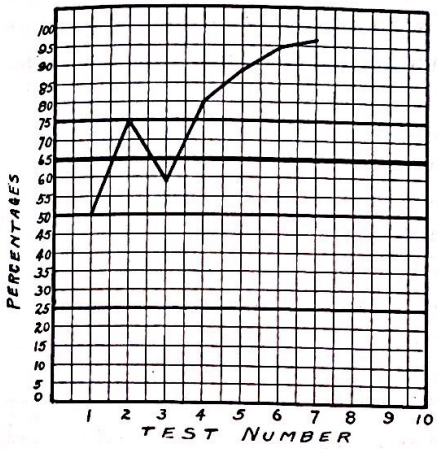
1. The very bright pupil does not need this additional stimulus. He maintains his high average level of marks (Graph I), and often, but not always, ranks first in each of the several tests.

GRAPH I



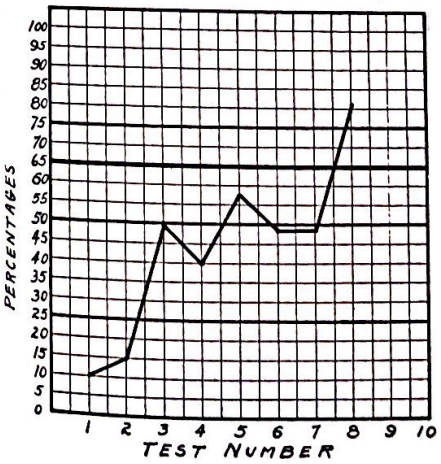
2. The average pupil is benefited by this additional stimulus; there is a decided effort to rank first or very high. He often succeeds. Graph II, is typical of a large number of such cases.

GRAPH II



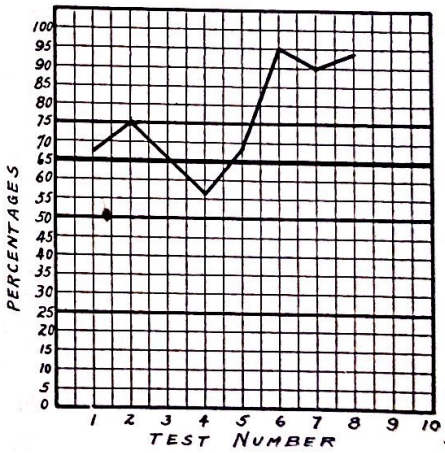
3. The poor and even failing students also show a reaction to this stimulus. There are some students in every class, who, because of mental incapacity, seem impervious to any stimulation, and we have some here. Graph III represents the work of a failing pupil, but there is no doubt of his tendency to climb upward.

GRAPH III



4. Graph IV is that of a boy who gave every evidence of laziness and recalcitrance. He came unprepared almost daily, kept a negligible note-book, often left his pen and pencil home, and showed little interest in his class work. The idea of announcing the rank appealed to him immensely and he boasted that he would outrank the others in future tests. He kept his promise. He made two firsts and one second.

GRAPH IV



5. Comparison of the graphs of the first and second term students shows better response from the latter.

Although the results were very encouraging, they were far from conclusive. These experiments are being repeated this term in my four classes and in five of another teacher who has consented to coöperate. In addition to keeping the graph of his marks, the

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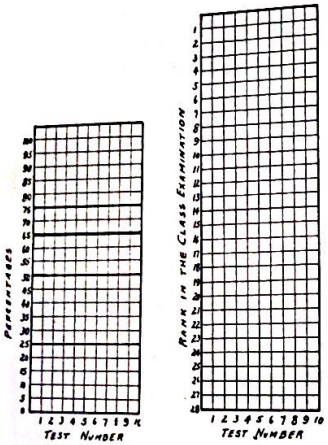
student now also keeps a graph of his rank (see Graph V). Another innovation in my four classes is the posting, on the front wall of the classroom, of large scale graphs which record the average marks obtained by each class on each of the examinations. The records of the two Biology I classes are kept on one chart and those of the Biology II classes on another. Thus competition between classes of the same grades is set up. The last idea again received hearty support by vote of the classes.

GRAPH V



To ascertain whether or not the general intelligence of a pupil bears any relationship to this method of motivitating the student to greater efforts, a record of his I. Q. obtained in elementary school is kept, but not divulged to the student.

Thus, by having each student keep an individual record, and also by having each class keep a chart that establishes class rivalry, means are provided for both the individualization of effort and for the development of that social consciousness—to do something for the welfare of his class—that "gregarious nature," characteristic of adolescence, of which A. A. Douglas speaks. It is hoped that the individual rivalry established will lead to the development and maintenance of leadership in the bright pupils and awaken similar desires in the mediocre ones; and if, for the dull pupils, it does nothing more than to stir them to greater efforts and to change their attitude toward school work, the extra labor and time involved in keeping these records will be well spent. It is further hoped that by carrying these experiments through future classes a simple system will be evolved which will be of service not only in biology classes, but in those of many other subjects.

J. P. BENSON.

New Utrecht High School.

HIGH POINTS

The Science Zone Meeting in the John Adams High School

On the afternoon of November 18, 1932, there was held at the John Adams High School of Ozone Park, L. I., what the writers believe to be the first demonstration science zone meeting held on a borough-wide scale. This meeting, at which eight Queens high schools were represented, was the first of a series of programs being sponsored throughout the city by the American Institute in connection with the Junior Science Club movement.

Although not deliberately planned as an "experiment," many characteristics of the event were experimental in their nature. The only previous meeting that might have set a precedent for this one was a city-wide science demonstration held on October 29, 1932, at the American Museum of Natural History. Since our group of about one hundred persons was only one-tenth as large as the group present at the museum, the two meetings differed greatly. The museum meeting consisted of the announcement of the history and aims of the Junior Science Club movement, by Dr. Morris Meister of the American Institute, and a series of demonstrations in chemistry, biology, and physics by Dr. Baker, Dr. Riddle, and Mr. John Clark, respectively. It was possible for the zone meeting, however, to be more informal.

In response to the invitations sent out two weeks before, groups of visiting students, teachers, and chairmen began to arrive at about half-past three. A reception committee of four members of the John Adams Physical Science Club escorted these groups to the physics laboratory where ten pieces of apparatus, most of them unusual and student-made, had been set up. The student assigned to each set-up demonstrated and explained the physical principles involved in his experiment. The following were the ten experiments shown: the production of liquid vortex rings, with mention of their past association with atomic theory; sensitive flames that quivered in response to whistling or the jingling of keys; sympathetic pendulums that alternated in the picking up of the motion of each other; the thermo-electric magnet that acted as a magnet only when its parts were properly heated; an X-ray tube that, with the aid of a fluoroscope, enabled the observer to examine the contents of unopened pocketbooks and to see the bones of the hand; the wiring of a system for turning on or off the lights in three rooms from any one of these rooms and still making it possible to turn them all on or off from any other of the rooms; the simple two-way telegraph line permitting communication across the room; the intermittent siphon that delivered a regularly inter-

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rupted flow of liquid; the effect of static electricity on a thin stream of falling water; the beat effect as usually demonstrated with resonant tuning forks and r.ders. Genuine interest seemed to be shown in these exhibits.

The formal demonstration part of the program began at four o'clock in the physics demonstration room of the school. The principal of the John Adams High School, Mr. William A. Clarke, in a brief talk, welcomed the visitors and expressed the hope that more meetings of this nature would be held in the future, not alone in the sciences, but in the other high school fields as well. Mr. Alexander Efron, chairman of the Physical Science Department, then proceeded with a series of demonstrations.

The first demonstration made use of the expansive and cooling properties characteristic of liquid air. To show the expansive effect, liquid air was used to inflate a balloon and to blow a cork out of a cylinder into which some of this air had been put. Next, the effect of this material on meat, frankfurters, flowers, and rubber was shown. The meat could be "sliced" with a hammer; the frankfurters "cracked" apart upon being dropped to the floor; the soft petals of flowers became brittle and crumpled to bits in the hand; sheet rubber and rubber tubing lost their customary elasticity and became hard, rigid materials. Since the temperature of liquid air, about -190° Centigrade, is much lower than the freezing point of mercury, -39° Centigrade, a "hammer" was made by freezing some of this metal in a pan filled with liquid air. The mercury was poured into a small match-box and the handle held in place until the solidification was complete. After the sides of the box had been stripped off, the hammer was used for driving nails into a wooden board. Again, the relatively high temperature of ice with respect to that of liquid air was made use of in boiling some of this liquid in a kettle standing on a cake of ice. At this point, Mr. Johnson of the Far Rockaway High School volunteered to show that liquid air could be held in the mouth for several seconds with no observable ill effects. The last experiment in this group was performed by saturating some cotton tied on the end of a long wooden rod, with liquid air. After a pause of about one minute to permit some of the liquid nitrogen to evaporate, leaving an excess of oxygen, the torch was ignited. A very violent and spectacular burning took place.

The next series of demonstrations dealt with the effects and uses of the stroboscope, an instrument for throwing intermittent light upon a rapidly rotating object. By varying the frequency of these light flashes, it is possible to make the rotating disc or wheel appear to go forward slowly, to stand still, or even to reverse its direction of rotation. Several discs, previously prepared, were examined while in motion with the stroboscope. On one disc, rings of concentric circles appeared to be going in two directions at the same time. A model of a flywheel was also examined in this way to illustrate the use of the stroboscope in detecting flaws in machinery that could not be detected when the machine was not in use.

The last demonstration made use of the selenium type of photo-cell for turning on and off electric bells and lamps. In series with the cell was a group of fourteen dry cells and a sensitive relay. As a light fell on the selenium cell, this relay closed a local circuit consisting of several dry cells and a bell or a bank of small flashlight bulbs. Mention was made of the three types of photo-cells, the photoelectric, the photovoltaic, and the photoconductive, and of the ever increasing number of uses to which these instruments are being put in commerce and industry.

At the conclusion of this portion of the program, two members of the John Adams Physical Science Club, Walter Hausz and Herbert Schwartz, presented a short program of chemical magic dealing with some peculiar characteristics of "water."

The group was then conducted to the science exhibit case just outside of the chemistry office where a photo-electric cell operated an electric lamp placed on an open plate. Since no wires could be seen leading up to the lamp, the problem as to why the lamp glowed whenever light fell upon the photo-electric cell, was left to the visitors for their solution.

While the group was still operating the exhibit, tea and crackers were served in the chemistry office and in the corridor near the exhibit case. At the conclusion of this, the last item on our program, the meeting ended and the group disbanded.

The following high schools of Queens were represented at this meeting: Newtown, Richmond Hill, Jamaica, Far Rockaway, Bryant, Flushing, Grover Cleveland, and John Adams.

Among those present were Dr. Morris Meister and Miss Catherine Emig, representing the American Institute, and Mr. Abraham Dick and Mr. Edwin Barnes, heads of departments at the Grover Cleveland and Far Rockaway High Schools, respectively. The entire department of the John Adams High School was present and assisted in the program.

The cost of liquid air and of other materials used in the course of the demonstrations was taken care of by the appropriation given to the John Adams Physical Science Club from the General Organization fund of the school.

We feel that all those who were present at this "experiment" received immediate and tangible benefits from this association with new ideas and experimental techniques. And if there was a renewed determination to try out some of the things shown with the view of extending the ideas and perfecting the techniques still further, the writers feel amply rewarded for having undertaken, in their own way, to help strengthen the experimental frame of mind and build a lasting interest in science.

ALEXANDER EFRON,
EDWARD ECKSTEIN,
John Adams High School.

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The Inculcation of Tolerance Through Modern European History*

This lesson is presented with an appreciation of its inherent weakness. It is the belief of the writer that tolerance may be learned but not taught, either directly or indirectly, except over long periods of time. Tolerance is the result of maturity and wisdom. If tolerance be inculcated, as is usually done in history classes (and also in the lesson outlined below), by showing the disastrous effects of intolerance, the result is inadequate. While it points out the inexpediency of intolerance in certain specific cases, it fails to dissociate the two concepts. It is only in the hope that the multiplication of such incidents may aid the student in the transformation of a particularized state of mind into a conviction of the value of tolerance per se that the following lesson may be justified.

Topic:

Nationalism in the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

Objectives:

1. Ultimate: to inculcate the ideal of tolerance.
2. Immediate: to show the effects on the Austro-Hungarian empire of racial intolerance and the suppression of nationalist aspirations.

* This is the second in a series of articles designed to show specifically how the classroom teacher attempts to realize the objectives of history teaching.—Associate Editor.

Materials:

1. Text-book account, e.g. Hayes and Moon, "Modern History," pp. 603-613, 770.
2. Statistical and other reference material bearing on the problem of nationalities.
3. The text of one of the post-war Minorities treaties.
4. Maps—political, racial, linguistic.

Procedure:

Problems presented by teachers; open text-book investigation of problems and socialized discussion of solutions. It is assumed that encyclopedias and other reference materials are readily available.

Problem I:

The 19th century Austro-Hungarian empire was a seething reservoir of nationalities. Almost every important race of Europe was represented in the Hapsburg domains.

1. Study a map of the world and point out how the geographic position of the Austrian Empire in Europe and the presence of the Danube valley created this multi-national state.
2. What problems necessarily arose as a result of the presence of mixed nationalities? Compare these with similar problems of many nationalities in New York City.
3. How did the problem of a mixed population determine Austrian foreign policy?

Problem II:

A. The population of the Austrian Empire as late as 1918 was 24% German, 44% Slavic, 20% Hungarian, 7% Rumanian, 3% Italian, and 2% others.

B. Still, business, government, and the army were controlled by the German elements, and German was the official language in the schools, army, and government bureaus. Moreover, the non-German elements included such ancient and advanced cultures as the Bohemian and Italian.

1. How was it possible for a minority of the population to impress its nationality on the mixed majority?
2. What would be the inevitable reaction to the facts stated in B on the part of a student at the University at Prague?

Problem III:

A. In the first half of the 19th century (to 1867), the Austrian Empire, still dominated by Metternich's ideas of repression and intolerance of the nationalist feelings stirred by the period of the French revolution and Napoleon, attempted strictly to enforce a Germanization policy. During that same period of time, the Austrian Empire was faced by revolutions in its Czech, Hungarian and Polish areas in 1830, by Czech, Hungarian and Italian areas in 1848, and by the Hungarian area again in 1867.

B. In the second half of the 19th century Austrian policy changed. The experience of the earlier revolutions and the necessity of preventing further outbreaks among its conglomerate domains tempered the Hapsburg rulers, and certain reforms were adopted. Subject nationalities were given a voice in the government, local diets reflected local, nationalist diversities, and, under the Taaffe ministry, 1879-1893, concessions were made in the way of recognizing as co-official the languages of certain subject nationalities. During this same period of time not a single revolt of significance occurred against the Austrian government, and even the unruly Magyars were pacified by the Ausgleich of 1867.

1. From the facts presented in A, what conclusions can you draw as to the effects of the suppression of nationalist ambitions?
2. Compare this with the effects of the later Austrian policy of tolerance and conciliation towards subject peoples.
3. Compare the treatment of subject nationalities in the Austrian Empire with their treatment in the Ottoman Empire. Does this difference in attitude have any connection with the fact that the Austrian Empire lasted until the military defeats of the World War, while the Ottoman Empire, all through the 19th century, died a slow and lingering death, accompanied by amputations of its members?
4. Pretend that you are the Austrian Prime Minister in 1900. In the light of the foregoing considerations prepare a speech for the Austrian Diet outlining your

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policy toward the subject nationalities.

Problem IV:

Of all the subject nationalities of the Austrian Empire the Magyars were the most insistent in maintaining their national existence and the equality of the Austrian and Hungarian sections of the empire. The Ausgleich of 1867 established a dual monarchy and the desired co-equality. But while they cherished their own rights with the utmost pride (even to the point of insisting that the Hungarian language be used for commands in the Hungarian part of the army) the Magyars ruthlessly trampled on the rights of the other nationalities under their control. The Magyars were but 54% of the population of Hungary, but held all except 10 of the over 400 seats in the Hungarian diet. For 50 years a policy of persistent Magyarization was pursued. Electoral manipulation, suppression of schools, and of the literary, social, and economic life of the minorities were everyday incidents in the intolerant policy pursued by the Magyars. On one occasion Rumanian schoolboys were expelled from school for speaking their own language on the street.

1. How do the above facts illustrate the statement that "the worst oppressors are the oppressed"? Can you find other illustrations of the same fact?
2. Why should the Magyars have been the normal leaders in the movement for better treatment of the subject nationalities?

Problem V:

Using the facts and ideas presented by the previous problems can you explain why

1. The 20th century unrest among the subject nationalities of the Dual Monarchy was directed chiefly against the Magyar kingdom?
2. The World War brought to a head the suppressed nationalist ambitions of the subject peoples of Austria-Hungary?
3. Since the World War the heirs of the Hapsburg domains have been bound together in the Little Entente?

Problem VI:

In the post-war territorial adjustments the principle of self-determination for all nationalities was fundamental. Nevertheless, it proved impossible to adjust the national and political frontiers with any degree of exactness. Consequently it was found that the successor states contained within their boundaries large minorities of different nationalities.

1. What fears naturally arose in the minds of these minorities as to their status within the new national states?
2. How did the Minorities treaties attempt to quiet these fears and to prevent the repetition of former racial hatreds and nationalistic intolerance?

Problem VII:

A. Using the available reference material make a chart entitled "Contributions Made in the Fields of Music, Art, Literature and Science." Include in the chart the following items: (a) name, (b) nationality, (c) nature of contribution, (d) significance of contribution for world history. Use the following names: Jokai, Sienkewicz, Dvorak, Liszt, Michael Pupin, Verdi, Chopin, Paderewski, B. Crocce.

B. In the light of your findings in A, consider the question of the right of any one nationality to try to crush out the individual existence of others.

Special questions for supplementary consideration:

1. From the history of the last decade in the new national states of Europe would you say that Europe had learned its lesson in the treatment of alien races?
2. Does the experience of the United States or of Switzerland present any possibility of alternative solutions to the problem of multi-national areas?
3. Prepare a constructive programme for a régime of many, diverse nationalities that will make possible the harmonious development and coöperation of all within the political boundaries of one state. What mental attitudes would be necessary for its success?

ELIZABETH V. EISENBERG.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

The Meaning of the Passing Mark

The 65% mark or the passing mark is really the critical point in the entire marking system. If a pupil fails, the exact mark is immaterial. If he passes, the exact mark is important, only because it determines whether he is eligible for certain honors and for admission to college.

I am particularly interested in the passing mark and its meaning. If we were to rank our pupils according to achievement in our subjects, placing the best pupil first and the poorest last, where would we place the passing mark? What level of achievement merits a passing mark—a 65%—and what merits a failure—64% or below?

Failing our pupils has been very costly—in money to our city and in money, time, and happiness to our pupils. The 1930 report of the Auditor of the Board of Education discloses the fact that it cost the city $170.93 to instruct a high school pupil in that year, or $85.47 per term. In Table 3, you will find a few facts taken from the Superintendent's last annual report. In the first column you will note that for the term ending January, 1930, 148,828 different high school pupils received a total of 1,081,647 different ratings, and of that number, 144,551 were failures. Using these figures and those of the Auditor, I was able to determine that it cost the city $1,684,260.55 when we failed our high school pupils in January, 1930. The cost to the city for the term ending June, 1930, was even larger for it amounted to $2,104,903.04. The total cost in 1930 to instruct our high school failures amounted to the large sum of $3,789,163.59. This was 2.3% of the total cost of our schools in that year. Not only is the giving of failing

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TABLE I

Distribution of marks in the Walton High School for the terms ending Jan. 31, 1931 and June 30, 1931

Department	Number of Marks		Percentage of Total Marks									
			0—64		65—74		75—89		90—100			
	Jan. 1931	June 1931	Jan. 1931	June 1931	Jan. 1931	June 1931	Jan. 1931	June 1931	Jan. 1931	June 1931		
Prepared Subjects												
Accounting	1,715	1,605	9.5%	9.1%	40.7%	34.1%	40.1%	43.2%	9.7%	13.6%		
Commercial Law	269	309	5.9	4.5	30.8	28.2	59.1	63.1	4.2	4.2		
Commercial Arithmetic	739	617	6.7	17.0	46.8	43.3	38.0	29.3	8.4	10.4		
Economic Geography	364	263	4.8	6.8	37.1	28.5	49.9	49.8	8.2	14.9		
Economics	484	570	5.6	10.0	55.2	41.4	34.5	42.1	4.7	6.5		
History	1,390	1,635	5.9	6.6	38.2	36.7	47.0	48.7	8.9	8.0		
Civics		177		7.3		32.8		49.1		10.8		
English	3,516	3,618	.7	1.2	31.3	27.1	61.1	63.9	6.9	7.8		
Latin	615	616	7.2	9.1	23.1	25.7	46.0	42.5	23.7	22.7		
French	1,877	1,821	11.8	12.8	42.8	37.4	35.0	38.6	10.4	11.2		
Spanish	82	67	8.5	11.9	46.3	44.8	40.3	31.4	4.9	11.9		
German	430	441	10.2	9.8	40.0	35.8	39.8	44.5	10.0	9.9		
Biology	297	406	6.4	10.9	36.4	35.5	47.1	41.6	10.1	12.0		
Chemistry	322	303	9.6	6.6	47.8	44.2	36.0	34.7	6.6	14.5		
Physics	97	93	3.1	10.7	23.8	39.9	57.7	47.3	15.4	2.1		
Mathematics	938	968	7.1	13.6	44.9	35.6	33.0	33.9	15.0	16.9		
Home Economics		118		.9		16.1		77.9		5.1		
Stenography	2,107	2,103	12.2	13.2	38.1	32.6	38.0	42.0	11.7	12.2		
Total Prepared Subjects	15,242	15,730	7.1	8.5	38.2	33.3	44.9	47.3	9.8	10.9		
Unprepared Subjects												
Typewriting	1,127	967	4.4	6.9	32.3	33.2	52.0	48.1	11.3	11.8		
Music	1,706	1,815	.1	0.0	21.5	2.2	58.5	97.5	19.9	.3		
Fine Arts	524	677	2.2	3.3	32.6	31.1	42.6	50.1	22.6	15.5		
Health Education	3,709	3,744	8.0	6.1	46.0	54.5	43.9	37.8	2.1	1.6		
Total unprepared subjects	7,066	7,203	5.1	4.4	36.9	36.2	48.6	55.4	9.4	4.0		
Total of all subjects	22,308	22,933	6.4	7.2	37.8	34.2	46.1	49.9	9.7	8.7		

marks costly to the city, but it is costly to our pupils in time, money, and happiness.

In searching for the meaning of the passing mark, my studies led me to examine, first, the records of Walton High School, second, the practices of teachers as disclosed by these records, and third, the record and practices of other schools both in New York and outside.

In Table I, is found a tabulation of marks given during the terms ending in January, 1931 and June, 1931. I have used the rating groups employed on the Summaries of Instruction in Walton High School,—0-64; 65-74; 75-89; and 90-100. I have shown the per cents of the marks in any rating group to the total marks given in any particular subject. I have arranged the per cents of one term next to the per cents of the succeeding term in order that we may more easily make comparisons.

A comparison of these figures shows a wide variation in marking practices. First, for example, the English Department fails about 1% of its pupils whereas, the Accounting, French, German, and Stenography Departments fail 9% and over of its pupils in both terms. Second, there is a lack of consistency in the per cents of failures each term. The following departments are glaring in their lack of consistency. The Commercial Arithmetic Department failed 6.7% one term and 17% the next term. The Economics Department failed 5.6% one term and 10% the next term. The Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Spanish, and Mathematics Departments show similar sets of facts. Third, the lack of consistency found in the 0-64 group is present in the other rating groups.

These variations show that the different departments in our school lack an objective and permanent standard for assigning marks in the different rating groups.

In Table II, I have presented a tabulation of marks given in the different departments of all the New York high schools in 1930. Two conclusions may be drawn from them. First, that the per cents of failures in one department is different from that of another. And second, there is an appearance of consistency in the per cents of failures each term. At this point I wish to express caution against comparing Tables I and II, for they are tabulations for different years. I was prevented from tabulating the marks given in Walton in 1930 by the loss of records for that year.

I was unable to tabulate the marks of the different schools in all subjects because the information was not available. However, I did get the following facts. In English, our school passed as many as 98.7% of its pupils, whereas another passed only 70.7% of its pupils. In Mathematics, one school passed as many as 88.5% and another only 66.1%. Still in a third department, French, one school passed 88.4% and another 66.2%.

Here again we are confronted by variations which make generalizations impossible.

Having satisfied myself that the rating practices of this school and other

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TABLE II

Schedule of the number of marks given in the different departments of all the New York High Schools and the percents passed for the terms ending January 31, 1930 and June 30, 1930.

Departments	Jan. 1930		June 1930	
	Number of marks	percents	Number of marks	percents
Accounting	35,998	79.5%	39,644	78.9%
Commercial Law	2,001	91.2	2,281	93.9
Commercial Arithmetic	8,512	77.2	6,696	76.4
Economic Geography	4,075	85.3	3,639	84.9
Economics	10,628	94.6	11,901	94.6
History	58,924	87.4	58,931	87.0
Civics	25,689	87.3	24,171	86.4
English	141,170	86.4	148,924	87.3
Latin	28,362	76.6	27,513	77.0
French	51,621	78.6	53,278	78.5
Spanish	29,225	76.7	30,489	76.9
German	10,262	82.3	11,713	82.3
Biology	32,847	82.6	36,868	83.3
Chemistry	11,054	81.3	12,475	81.8
Physics	7,584	88.2	8,879	84.5
Mathematics	63,513	77.5	66,403	74.6
Home Economics	1,077	93.3	629	87.0
Stenography	21,321	79.0	24,775	80.3
Typewriting	34,416	86.0	39,416	85.4
Music	95,110	96.0	93,823	95.5
Fine Arts	69,141	92.3	71,560	92.4
Health Education (including Hygiene)	199,098	90.8	208,864	90.2

TABLE III

Summary of ratings given in the New York High Schools for the terms ending Jan. 31, 1930 and June 30, 1930

	Jan. 1930	June 1930
Number of ratings given	1,081.647	1,138,590
Number of passing ratings	937,096	982,617
Number of failures	144,551	155,973
Per cent passed	86.6%	86.3%
Number of different pupils	148,828	159,359

schools in past years were not consistent and would disclose no clue to the meaning of the passing mark, I turned to the rating practices of different supervisers and teachers in this school and outside.

A number of high school administrators were asked what they considered to be the meaning of the passing mark. The following are some of the replies:

1. Mastery of minimum essentials.
2. Fulfilling the letter of the law.
3. Doing all that can reasonably be expected.
4. Ability to carry subsequent work in the same grade.
5. Completing 65% as much work as the best pupil in the class or in the teacher's experience.
6. Completing 65% of the assigned work.
7. Attaining 65% of perfection.
8. Doing all required by the teacher.

The Beechview-Beechwood public schools have arranged a rating system. They fail a pupil who shows the following characteristics:

1. Recitations show little idea of subject matter.
2. Pupil asks and answers very few questions.
3. Less than 65% of assignments done correctly.
4. Makes no preparation.
5. Cannot follow directions.
6. Does not make up work lost during absence.
7. Is indifferent and listless.
8. Lacks enthusiasm and coöperation.
9. Has very little ability to apply knowledge.

These lists of standards are only suggestive and not at all complete. They should serve merely to indicate some of the standards which teachers should have in mind when failing pupils.

All the facts presented up to this point have shown that we have been employing varying standards in passing our pupils and the results of these varying standards have been costly.

I wish to offer the following recommendations which will make our marking practices more consistent and our marks more objective.

1. Wherever possible, standardized achievement tests should be employed. I make this suggestion so that teachers may make their marks objective and be able to compare the scores of the pupils with the norms on the tests.

2. If standardized tests are not available, the new objective tests should be employed to decrease the subjective element in the mark.

3. Pupils should be ranked before marks on any examination or quiz is assigned. In this way, the differences in the difficulty of examinations will be eliminated from consideration. A good pupil will rank high on a hard examination as well as on an easy examination.

4. We should eliminate differences in marks below 65%. We ought to have just one failing mark and call it failure or F, or some other character. It matters little to the pupil whether he receives 20% or 55%. Both mean

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the same thing — non-promotion or repetition of the course.

5. Each department should determine the percentage of all pupils whom they are to pass. This can be determined by examining the per cents of former terms. These per cents can be called norms of promotion. For example: In Walton, our experience has been that English teachers passed term in and term out at least 98% of its pupils. Therefore, the norm of promotion in the English department should be 98%. Each teacher in the English department should be expected to pass that per cent of his pupils. I am not advocating the failing of 2% of all pupils in English, but, on the contrary, I advocate the passing of 98% or more of all pupils in English. Once we have established the norms of promotion in each department we can set ourselves to raising these norms.

6. Each department should set up a list of minimum requirements for determining the passing mark in each grade.

7. Failing marks should be accompanied by detailed word statements, of lack of ability to do. It is not enough to say to a pupil. "You have 55%. You have failed." A detailed diagnosis should accompany each failing mark. Mr. Jason and Mr. Kessler have both suggested a plan which has been put into operation in the accounting department. A form card has been devised for recording the facts about failing pupils. This card is prepared at the end of the term. On it is found the following information:

1. Name .....
2. Subject .....
3. Term ending.....
4. Grade of Subject.....
5. Term Mark.....
6. Regents' Marks.....
7. Cause of Failure.....

The teacher who fails a pupil must point out to the pupil and to the chairman the ability or lack of ability in each of the different phases of the subject. This card is not merely filed but is used by the next teacher.

DAVID GORDON.

Walton High School.

Boardwork Technique in English

While teachers of English use the blackboards frequently and successfully during the composition and grammar periods, many devote the literature period entirely to discussion and make no use of the boards.

It is the purpose of this paper to describe a method of boardwork procedure used in connection with literature in the lower grades which has been found to be quite workable and effective. The method about to be outlined achieves two important aims: first, the subject matter of the text is covered rapidly and effectively, thus leaving time for discussion of problems arising from the literature; secondly, habits of neatness and accuracy in written work are developed. This latter the writer believes to be an indispensable achievement and, hence, is of the opinion that some boardwork should be incorporated into nearly every lesson.

The method is as follows:

The assignments (written on library cards) are made at the beginning of the period. At the same time a critic is appointed for each student at the boards. The duties of the critic are discussed several paragraphs below.

First: A few remarks about the *form* of the boardwork. The student is required to put the regular English heading on. If it is a question which is to be answered, the question must be put on before the answer; if it is a topic sentence which is to be developed into a paragraph, the student must be careful *not* to separate the topic sentence from the rest of the paragraph. Wide margins (about three inches of actual board space) must be kept on either side. Scrupulous neatness is a *sine qua non*.

As to the types of assignments. The writer has successfully employed two kinds. First, there is the question which must be answered in a *single* sentence. This is particularly effective in the first year, where the aim of the work in technical English amounts to teaching the student to write a complete sentence. In second year classes the use of a topic sentence which the student is asked to develop into a paragraph has been found to be really an excellent way of teaching paragraph unity. Particular emphasis is laid on the fact that the topic sentence is part of the paragraph and hence must not be separated from the body of it as though it were a title. All boardwork assignments are concerned with the subject matter of the literature. Thus, while the boardwork is being written, the members of the class are free to discuss the application of the subject matter to real life, in terms of their own experience.

The critics function very noiselessly and automatically. After they are appointed, nothing further is said to them. The critic (who is usually one of the brighter students and, hence, better equipped for the purpose of making sound criticism, just as the student sent to the board is usually one of the more ordinary students, and hence in need of correction and criticism) takes part in the class discussion while the boardwork is being written. As soon as the person he has been assigned to criticize has finished, the critic, without waiting for any order from the teacher (and hence without interrupting the discussion) proceeds to the board to make his written criticisms.

Colored chalk (preferably yellow) is used by the critic for making corrections. This the writer has found to be very effective, for it makes the corrections stand out, and whereas a student might not notice, for instance, that in *believe* the *i* precedes the *e*, when the correction is made in the same medium as the rest of the work, he cannot fail to see it when it is written in vivid yellow.

The criticisms are written in the wide margins which are especially left for this purpose on either side of the board. If a word is misspelled, it is

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underlined and the correct spelling is indicated in the margin. Other corrections are made similarly. The critic may (and often does) write a statement of general criticism.

The criticism is divided into two well-defined classes: criticism of subject matter, and criticism of technique. Thus, the critic, who marks the work, places two marks (and their total) on the board. On a basis of ten, five points are allowed for the answer and the remaining five points for technique. Accordingly, a student whose answer is absolutely correct may receive a failing mark of five because of errors in spelling, grammar, and the like. It is the writer's opinion that even in a literature lesson, good English is important; too often, serious errors go uncorrected because "it is a literature day."

There is an absolute scale of deductions (familiar to the students, because it is sometimes employed in marking literature tests of that type) for errors in technique. Since it would obviously be unfair to deduct equally in the single sentence answer, where the number of possible mistakes is limited, and in the paragraph type of answer, where the possibilities of error are multiplied, the simple expedient of deducting only half as much in the paragraph type as in the sentence answer has been adopted.

The student loses five points (all credit in technique) for a sentence structure error, such as a run-on or an incomplete sentence. (In a paragraph answer he would lose only two and one-half points.) For less important errors, such as those in spelling, grammar or punctuation, only one point per error is deducted, in a single sentence answer. The critic may deduct, also, for lack of neatness, the penalty being the same as for a minor error. The critics are encouraged to be very finicky in this respect, with the result that the boards, in a very short time, assume a startlingly neat and clean appearance.

It has been the writer's experience that this exact method of marking is approved by students. Nothing is more exasperating to an intelligent student than to have a teacher give an arbitrary mark which he cannot justify. "Because that's what it's worth" is not a highly satisfactory answer to the question, "Why did I get only sixty-five?" On the other hand, the student cannot and does not feel himself the victim of high-handedness if he knows that he lost so many points for this error, so many for that, and so on. Instead of bearing a grudge, he makes up his mind (if he has any intelligence) not to lose credit for those particular errors, next time.

It takes so many words to describe this method, possibly it may appear complicated and time-wasting. Quite the contrary; once the machinery of it has been explained to the class, it runs like a well-oiled engine, smoothly, quietly, automatically. As for consuming time, the writer has found this method rather a time-saver. Six boards are usually covered in between eight and ten minutes. Somehow, the efficiency of the method eliminates the usual tendency on the part of the class to quibble over trifling points in correction.

Finally, the strongest argument that can be adduced in favor of this procedure is that the writer finds that the habits of neatness and accuracy which the student develops (perforce) at the board, are transferred to all other written work done in the English class. What marker of book reports does not consider this important?

JESSE GRUMETTE.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Theory and Practice at the Abraham Lincoln High School.

The picture years ago:

In 1889 a conference of great moment was held in Boston, now known as the "Famous Physical Training Conference of Boston." Educators at that time were becoming enlightened, and realized the truth of "Mens sana in corpore sano." As a result, physical education was placed on the same level as academic education.

The problem which faced the educators at the conference after their first decision was the administration of a program. Every foreign system of physical education which held sway was advocated. Pandemonium reigned. Each was dismissed as impracticable because of lack of time, space, facilities, or trained teachers. After a great deal of bickering, the stunted, worthless, but time-saving "two minutes drill" in a classroom was evolved. These two minutes of arm waving and trunk bending, the educators decided, would be sufficient physical activity for thousands of school children cramped up in small seats, four to six hours each day, studying their lessons. The guardians of child training were initiating a program without any regard for the children at all. For three decades the practice remained the same in spite of ever-changing conditions of living in schools and the localities.

Through the obscure clouds of darkness came an effulgent beam of hope—educational psychology and new principles of education appeared. Along with these studies came the progressive, scientific educators. Instead of containing the hackneyed, time-worn practice of the preceding century, they instituted a child-centered course of study. Once more the physical educators kept pace and made the principles of education the principles of physical education. They realized the narrow limits of the old methods in the light of the new. In view of the fact that "Will must first be Idea," they formulated, on paper only, a mere skeleton of their plan for the new physical education.

As a guiding aim, it was proposed that "physical education should aim to provide skilled leadership and adequate facilities that will afford an opportunity for the individual or group to act in situations that are physically wholesome, mentally stimulating and satisfying, and socially sound." Along with the health program there was also provision for health service and health instruction. With this in mind, the following program was outlined:

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1. Individual corrective gymnastics.
2. Games, sports, athletics and aquatics, as far as possible, out of doors.
3. Dancing and dramatic activities.
4. Self-testing and self-defense activities.
5. Fundamental skills.
6. Natural gymnastics.
7. Athletics for all (intra-mural athletics).

Is this work merely theoretical, or can it actually be put into practice? To answer this question, let me give you a picture of the Health Education program carried on at the Abraham Lincoln High School.

The students are given a very worth-while course in health instruction and health problems. As far as health service is concerned, there are maintained a school clinic and first-aid rooms for boys and for girls. The health examination is given by the school doctor. The Parent-Teachers Association, through great effort, has established a dental clinic where a prophylaxis examination and charting of teeth are made for a nominal sum. The facilities of the school for sanitation are beyond complaint, and the environment is ideal. A very elaborate and careful check-up of the health record of each student is made, and the follow-up work is carried on by each teacher of the Health Education Department. But let us turn now to the immediate work of the Physical Education Department—"to provide big-muscle activities"—to see whether that end of the program is being carried out.

Both students and teachers, stimulated by an enthusiasm that will not be tempered, are carrying on as full a program of physical activities as was ever hoped for by our educators several years ago. How does this work meet the outline as set forth above?

I. Individual corrective gymnastics.

In order to aid those boys who are handicapped by physical, postural, nutritional, or cardiac defects, and who could not possibly reach the standard of work done in the regular classes, there is a separate class established, where individual work is given to each student. In this manner the work of the regular class is not retarded; these handicapped boys get a great deal more joy and benefit out of the exercises, and the establishing of a feeling of inferiority is avoided.

II. Games, sports, athletics and aquatics.

At Lincoln, the happy medium of varsity and inter-class athletics has been struck, with equal emphasis on each. With the ascendancy of varsity athletics in high schools and colleges to the high pinnacle which it now maintains, a reactionary cry has been set up. Why should so much time and effort be lavished on young athletes who will very likely attain physical supremacy without this attention, with neglect and disregard of the mass of students who really need it? Our present organization is an answer to both. We have varsity athletics, football, baseball, basketball,

track and field, soccer, swimming, fencing, and handball. We have mass-athletics, that is, activity for all. The following is, in detail, the complementary organization of intra-mural athletics.

1. *Organization*
   a. E Session Class Athletics. Managers' Council every second Wednesday, 7th period in room 205.
   b. L Session Class Athletics. Managers meet every first Wednesday, 6th period in room 205.
   c. Faculty and pupil representatives on Boys Athletics Council meet every 4th Friday during the 7th period in the Clinic.
   d. Each class team elects a captain for that team.

2. *Activities*

	E Session	*L Session*	*Place*
a. Basketball	Mon., Wed., Thurs. periods 7-8	Friday 5th period	Gym
b. Tennis	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 7-8	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 5-6	Courts
c. Football	Spring Prac. Mon., Wed., Thurs. periods 7-8	Touch Daily periods 5-6	Field
d. Handball	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 7-8	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 5-6	Courts
e. Baseball (Indoor)	Daily periods 7-8	Daily periods 5-6	Field
f. Soccer	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 7-8	Tryouts daily period 3	Field
g. Volley Ball	Mon., Wed., Thurs. periods 7-8	Friday period 5	Gym
h. Swimming	Monday periods 7-8	Alter. Fri. period 5	Pool
i. Track	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 7-8	Daily period 5	Out
j. Cross-Country	Mon., Wed., Fri. periods 7-8	Daily period 5	Out
k. Rifle			Range

3. *Clubs*
   a. Leaders — Monday, periods 7 and 8 in the gym.
   b. Captains—Tuesday, 7th period in the gym.
   c. Tap Dancing and Tumbling —Thursday, periods 7 and 8 in the Corrective Room.
   d. Fencing Club—Monday, 7th and 8th periods. Friday, 7-8 Out Corrective Room.
   e. Wrestling—Friday, 7th period in the Corrective Room.

4. *General Regulations:*
   a. Health Examinations on file.
   b. Parent's Consent slip on file.
   c. G. O. membership.
   d. Prefect Teacher's signature on blank.
   e. Varsity Team members ineligible.

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f. Proper outfits, shower (5c. a towel).
g. Read rules for activity.
h. No entry fees required.
i. Entry blank for each sport.
j. Medals to winners.
k. Watch bulletin near gym.
l. Be on time.

Be a Good Sport: Win or Lose.

HANDBALL

1. Each prefect class may enter a team of seven players and three substitutes.
2. The captain of the team shall choose seven players for each game.
3. Each match shall consist of three singles games and two doubles games. The singles shall count one point as well as the doubles.
4. The first round games will consist of fifteen points. All the other rounds up to the last four games will end at 21 points. The last four games will be de-decided by 31 points.
5. Before a match begins, the captains of the respective teams will submit a list showing the names and the order of the players. The order of players cannot be changed during a match but may be changed for the next match.
6. The first ten players of the Lincoln Varsity Handball Team are ineligible to participate in this tournament.
7. Games will be played at our school courts as scheduled.
8. Players must wear gym shoes and gym suits if possible. Players may use gloves. Balls will be supplied by G. O.
9. Health Examination — G. O. Member — Parent's Consent Card.
10. See Mr. Spear for information.

SWIMMING

E Session Practice Schedule: Every Monday, periods 7 and 8. From March 7 to May 23, inclusive.

Championships: Monday, June 13—7th and 8th periods.

Events

50-yard free style; 100-yard free style; 50-yard backstroke; 50-yard breast stroke; 200-yard relay.

L Session Practice Schedule: Alternate Fridays, period 5 (10.30) March 4-18; April 15-29; May 13-27.

Championships: Friday, June 10, at 10:30 a. m.

Rules

See Mr. Lux for information.

1. A prefect room may enter two boys in each event and six in the relay. A pupil may enter one event only.
2. Medals to winners in each event.
3. Varsity Team members are ineligible to compete.
4. Health Examination—G. O. Member—Parent's Consent Slip.

BASKETBALL

1. Each prefect may enter teams of five players and two substitutes.
2. Time: Two ten-minute halves, five minutes' intermission.
3. Proper gym costume; shower bath.
4. Varsity team members ineligible to compete.
5. Health Examination—G. O. Card—Parent's Consent Slip.
6. See Mr. Kroff for information.

SOCCER

1. Prefects may enter teams of eleven players and two substitutes.
2. A team shall consist of not less than nine nor more than eleven players.
3. Wear old clothes or uniforms. Soccer shoes if possible.
4. Varsity players are ineligible to compete.
5. Health Examination—G. O. Card—Parent's Consent Slip.
6. See Mr. Ball for information.

RIFLE

E Session—Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday; periods 7, 8, 9, 10.

L Session—Boys who have free periods as in E session.

Report to Rifle Range for Practice and Individual Championship.

Medals to winners.

See Mr. Steinberg for information.

TRACK

1. Cross-Country.
2. Shot Put.
3. Running Broad Jump.
4. Running High Jump.

Rules

1. Each competitor must practice at least twice a week.
2. Varsity of each event.
3. One set of medals for each event.
4. A day will be scheduled for the championships in each event.
5. Practice:

   E Session—7th and 8th periods, Monday, Wednesday, Friday.

   L Session—10:30 daily.
6. Health Examination—Parent's Consent Slip—G. O. Card.
7. See Mr. Schechter for information.

Regular Field Day in June.

FOOTBALL

E Session: Regular Spring Practice in April. Monday, Wednesday, Thursday; periods 7 and 8.

L Session: Inter-class Touch Football and Spring Practice. Daily at 10:30.

Touch Football Rules

1. Prefects may enter a team of six players and three substitutes.
2. Ball is put in play by forward pass. On the pass from team A to team B, the first person who touches it puts the ball into play, whether he catches it or fumbles it.
3. The receiving team keeps it in play until the one carrying the ball is tagged by an opponent.
4. The ball is out of play if any person of the receiving team drops the ball (except the first receiver).

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5. The ball is not out of play unless the one carrying the ball is tagged by any one opponent with his two hands.
6. To put the ball in play again, the receiving team throws forward pass to opponents.
7. The receiving team may work the ball towards the goal by means of passes.
8. There is to be no blocking; ball to opponents where foul occurs.
9. A player who runs offside is ineligible for the remainder of that play.
10. Time: Two ten-minute halves with five-minute intermission.
11. Points: 5 points for each touchdown. After a safety the ball is put into play from the goal line.
12. Health Examination — G. O. Card—Parent's Consent Slip.
13. See Mr. Jacobs for information.

VOLLEY BALL

1. A team shall consist of eight players and two substitutes.
2. A game shall consist of fifteen points. Two out of three games.
3. Service shall be in rotation.
4. All pupils are eligible for the team except members of any Varsity Squad or members of the class Basketball or Handball team.
5. Health Examination — G. O. Card—Parent's Consent Slip.
6. See Mr Klaskin for information.

INDOOR BASEBALL

1. Nine men and two substitutes. Varsity Baseball team ineligible.
2. Special Rules: Seven innings; two strikes or two fouls or a combination are out. Three balls constitute a walk. Underhand pitching. No stealing of bases except on a hit or if a play is made for the base-runner. Regular baseball rules to govern otherwise.
3. E Session—periods 7 and 8 daily. L Session, 10:30 a. m.
4. Health Examination — G. O. Card—Parent's Consent Slip.
5. See Mr. Fish for information.

III. Dancing.
IV. Self-testing and self-defense.
V. Fundamental skills.
VI. Natural gymnastics.

These four items of the theoretical program are quite thoroughly covered in the regular health education classes, which must be attended by all students of the school.

Clog, tap, and social dancing are given during parts of each semester. Self-testing stunts are taught the students on the heavy apparatus and the mats. Boxing and wrestling elements are taught during regular floor formation and opportunity is provided for practice during the squad changes. Fundamental skills and natural gymnastics vary with the season, since it is best to teach during the time that each sport is played.

VII. Athletics for all. In answer to this last item of the theoretical program, I present a few statistical figures showing the number of boys indulging in athletics at Abraham Lincoln High School:

Varsity Athletics	*Approximately*
Football	50 boys
Baseball	30 boys
Basketball	15 boys
Track and Field	60 boys
Soccer	35 boys
Swimming	30 boys
Tennis	10 boys
Golf	10 boys
Rifle	10 boys
Fencing	8 boys
Hand-ball	10 boys

Intramural Athletics

Basketball	420 boys
Tennis	100 boys
Football	400 boys
Hand-ball	450 boys
Baseball	660 boys
Soccer	600 boys
Volley ball	400 boys
Swimming	600 boys
Track	300 boys
X-Country	70 boys
Rifle	20 boys

This completes the picture of the program fostered and organized by the Abraham Lincoln High School's Boys' Health Education Department, and supervised by Mr. Kaufman.

JULIUS JACOBS.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

A Reading List for Students of "Vocations and Industries"

The needs of a course such as this, where a wide range of occupations and industries is covered and an attempt is made to get each student interested in a particular vocation, cannot be met simply by supplying pupils with a text-book. In the first place, there is not a text-book in this subject which would adequately meet the demands of either teachers or students. Secondly, the very purpose of the course is to get away from the text-book method and have students do a little exploring of their own. Consequently, I have found pupils frequently asking for books which I would recommend for their particular occupation. This occurs most often when they begin their work on their projects.

For this reason the following reading list has been prepared for the students of our Vocations and Industries classes. Its purpose is to serve as a guide to obtaining further information about their future occupation. Each student is required to read one entire book in the first half of the term and use other books in connection with his project which is carried on in the second half of the semester. Books not on this list may be selected with the approval of the teacher.

There is no claim made to originality in drawing up the list. Various sources have been employed. A good many of these books have already been used in my classes. In the near future, we hope to improve upon our list by adding to it a brief description of the contents of each book. In the meantime, however, it is my hope that it may be of some help to other teachers of this subject, especially to those who are teaching it for the first time.

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Vocations and Industries

Reading List for Students

I. *How to Choose Your Vocation*

Blackford, Newcomb ..... The Right Job
Ernst, C. H. ..... What Shall I Be?
Filene, Catherine ..... Careers For Women
Harris, F. S. ..... The Young Man and His Vocation
Hawksworth, H. ..... What Are You Going To Be?
Hoerle and Saltzburg ..... The Girl and The Job
Kitson, Harry D. ..... How To Find The Right Vocation
Kitson, Harry D. ..... I Find My Vocation
Marden, Orson S. ..... Choosing A Career
Parson, Frank ..... Choosing A Vocation
Rodger, Esca G. ..... Careers
Rollins, F. W. ..... What Can A Young Man Do?
Rosengarten, Wm. ..... Choosing Your Life Work
Toland, Edward ..... Choosing The Right Career

II. *Do you Wish to Know More About Various Industries, Occupations, Professions?*

Then read:

Allen, Fred J. ..... Business Employments
Bernays, Edw. L. ..... An Outline of Careers
Cooley, Belman and Rodgers ..... My Life Work, 4 volumes
1. Building and Metal Trades
2. Printing and Servicing Trades
3. Store and Office Occupations
4. Representative Industries

Doughton, I. ..... Preparing For The World's Work
Filene, Catherine ..... Careers For Women
Fryer, Douglas ..... Vocational Self-Guidance
Giles, F. M. and I. K. ..... Vocational Civics
Gowin, Wheatley, and Brewer ..... Occupations
Hatcher, O. Latham ..... Occupations For Women
Hill, Howard C. ..... Vocational Civics
Holbrook and McGregor ..... Our World of Work
Jackson, B. ..... Opportunities of Today for Boys and Girls
Laselle, Mary A. ..... Fields of Work for Women
Leuck, Miriam ..... Fields of Work for Women

Lyons, L. S. ..... Making A Living
Meyers, G. E., Little, G. M. and Robinson, S. M. ..... Planning Your Future
Platt, R. H. and Fainbam, R. T. ..... The Book of Opportunities
Proctor, Wm. M. ..... Vocations
Smith and Blough ..... Planning A Career
Weaver, E. W. ..... Vocations For Girls
Weaver and Byler ..... Profitable Vocations for Boys
Ziegler, S. H., and Jaquette, H. ..... Choosing An Occupation

III. *Do You Intend to be a Salesman or an Advertising Executive?*

Then read:

Calkins, Ernst E. ..... The Business of Advertising
Cooley, Belman and Rogers ..... My Life Work, Volume III, Store and Office Occupations
Copeland, M. T. ..... Principles of Merchandising
Filene, A. L. ..... A Merchant's Horizon
Fowler, Nathaniel C. ..... Practical Salesmanship
Haywood and White ..... Chain Stores
Horner, W. W. ..... Training For A Life Insurance Agent
Hoyt, C. ..... Training For The Business of Advertising
Hungerford, Edw. ..... The Romance of A Great Store
Indianapolis Vocational Information ..... Department Store Service
Kaster, E. H. ..... Advertising
Maxwell, Wm. ..... Training of A Salesman
Norton, Helen L. ..... Retail Selling
O'Leary, Iris ..... Department Store Occupations
Prince, L. W. ..... Retail Selling
Seigbe, Ruth ..... Elements of Retailing

IV. *Do You Wish to Work in an Office as a Stenographer, Typist, Secretary, or Bookkeeper?*

Then read:

Allen, Fred J. ..... Business Employments
American Telephone and Telegraph Co. ..... Work and Opportunity: Bell Service
Cooley, Belman, Rogers ..... My Life Work, Volume III, Store and Office Occupations
Federal Bureau of Education Bulletin ..... Survey of Junior Commercial Occupations

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Indianapolis Vocational Information	Opportunities for Women In Telephone Service
Johnson, Edith	Women of the Business World
Kilduff, Edward	The Private Secretary
National City Bank of N. Y. C.	Manual for Pages and Messengers
Stevens, B. M.	Boys and Girls in Commercial Work

V. *Are You Interested in Becoming a Bank Teller, Cashier, Real Estate or Insurance Broker?*

Then read:

Chamberlain, Lawrence	Work of a Bond House
Coffin, G. H.	The A B C of Banks and Banking
Fiske, Amos K.	The Modern Bank
Joey, Herbert D.	Getting Ahead In The Bank
Kniffin, Wm. H.	Commercial Banking
Kniffin, Wm. H.	The Savings Bank and Its Practical Work
Kyrk, H. J. S.	American Banking Industry
National City Bank of N. Y. C.	Manual for Pages and Messengers
Patten, C. B.	Practical Banking
Ripley, W. Z.	Main Street and Wall Street
Stevenson, John	Selling Life Insurance
Spiker, John B.	The Real Estate Business as a Profession

VI. *Do You Want to Work for the Government?*

Then read:

Cahalene, Cornelius	The Policeman
Cooper, Arthur	How to Prepare for Civil Service
Crump, I.	Boys' Book of Policemen
Downes, A. M.	Fire Fighters and Their Pets
Hirth, Emma P.	Training for the Professions and Allied Occupations
Lyons, L. S.	Making a Living
Mayers, L.	Federal Service
Moffett, Cleveland L.	Careers of Danger and Daring
O'Reilly, J.	How to Become a Fireman
Platt and Fainham	The Book of Opportunities
Rolt-Wheeler, F. W.	A Boy with the U. S. Foresters
Rolt-Wheeler, F. W.	A Boy with the U. S. Radio
Weaver, E. M.	Building a Career

VII. *Are You Interested in Learning a Trade—Aviation Mechanic, Electrician, Printer, Carpenter, etc.?*

Then read:

Allen, Fred J.	The Shoe Business
Allison, May	Dressmaking As a Trade for Women in Massachusetts
Bean, Edward	Bookbinding for Beginners
Brennan, A. L.	Automobile Operation
Bryner, Edna	Dressmaking and Millinery
Bryner, Edna	The Garment Trades
Collins, F. A.	Boys' Book of Model Airplanes
Cooley, Belman, and Rogers	My Life Work Vol. I. Building and Metal Trades Vol. II. Printing and Servicing Trades Vol. IV. Representative Industries
Crabtree, T. H.	The Cotton Industry from Raw Cotton to Woolen Cloth
Curtis Aeroplane and Motor Co.	Curtis Airplane Engine Handbook
Dyke, A. L.	Aircraft Engine Instructor
Elliot, B. J.	Automobile Repairing
Garber, Paul	Building and Flying Model Aircraft
Hall, T.	Automobile Construction for Repair
Hayword, Chas. B.	Practical Aviation (American Technical Society)
Jacoutat, A.	Manufacture of Confectionery
Jones, Edward I.	Aircraft Power Plants
Miller, Sidney	Railway Transportation
Page, T.	Automobile Repairing Made Easy
Porte, R. T.	Letters to a Printer's Devil
Prideaux, C.	Bookbinders and Their Craft
Rohrer, J.	Illustrated Book on Scientific Modern Beauty Culture
Shaw, Frank L.	Printing Trades
Shaw, Frank L.	The Building Trades
Sloane, Thomas O.	How to Become a Successful Electrician
Vincent, Terrance	Miniature Aircraft Flier
Walker, Chas.	Steel—The Diary of a Furnace Worker
Wood, T. B.	Story of a Loaf of Bread
Woodruff, R. E.	The Making of Railroad Officers

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VIII. *Are You Interested in Entering a Profession—Law, Medicine, Teaching, Engineering, etc.?*

Then read:

Adams, Elizabeth K.—Women Professional Workers
Addams, Jane—Twenty Years at Hull House
Allen, Fred J.—The Law As a Vocation
Baldwin, Simeon E.—The Young Man and the Law
Berkowitz, H.—Problems of the Jewish Ministry
Boughner, G. J.—Women in Journalism
Bridge, H. L.—Manual of Practical Nursing
Cabot, Richard C.—Training and Rewards for the Physician
Caldwell and Slosson—Science Remaking the World
DeKruf, Paul—Microbe Hunters
Fleming and Bailey—Engineering As a Profession
Forester, Emily L. B.—Analytical Chemistry As a Profession for Women
Friedel, J. H.—Training for Librarianship
Gardner, M. S.—Public Health Nursing
Hamlin, T. F.—The Enjoyment of Architecture
Hammond, John Hays—The Engineer
Hendrick, Ellwood—Opportunities in Chemistry
Hirth, Emma P.—Training for the Professions and Allied Occupations
McCullough, Ernest—Engineering As a Vocation
Mott, John R.—The Claims and Opportunities of the Christian Ministry
Newell and Drayer—Engineering As a Vocation
Nightingale, Florence—Notes on Nursing
Palmer, George H.—The Ideal Teacher
Patri, Angelo—A Schoolmaster of the Great City
Tai, T.—Professional Education for Librarians
Walsh, M. J.—Teaching As a Profession
Ward, Henshaw—Exploring the World
Weaver, Daniel W.—Medicine As a Profession
Wright, Henry P.—The Young Man and Teaching

IX. *Do You Have Any Special Ability in Music, Art, or Dramatics?*

Then read:

Calvert, Louis—Problems of the Actor
Canby, Henry O. J.—The Mechanics of Composition
Fraack, M. H.—Great Authors in Their Youth

Hirth, Emma P. (editor)—Training for the Professions and Allied Occupations
Hornblower, Arthur—Training for the Stage
Horne, O. B. and Scobey, K. L.—Stories of Great Artists
Johnson, Burges—Earning a Living by the Pen
Lord, C. S.—The Young Man and Journalism
Seitz, Don Carlos—Training for the Newspaper Trades
Storey; Harriet Brewer—Lives of Master Musicians
Wildman, E.—Writing to Sell

X. *Do You Wish to Read of People Who Made a Success in Their Occupation?*

Then select one of the following:

Bok, Edward—The Americanization of Edward Bok
Bolton, S. K.—Poor Boys Who Became Famous
Carnegie, A.—The Autobiography of Andrew Carnegie
Cook, E. T.—A Short Life of Florence Nightingale
DeKruf, Paul—Microbe Hunters
Driggs, Lawrence—Heroes of Aviation
Eggleston, E.—Stories of Great Americans
Ferris, Helen, and Morris, Virginia—Girls Who Did
Fraack, M. H.—Great Authors in Their Youth
Haaren, J. H., and Poland, A. B.—Famous Men of Modern Times
Hagedorn, H.—Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt
Hammond, J. W.—Magician of Science: the Boys' Life of Steinmetz
Horne, O. B., and Scobey, K. L.—Stories of Great Artists
Kingsley, N. F.—Four American Explorers
Kupfer, G.—Lives and Stories Worth Remembering
Law, F. H.—Modern Great Americans
Meadoweraft, W. H.—Boy's Life of Thomas Edison
Parkman, Mary—Heroines of Service
Parton, James—Captains of Industry
Perry, F. M., and Kingsley, N. F.—Four American Inventors
Riis, J.—The Making of an American
Vallery-Radot—The Life of Pasteur
Wildman, Edwin—Famous Leaders of Industry

Abraham Lincoln High School. LEO WEITZ.

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Instructions to News Board Members At the Bushwick High School

1. Read and reread this instruction sheet from time to time.
2. You will learn these rules only through use, and not by reading them.
3. After writing a news story, take out this instruction sheet and check against it.
4. Failure to adhere to any of the instructions or failure to submit material on time may result in dismissal from the staff.

Assignments

1. Assignments will appear on the Bulletin Board every Thursday morning.
2. The assignment will specify:
   a. Number of lines for story.
   b. Number of units for headline.
   c. Size of headline.
   d. The deadline (date the news story is due).
3. The assignment must be adhered to very closely.

Writing the News Story

1. All rules of correct English must be followed:
   a. Run-on sentences must be avoided.
   b. The same tense should be used throughout the news story.
   c. The same words should not be repeated too often.
2. No paragraph should exceed sixty words; the shorter the paragraph the better.
3. The summary of the news story should appear, in its opening sentence. This first sentence should answer the questions: What? Who? When? Where? Why?
4. Omit the year (1932, 1933) when writing about a current date. Check all names to see if they are correctly spelled.
5. Congratulations, thanks, and praise should be omitted. If you think them necessary, mention indirectly by saying, "The applause was indicative of the response which the speaker's remarks met," or some such phrase.
6. *Number of Lines*

When the issue is planned, a definite number of lines is allowed for each news story. *Reporters must adhere closely to the line limit.* Not a line less nor a line more will be accepted.

7. For your own protection, have the teacher (or other person from whom you received the information) sign your news story.
8. The reporter's signature must appear at the end of each news story.

How to Count the Number of Lines

1. Count the number of words in each paragraph.
2. Write that number in the right-hand margin.
3. Divide that number by 6. The answer will represent the number of lines needed for the paragraph. Any fraction in the answer calls for an additional line.
4. Write the number of lines in the left-hand margin.
5. Do the same for each paragraph.
6. When finished writing the news story, add the numbers in the left margin. This will give you the total number of lines needed.

Headlines

1. Reporters will submit headlines with their news stories.
2. The assignment sheet will indicate the nature of the headlines. Adhere to those instructions.
3. The head should always bring out the main point of the article.
4. The verb in the head should be in the present tense.
5. All parts of the verb "to be" are to be omitted from the head.
6. Space of letters:

   M and W count as 1½ letters each.

   i and I count as ½ letters each.

   , ; ' count as ½.

   All others (letters and numbers) count one.

I. D. SATLOW.
Bushwick High School.

Coöperative Group Projects in American History

In the April, 1931, and November, 1932, issues of HIGH POINTS, the writer described class projects in European and American History which grew out of the supplementary reading required of each student. During one semester, the same general procedure was adopted with reference to group projects in American History.

Two classes in the first term of American History were given the option of reading the necessary amount of supplementary material as directed or of working out coöperatively a plan of their own. The latter course was unanimously adopted in each class and it was proposed that a committee be chosen to draft a plan or several plans of procedure to be submitted to the class for revision and adoption. A volunteer committee was selected and given a week in which to do its work. Inasmuch as the general procedure in each class was essentially the same, it will suffice to describe the subsequent progress in one of them.

The committee, in submitting its report, offered six alternative procedures with the arguments for and against each plan, made its recommendations in favor of one of them and answered all questions and objections raised. The plan adopted provided for the division of the class into seven committees of five, each committee to work on a different subject and to submit a coöperative oral and written report. For convenience, it was decided that each row of five, from side to side of the room, was to form one of the committees.

The original committee was authorized to draw up a comprehensive list of subjects suitable for coöperative reading and study by the groups concerned. A week later, the committee presented a list of close to a hundred subjects compiled with the assistance of the other members of the class. A mimeographed copy was placed in the hands of each student, at the beginning of the period, and he was asked

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to evaluate each item as suitable, unsuitable, or doubtful. About twenty-nine subjects were judged to be desirable as a result of the foregoing method of selection supplemented by some discussion.

At the beginning of the following period, these were placed on the blackboard. Each committee was given a minute to choose its chairman and several minutes to select a topic from those listed. Alternate choices were to be indicated in case of conflict. Due to the wide range allowed, all but two of the groups selected different topics. They too settled their difficulty satisfactorily through the medium of the alternate choice provision.

The class, with the advice of the teacher, arrayed the topics in the order of difficulty and arranged the time schedule for the reports. The committee to report first was to be given a month to do its work, each of the others following in the order determined, a week apart. A period was to be devoted to each group report, with the chairman of the group presiding and each member reading or otherwise presenting his share of the joint report. Time was to be allowed for discussion and critical evaluation of the material presented.

The students decided to submit a typewritten, illustrated, and bound committee report at the time of the oral presentation. Each student was to be on the lookout for illustrations appropriate for other committees as well as for his own. Old history texts, about to be discarded, were given to the students. From these, pictures, maps and various materials from the appendices were taken and used.

The reports were made as per schedule. The oral as well as the typewritten reports were subjected to class criticism. The finished manuscripts were evaluated with respect to content as well as with regard to such matters as the arrangement of material, index, table of contents, table of maps, illustrations, bibliography, cover design, binding, typing, and the like.

Each report, for the most part, was superior to the preceding one, in content as well as in make-up. The bindings, for example, were an illustration of this latter fact. The first ones to be submitted were bound together by cord or clipped together by hand. Later reports were taped, glued, or clipped together by machine. Subsequent reports were sewed together and the last ones were bound by a professional binder with the titles stamped in gold letters on the cover. Each of the finished products of the two classes engaged in this work was exhibited, upon completion, in both classes for examination, guidance, and appraisal, by the students. This was also done for one period during the last week of the term, when all were viewed. They were finally exhibited for a week in the school library for consideration by the entire student body.

Time Devoted to the Project

Work was not begun on the project outlined above until the fifth

week of the semester. Four full periods were necessary for the preliminary work and for the proper organization of the committees. Committee meetings were held each day in class at the discretion of the chairman of each group. Five minutes was the maximum time permitted for such meetings. Thought questions based in the regular lesson of the day served as a guide for study by those groups not holding meetings during these intervals. It was found expedient to set the time for these meetings during the last five minutes of the period, in order to insure adequate consideration of the regular daily program of work.

One period was devoted to each committee report, there being seven in each class. Finally, as related above, a period was utilized in each class for the exhibition of all of the completed work.

Values of the Group As Compared With the Class Project

The writer has noted the following advantages for the group project:

1. Each member of the class is given a larger share of responsibility for the success of a coöperative endeavor. The student can see much more readily the success or failure of his individual efforts.
2. More students are given training in leadership through their functioning as committee chairmen.
3. More extensive correlations are possibly, particularly with art, oral and written English, and typing. Each group is compelled to utilize whatever artistic talent is available in planning the cover, the illustrations, the binding and the like. Furthermore, the latent talents of the average student are compelled to flower.
4. More extensive historical reading is encouraged and the student may know more intimately a larger share of the subject than he does when he must read on a comparatively minute portion of a large class enterprise.
5. It is much simpler to locate and procure the necessary material.
6. There is a much greater carry over from the project work to the regular history course, inasmuch as the seven or eight group studies supplement and illuminate a very considerable portion of the course.
7. The many difficulties encountered in coördinating the many different aspects of the single class enterprise, do not appear in the group project, inasmuch as each group proceeds as an independent entity.
8. There is less likelihood of disaffection and half-hearted endeavor which is often a resultant of lack of interest in the subject chosen. This state of affairs can easily occur when a majority decides on a single topic for the entire class. In the group project, also, like-minded students may may be much more easily brought together.
9. A wholesome spirit of friendly rivalry was evident among the different groups. The improvement noted from week to week in each project presented came as a result of taking advantage of the criticisms made concerning the efforts of the earlier groups. It might be an interesting

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commentary to make, regarding this point, that the one committee, dissatisfied with its efforts after viewing a few projects that were submitted later, asked permission to try its hand all over again during the Easter vacation period.

Limitations of the Group Project

The following seemed to be the greatest weaknesses of the group project:

1. The individual groups were, in general, made up very unevenly. Some were distinctly mediocre, while a few were quite superior. This would probably be the case regardless of the method of selection used, unless the teacher himself arbitrarily selected the committee.

2. The committee manuscripts were of widely varying degrees of merit, depending largely upon the factor mentioned above.

3. The committee products were, without exception, far inferior to the results obtained in the class projects. This was true, not only from the point of view of intensiveness of treatment, but also with regard to such formal elements as style, and the many artistic and mechanical considerations.

4. There was evident, in many cases, a lack of interest in what the other groups were doing, except where it was possible to gain ideas for their own jobs.

5. Details including such items as typing, providing illustrations and cover designs, and binding were, in general, more troublesome than would have been the case in the class project.

6. Less valuable training in the elements of research is possible since students can locate material without any trouble and there is no real motive for desiring to learn about the methods and materials of historical research.

Subjects Chosen

The subjects chosen as the bases of the group projects described were:

1. The Critical Period of American History.
2. Famous American Statesmen.
3. Colonial Times.
4. The Constitution of the United States.
5. The War of 1812.
6. The Mexican War.
7. The History of Slavery in the United States.
8. The Evolution of American Industry.
9. The Life of Abraham Lincoln.
10. The Territorial Expansion of the United States.

Organization of a Typical Group Project

The following is taken from the table of contents of the committee manuscript "Colonial Times."

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Bibliography

The following works were consulted by the committee of five students who presented the study outlined above:

For the Northern Colonies:

Side Lights on Our Social and Economic History—S. C. Forman.

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For the Middle Colonies:

Colonial Folkways—C. M. Andrews.

School History of the United States—Mace.

Colonization of the United States—G. Bancroft.

For the Southern Colonies:

Old Virginia and Her Neighbors—John Fiske.

History of the People of the United States—J. B. McMasters.

Beginnings of the American People—Becker.

MICHAEL LEVINE.
New Utrecht High School.

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Teaching the Use of the Past Participle in French

The position of the past participle in the compound tenses has always been confusing to beginners. The following method has been found particularly effective in fixing the position of the past participle.

After having developed the latter in each of the three conjugations, we then review the present tense of "avoir." Then one child is called out to stand in a corner of the room. The class is informed that John Brown's name is no longer John Brown, but "donné," let us say. Everybody else in the class is some form of the verb "avoir" in the present tense. The students realize that "donné" cannot say his name until "avoir" has spoken his. Then all except the class calls out "J'ai," upon which "donné" steps forward and calls out his name. Then we continue with the rest of the conjugation in the affirmative. This is repeated in the interrogative, negative, and negative-interrogative forms, either in concert or by calling on individuals for "avoir" and asking the past participle to speak up after "avoir" has completely finished his full name.

The same is done changing to the use of various participles and at the end of a quick drill the students clearly see how the *passé indéfini* is to be formed, or, as a matter of fact, how any compound tense is to be formed.

MARIE ZULYEVITS.

John Adams High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Facts About the High Schools

More than one-fourth of all the 23,930 public high schools in America are located in five States: Texas, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Missouri and Illinois, the Federal Office of Education announced today in a report on public high schools for 1929-30. Texas high schools reporting totalled 1,400; Ohio, 1,322; Pennsylvania, 1,185; Missouri, 1,063; and Illinois, 1,065.

Fourteen other States recorded from 500 to 1,000 public high schools as follows:

Iowa	991
New York	955
Oklahoma	911
North Carolina	901
Indiana	869
Michigan	784
Kansas	746
Mississippi	735
Kentucky	711
Tennessee	669
Nebraska	652
Georgia	585
Minnesota	576
North Dakota	519

Larger than any other public high school in the United States reporting to the Federal Office of Education was DeWitt Clinton High School (for boys) in New York City, with an enrollment of 10,059 in 1930. New Utrecht High School and James Madison High School in Brooklyn, N. Y., with enrollments of 9,944 and 8,711, respectively, were the next largest high schools reporting. Other enrollments greater than 5,000 pupils reported by public high schools (the average enrollment is 234) were:

James Monroe H. S.—New York City, 8,572.

Carl Schurz H. S.—Chicago, Ill., 8,106.

Theodore Roosevelt H. S. (Commercial), New York City, 7,845.

Erasmus Hall H. S.—Brooklyn, N. Y., 7,525.

High School, Jamaica, New York City, 7,002.

Thos. Jefferson H. S.—Brooklyn, N. Y., 6.970.

Girls Commercial H. S.—Brooklyn, N. Y., 6,899.

Austin H. S., Chicago, Ill., 6,547.

High School, Richmond Hill, N. Y. C., 6,402.

Newton High School, Elmhurst, New York City, 6,323.

George Washington H. S., N. Y. C., 6,223.

Washington Irving H. S., N. Y. C., 5,904.

Stuyvesant High School, N. Y. C., 5,861.

Julia Richman H. S., N. Y. C., 5,854.

Evening H. S. of Commerce, San Francisco, Calif., 5,728.

Evander Childs H. S., N. Y. C., 5,679.

Washington Irving Evening H. S., New York City, 5,615.

Walton Jr.-Sr. H. S., New York City, 5,585.

Arsenal Tech. H. S., Indianapolis, Ind., 5,421.

Boys High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 5,311.

J. Sterling Morton H. S., Cicero, Ill., 5,167.

Lindblom H. S., Chicago, Ill., 5,153.

Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 5,149.

Roosevelt H. S., Chicago, Ill., 5,102.

Albert G. Lane H. S., Chicago, Ill., 5,037.

Many public high schools have large enrollments, the Office of Education report indicates, but approximately 75 per cent of them enroll only 200 pupils or fewer. The majority of these register fewer than 100 pupils. America's total enrollment in 1929-30 in all types of public high schools, records show, was 5,465,932. School enrollment of children 15 to 18 was approximately 50 per cent of the total number of children of that age range recorded by the 1930 Census. Two-thirds of this group attended regular high schools, while the other third went to reorganized high schools (the junior high school, junior-senior high school or the strictly senior high school). More than 71,000 were attending high schools offering only abbreviated 1, 2 or 3 year courses of a regular 4-year high school program of studies, necessitating their attending another school to get additional work for graduation.

Public high schools graduated 591,-

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719 young men and young women in the year 1929-30. Forty-six per cent of the graduates of city high schools were boys and 43.5 per cent of the graduates from rural schools were boys. Nearly half of the graduates continued their education the year after they left high school.

Among other significant facts set forth in the Office of Education's report of public high schools are: The percentage of boys attending college has shown a decrease, and that of girls an increase from 1921 to 1929; the number of public high school teachers has increased 115,652 in a decade; 1,382 high school pupils of every 10,000 had an opportunity in 1930 to attend a public high school for more than 190 days; and 6,013 high school libraries were reported in 1930.

—*Release of the Department of the Interior.*

REVIEWS

The Way Out of Educational Confusion

By John Dewey. Inglis Lecture, 1931. Harvard University Press.

Many are the ills which beset the pedogogical flesh today. But few there are who can minister to its maladies, and even fewer who can precisely mark its ailments. Professor Dewey, however, in "The Way Out of Educational Confusion," successfully essays a sound diagnosis and therapy. Not all the causes of contemporary education malaise are adduced. Professor Dewey merely treats of what he considers the three influences contributing most heavily to our educational disequilibrium.

He first raises the point that educational leaders and curriculum makers are filled with much uncertainty as to what basic principles shall determine the content and approach of subject-matter. This fundamental bewilderment leads to a classifying of "subjects" which has little value or relevance. "Courses" similarly designated have little in common. Titles become meaningless, for they stand as symbols of no definite entities. The onus does not fall entirely on our educators. The problem is ultimately referable to the larger academic world where there are even greater divergences on first principles. The pedagogue, however, cannot escape censure for maintaining the old categories of "subjects" when the base of knowledge has shifted or altered. Standardization and labeling are to a degree essential. But organizing our present knowledge under old rubrics and principles is myopic policy, destructive of the most efficient transmission of the content and significance of education.

Professor Dewey's second point, although not an entirely new one, is of utmost importance. The old classical curriculum with its intense, narrow disciplines, and its rigidly circumscribed subject-matter, has been superseded by a meaningless multiplication of "courses" aimlessly spawned in a feverish desire to secure a proper alignment between an archaic curriculum and a rapidly changing civilization. To meet the ever-increasing complexities of the times, the curriculum has been "fractionized" or compartmentalized. This has led to the tragic superficiality of what is dignified with the name "education." Where the old curriculum taught much about little, the new teaches "less and less about more and more." The interdependence of learnings is not fully recognized; meanings are not integrated; a coherent, intelligent, and intelligible philosophy is nowhere articulated. Learning takes place *in vacuo*, and has little personal or social pertinence.

The last part of Dewey's analysis deals with the conflict between the "practical" and the "liberal" viewpoints in education. The cultivation of what Santayana calls the "genteel tradition," apart from its application to the life around us, produces an attenuated intellectual leisure class, decorative but useless. The pursuit of the purely practical untouched by the liberalizing outlook of humanism, tends towards "the brutal and inhuman." A culture divorced from the main stream of life has no excuse for being. A practicalism disdainful of the cultural view bears within itself the seeds of its own decay. A permanent separation here is unthinkable if education is to fulfill its noblest purposes.

As a way out of our dilemmas, Professor Dewey urges the clarification of educational aims and procedures, a more realistic view of the nature of knowledge, and of the learning process, and a more meaningful linkage of the individual's education with the life around him. Education must be a process continually bringing the individual into a more intelligent, more purposeful harmony with his environment.

While this slim volume reveals no radical development in Professor Dewey's philosophy, it is an eminently valuable discussion of a subject much talked about, but little understood. It is a sane, dignified, urbane and quietly eloquent treatment. Its utter lack of affectation is a welcome relief from the welter of pompous preening which clutters up so much of our educational journals, texts, and treatises. Professor Dewey's style, usually a formidable barrier between author and reader, here seems to have lost much of its opacity and knottiness. Although a bit murky and gnarled in spots, the texture of his writing, like his thought, has become more resilient and supple. His uncompromising vision, with its limitations, is still preferable to the prettier expediencies of lesser men.

A. H. Lass.
Manual Training High School.

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A Contribution to the Theory ... Practice of Parents Associations

By Maria Lambin Rogers. United Parents Associations of New York City. Fifty cents.

Among the several progressive movements in education in New York City, undoubtedly the most forward-looking is that of the United Parents Associations. At a time when all the gains in education that have been won during the last decade at the expense of great effort, energy, and money seem about to be set aside by those who are crying for economy and saving, only the voice of the parents in this federated group is being raised in protest that is both vigorous and well-defined. "Our children must not be sacrificed on the altar of political greed and municipal corruption. Our children must not be crowded into classrooms. Our school building program must go on. The morale of the teachers must not be undermined by a destruction of the equitable salary schedules that we have set up. If we are sincere in our efforts to keep our children safe from injury and death on our crowded city streets, we must not give up the afternoon play centers in the schools. Child guidance, health promotion, vocational service for juniors, better articulation between junior and senior high schools are needed more than ever."

The writer has been privileged to attend the testimonial luncheons given annually by the U. P. A. to the members of the Board of Education and the Board of Superintendents. These searching souls of the parents, teachers, supervisors, and administrators, all of whose efforts and interests center in the children of our great metropolis. The frank discussion of problems and questions put before the heads of our vast school system have made these gatherings the outstanding feature of Open School Week.

What is the U. P. A.? How did it come into existence? How has it grown to its present state?

One thing is certain—it has not grown like Topsy. On the contrary, it has been a studied growth which has followed lines laid down as a result of careful, intelligent planning by experts in the field of parental education. And now its thrilling history has been told in the eighty-page brochure, prepared by Maria Lambin Rogers, who was the first executive secretary of the organization.

Read this remarkable story and you will learn at first hand the theory and practice of parents' associations of all kinds. The reader is carried down the years beginning with the old-fashioned coffee "klatches" and mothers' clubs that were mere adjuncts to school life, to the ideal modern parents' groups fully organized to render services of a varied nature. What impresses one most is the emphasis that the U. P. A. has placed on the organization of child study groups, the training of lay leaders, the scientific planning of programs for discussion. And wonder of wonders, the U. P. A. has its five-year plan! Those of us who were privileged to attend the series of conferences of parents, educators, and experts who worked on this plan will watch with interest the continued growth of the federated parents' groups.

Of what interest is all this to those who are connected with the high schools of our city? Just this: the U. P. A. has until recently been concerned only with the problem of the parents' association in the elementary school. In the last few years the movement has spread to the secondary schools because many of our high schools have gradually lost their cosmopolitan aspect. Except for such specialized schools as Stuyvesant, Textile, or Commerce, we have developed institutions like Evander Childs, George Washington, or Abraham Lincoln which are distinctly neighborhood schools. Parents have a greater community interest in the school, for it is near their homes. There are no long distances that must be annihilated. The contacts are closer among teachers, parents, children, and all welfare and communal agencies that are near the school. Parents who have been trained in the new theory and practise of parents' associations in the elementary schools now look for the same kind of association in the high schools to which their children go. Whereas four or five years ago there were two or three parents' groups in high schools, we have today eleven associations of one kind or another. More and more high school heads and faculties are beginning to realize the need for some kind of an organization that will win the coöperation of parents in the struggle against overcrowding, juvenile delinquency, etc. So great has this need become that the U. P. A. has been called upon to organize a series of conferences for the purpose of providing a clearing house for the solution of the pressing problems that have forced themselves upon the organizers of parents' associations in high schools in every part of our city.

For all of us, therefore, who are connected with the high schools, for all of us who are vitally concerned with the organization or conduct of a parents' association, this pamphlet published by the United Parents Association will prove to be just the thing that we need to help us in our work. A glance at the chapter headings will convince you:

I. Changing Homes and Changing Parents.
II. Changing Schools and the Parents' Role.
III. Early Parent Education Efforts.
IV. The Theory of the United Parents Associations.
V. Principles of Method.
VI. Some Principles for Local Associations.
VII. Surveying the Field for Difficulties.
VIII. Methods.
IX. Results.
X. Financial Policies and Sources of Support.
XI. Immediate Program, 1931-1936.

DANIEL G. KRANE.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

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When Spain Was Young

By Frank Callcott, Ph.D., of Columbia University. Robert M. McBride and Company, 1932.

Here we have a correlated Spanish reader that young people will enjoy reading. The author has chosen five universally known legends in medieval Spanish history and in clear, vigorous language they have been retold for our young students. Professor Callcott states that he had in mind "especially the young people who are beginning the study of Spanish," but his readers will not be limited to that group alone.

The book will appeal to maturer students because the material has been drawn from pure Spanish sources. The author's scholarship has led him to such works as

La crónica de 1344,

Poema de Fernán González,

Historia de España, Juan de Mariana,

La leyenda de los siete infantes de Lara,

Poema de Mio Cid, edition of Menéndez Pidal,

La crónica general of Alfonso X the Wise,

Crónica sarracina o crónica del Rey don Rodrigo con la destruyción de España, Alcalá edition.

It is always gratifying to lovers of the culture of Spain to see her literary monuments as they are and not through the eyes of unscholarly commentators.

The five hero stories chosen by the author are from the pre-Renaissance period, namely:

I. Roderick, the Last King of the Goths.
II. Pelayo.
III. Bernardo del Carpio.
IV. Fernán González, Count of Castile.
V. The Seven Lords of Lara.

All these heroes were "warriors, powerful men daring and bold in battle" (page 3), resourceful in the management of their affairs, simple in their religious fervor. In their treatment of an enemy they were purely medieval. They would heap honors on a fallen foe (page 177) or wreak appalling vengeance on near kinsmen for some fancied wrong (page 266).

I. *Roderick, the Last King of the Goths.* There are six known old ballads on Roderick and the loss of Spain to the Moors. There are also countless versions in Spanish as well as in foreign languages (*e.g.*, Victor Hugo: Bataille perdue—Les Orientales XVI). All agree that Roderick was a "weak brother," yet he remains a hero to Spaniards after all these centuries. All his weaknesses are forgiven because of his stout heart.

II. *Pelayo.* The story of Pelayo is the story of the beginning of the reconquest. By secret meetings in the mountain fastnesses of Asturias and by trusted messengers Pelayo rallied the Christians to his cause and began the long struggle to free Spain from the Moorish invader.

III. *Bernardo del Carpio.* The author retells this story of filial love. Young Bernardo reared at court as heir to the king, his uncle, learns that the king had for years held don Sancho, Bernardo's father, in prison at the castle of Luna. He swears to rescue his father and to avenge him. After years spent in the king's service, Bernardo demands the release of his father. The king complies and delivers to the young knight the lifeless body of his father.

IV. *Fernán González, Count of Castile.* The story of Fernán González is the longest and most spirited of the five. This is a great favorite among Spaniards, probably because this brave Count in his disregard of all hardships, his relentless pursuit of his enemies, his dauntless courage in the face of seemingly insuperable obstacles, forecasts the spirit of the conquistadores. By his ceaseless warfare, his shrewdness and wisdom, Fernán González laid the foundation for the future greatness of Castile. Toward the end of his life he succeeded in freeing his country from subjection to the crown of León.

V. *The Seven Lords of Lara.* This grim tale of a woman's hatred and thirst for revenge is sympathetically treated.

The story of the incredible activities of these old Spanish heroes forms a lively and interesting narrative. This reviewer, to whom these legends are a twice-told tale, was so entertained by the story that she completely forgot the manner of the telling. There is also an interesting side light on the feeling of the Spaniards for their Moorish conquerors, "the enemies of their holy faith." While there was more or less continuous warfare, there were periods of peace when Christians and Moors enjoyed friendly relations. They intermarried, intermingled freely, and admired one another extravagantly. At one time our author tells us the Christians looked upon the Caliph at Córdoba as an arbiter of disputes.

This reviewer has just read Hemingway's "Death in the Afternoon," in which the author tells us about bulls, all he has seen with his physical eyes—but tells us nothing about Spain and nothing about Spaniards.

These tales of Spain's early heroes tell us much about the Spaniards of today by showing us vividly the virtues and characteristics that Spaniards admire today and have admired through the ages.

This is a book that every teacher of Spanish should own, if only for use on those "blue Mondays" when teacher and class are in need of inspiration.

María de Villalvilla Frankel.
Washington Irving High School.

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DIAL POINT

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

FEBRUARY 1933

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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Art Department of the
Washington Irving High School

Books concerned with educational matters may be sent for review to Miss Helen L. Cohen, Washington Irving High School. School text-books will not be reviewed.

The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions *should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11" in size.* They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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A CALL FOR LEADERS

THE leadership of the school in a changing society issues a vital challenge to teachers. It means that the teachers must become leaders. This means teachers at every level—elementary, secondary and college. The new society which is approaching promises a new day for elementary education. Schools today are handicapped by overcrowding and overenrollment. Teachers long for the smaller class which they find essential to newer methods. This involves a larger teaching force and so higher school costs, the dismay of any school administrator. But let teachers be comforted. In a society in which education becomes the very breath of life expenditure will be forthcoming. It must be forthcoming. We must spend more and more money on education, and give it higher and higher status among us. Whereas the school administrator of a previous era struggled to set up public schools, the administrator of today must struggle for good schools, schools with a full quota of teachers which will reduce the size of our classes to twenty-five. Under such conditions the schools may become a social organism charged with the dynamic of children's lives.

Because there is an oversupply of teachers schools can demand good teachers. In a day of technological unemployment schools can have their pick. We see ahead a society in which the best of us must be in the service of education. The vast armies of the unemployed are unemployed permanently, as far as the mechanical needs of an industrialized society are concerned. . . . No longer have we the cry of not enough teachers. Today there is no end of teachers. What then shall the schools answer to the call of society to employ its young? It must say, and it will say, here is a realm in which we may employ and employ until our classes have been established in the small units which are essential, and become a basis of small group democratic living. We must employ and employ until our schools are equipped with an adequate supply of doctors and nurses and psychologists and psychiatrists and visiting teachers and specialists in all the arts of painting, music, poetry and sculpture. Only then, by nursing the social organism may we develop into a society which is fully formed and strong.

A. GORDON MELVIN

In his pamphlet, "Education for a New Era," published by The John Day Company, 1933

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The contents of High Points are indexed in The Education Index, which is on file in Libraries.

THE SEWARD PARK HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE BUREAU

Several illuminating articles on Child Guidance were published in High Points and in *The Principal* with which the Seward Park Guidance Bureau is in such complete accord that we avoid repetition by discussing mainly the Guidance Bureau at the Seward Park High School, describing its functions and adding a few illustrative cases.

Childhood development as a country-wide movement is a post-war phenomenon. It started in hospitals and clinics and worked its way to the Children's Court. The year 1922 marked the great growth of the Child Guidance movement. Then the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, supported financially by the Commonwealth Fund, organized the Institute for Child Guidance, a laboratory for training and research, having on its staff pediatricians, psychologists, social workers, statisticians, research workers and psychiatrists. This group felt, in common with others, that the school is a manageable environment for Child Guidance. By using the schools as its medium, it stimulated visiting teachers with an experimental attitude in their courses in mental hygiene.

It was during this year that Mr. Robert B. Brodie, Principal of Seward Park High School, appealed to Mrs. Sidney C. Borg of the Jewish Big Sisters, for a mental hygiene service in his junior and senior high school, and in 1925 he succeeded in his efforts. The Guidance Bureau thus became an integral part of Seward Park Junior and Senior High School, a school which was always interested in social problems and which had the guiding influence of men such as Dr. John S. Roberts, now District Superintendent of Schools; Dr. I. Edwin Goldwasser, an educator; and Dr. Leon W. Goldrich, who is now Director of the Bureau of Child Guidance, Board of Education.

At the inception of the Bureau, Mr. Brodie assembled the heads of departments, grade advisers and deans, with the Bureau staff. Mr. Brodie, whose aim is to make the school pupil-centered, outlined the school organization: teachers, administrative assistants, grade advisers, deans, the chairman of the scholarship committee, the placement and investigation secretary, and so forth. In his address to the Bureau staff, explaining the functions of each member, he emphasized that each pupil is a living organism around which is built, in addition to an educational program, an individual personal service. Then he explained to the school staff the set-up of the Bureau, a department of the Jewish Board of Guardians, supplying a Director, psy-

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chiatrist, psychologist, two psychiatric field workers, volunteers and an office staff, making the Guidance Bureau the capstone of the high school advisory system. In addition, a staff of volunteers composed of chairmen, and senior and junior members of the Board, who are engaged in active case work, was established. A number of the members have had scientific training, and the others are being trained in the office by the staff. Their duties are as follows: 1. Case work; 2. Scholarship; 3. Rehabilitation; 4. Relief. This double set-up is a unique feature of the Bureau.

By integrating the specialists of the school with the Bureau staff, Mr. Brodie outlined a plan for referrals, which in essence would be a sifting process whereby only those problems would be referred to the Director which were beyond the scope for readjustment or treatment by the staff members and where intensive study was required. Mr. Brodie further explained that the Bureau was not a panacea for all ills, that among the cases referred to the Bureau there would obviously be a number of untreatable ones. These would be referred to mental hygiene or neurological hospitals, either for coöperative or full service.

In the past seven years the teachers have had closer contact with the Bureau, have taken part in conferences with the staff, attended the biweekly seminars given by the Bureau, and taken courses in mental hygiene, a number of which were especially arranged by the Bureau to meet their specific needs. Many of the teachers now are qualified to select suitable problems for Bureau study. Mr. Brodie is at present giving a course in the Conduct of a School Guidance Clinic for teachers and specialists in the mental hygiene field.

The student is referred to the Bureau in the following manner: The dean or head of department comes to the Bureau with a written preliminary statement of the problem gathered through the grade advisers from the teachers and discusses some of the outstanding difficulties with a member of the Bureau staff. He later introduces the student to the worker who will study him. The student is asked to be seated and soon realizes that the Bureau is not a punitive organization. The worker makes him aware of her interest, but assumes a passive role in order to give him free rein in discussing his problem from his own point of view. After the child leaves, the family is cleared through the Social Service Exchange to find out whether other agencies have been interested in the family. Contacts are made with those agencies which are interested in the case. His teachers are all interviewed and appointments are made for psychological and medical examinations. The members of the family are seen individually at some time by the psychiatric field worker, who obtains the social history after several visits, some of which last many hours. At the present time, the more experienced workers are testing out unfolding histories

using no scheduled routine of questions, but permitting the families to "talk themselves out" in the present situation. In the course of time, through occasional leads from the worker, the members of the family give much of their history. In these histories we get the background of all the children in the family and the parents' early childhood, which is frequently the basis of a child's difficulties. "Parents, too, are people"—little children grown up—suffering from the handicaps of their own upbringing, their prejudices and difficulties, which react on their children. Experts in the field of human relations tell us "the entire field of parent-child relationship must be considered, as this relationship begins before birth and lasts throughout life, even after the death of the parents." The children are fundamentally what their parents have made them and keep their impress for the rest of their lives. The results are frequently mirrored in the children's behavior in the school and with their companions. Parallel behavior is almost classical in the Bureau findings.

When adequate material is obtained, it is dictated into the record and submitted to the psychiatrist, who sees the patient in an interview of about three-quarters of an hour, gives his psychiatric impressions and arranges to see the child again if intensive psychiatric treatment is indicated. Ordinarily, he gives his recommendations to the worker, who, in consultation with the psychiatrist, gives her results in therapy. The school administrators are informed in regard to the progress of the case. Coöperation is always essential.

New cases are later brought up in the discussion group of the weekly seminar, to which heads of departments, deans, teachers and liaison officers are invited, together with the staff of the Bureau, the attendance officer in the school, the Crime Prevention Bureau, and others. Here an entire case is read by the worker to whom it has been assigned, followed by active discussion and summary by the psychiatrist or director.

AUGUSTA SLESINGER,
Director of Child Guidance.
Seward Park High School.

STORIES TO ILLUSTRATE THE PLAN OF THE BUREAU

I. John's mother came to school to report about his behavior, which she considered impossible for her to handle. She was referred to the Guidance Bureau at a time when the Director was not in. The situation seemed an emergency one, and so the worker saw the mother.

Interview

The mother was given every opportunity to unburden herself, the worker interrupting her only when it was necessary to verify the facts. According to the mother's reports, John was the worst boy imaginable. He beat her, refused to obey her, and today threatened to take her life. He got into the most terrible temper outbursts, mistreated his younger brother, stayed out late at night, and would

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never help in the house. The mother was quite sure that her son intended to kill her that very day. Something of the home conditions were learned during this first interview, and the outstanding thing seemed to be that the family was suffering from dire poverty, whereas two years ago they were in comfortable enough circumstances to have a car and a maid. The worker assured the mother that the boy would be interviewed before he departed from school that day, and that if the Bureau felt that it was necessary, the boy would not be returned to the home that night. The worker promised to get in touch with the mother as soon as she had interviewed the boy.

The boy was sent for, and to all appearances, he was friendly, coöperative, and completely opposite to the mother's description of him. He was lame as a result of infantile paralysis, with which he had been afflicted at an early age. He seemed to be making the best of his handicap, however. John was asked to tell his story, and he revealed the fact that a younger brother at home, who was very mischievous and troublesome, got the mother so upset that she did not know what she was doing most of the time, and since she could not give vent to her anger by "taking it out" on the younger brother, she always looked for trouble in John. John assured the worker that he would behave himself, and that there would be no fights between him and the family until the worker could see both him and his mother again.

Social History

A social history was then taken by the worker, and the following are some of the salient facts that were obtained:

The mother came from a very poor family, and had to go to work at a very early age. She married the father when she was quite young, and at first their life together was quite a struggle. The father died of influenza at the age of twenty-seven. John was three years old at this time, and the mother made every effort to support herself and her baby. When John was five years old, the mother re-married. The step-father was fairly well off financially, and the mother was quite happy with him. About a year and a half ago, the father was induced by a maternal uncle to invest all of his money in the uncle's business, and to do this, the father gave up his job, and moved to another city to join this uncle. The business failed, and the father lost everything he had invested. Thus, from their former state of comparative wealth, this family was reduced to circumstances of real want. Just previous to this financial breakdown, another child was born. This child has been very backward in its development, has only recently learned to walk at the age of two and a half, and can hardly talk yet. This little boy has furious temper tantrums, insists upon having his own way in everything, and very easily excites the mother. It was obvious that John was having a very hard time adjusting to the new financial circumstances, and also coping with the younger brother's behavior. At this time the father was out of work, and the family had just about completely exhausted its savings.

Physical Examination

A physical examination was given to John, and when it was learned that he needed a tonsillectomy, this was arranged for and successfully carried out during the process of treatment. On several occasions since John has been known to the Bureau he has been ill, and each time he was referred to the Visiting Nurses for care. The younger brother was also examined at several hospitals because of his slow development and apparent poor health. There was some difference of opinion as to the advisability of removing this child from the home because of the possibility of his being mentally defective. However, no definite step has been taken yet on this issue.

Psychological Examination

A short time after John was referred to the Bureau, he was given a psychological examination, which showed that he had good intelligence, and that he was well fitted for the course in accountancy which he was pursuing. Arrangements were also made to give the younger brother a psychological examination, and the results of this examination indicated that the boy was not defective, but merely retarded.

Psychiatric Interview

John was seen by the psychiatrist on several occasions, during which interviews he discussed his attittude toward his parents, his younger brother, his ambition for himself, and the conflicts in his own mind. John enjoyed these discussions and seemed to benefit from them greatly. When he last saw the psychiatrist he was able to admit that things had improved a great deal, but he frankly confessed that he did lose his temper occasionally. He seemed to have a very objective manner toward his own difficulty and was therefore able to help himself to a very large extent.

Diagnosis and Interpretation

It was immediately realized that the economic situation was one of the most important factors in this case. The Bureau had to keep this constantly in mind in planning treatment for the family. The younger brother was creating a great deal of the difficulty for the family, and it was really he and not John, who needed the therapy. While the conflict between John and the mother was current, it was felt advisable to keep them separated as much as possible until the immediate home difficulties could be straightened out.

Social Worker's Contacts—in School

John's teachers, on the whole, thought he was a very fine boy. He was employed in the school lunch room for three periods, in return for which he received his lunches free. When the financial situation at home

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became so acute that John was not getting sufficient nourishment outside of school, the teacher in charge of the lunch room was appealed to, and special arrangements were made to give John his breakfast in school, and also give him some nourishment before he went home. On Fridays, he was usually given a supply of food to take home. Through the coöperation of the Social Service Department in the school, John was given a complete new outfit of clothes. Later on the financial situation in the home became so desperate that the Bureau made a special appeal to the Principal so that some support would be given to this family. The Principal, after carefully studying the case, recommended that the school appeal to the Jewish Social Service who had already refused to assist this family when they applied for help on their own initiative. This was done, and the Jewish Social Service assumed an active interest in this family until the father was able to secure a job.

Social Worker's Contacts—in the Field

A recreation club was suggested to John, which he joined. In order that John might feel a little more secure as to his financial position, he was given a job in the Bureau, running errands, and doing some typing. He was always found to be extremely helpful and coöperative in the office.

Efforts were made to get the father work, and on occasion he was given a few days' employment. One of the greatest difficulties was to try to get the parents to realize that the problem was with the younger brother, rather than with John. Although they are aware of this fact now, as a result of long and patient explanations, still they are unable to do anything about this child.

During the summer, arrangements were made to send John to camp for the entire time, so that he could be away from his family, gain strength, and form good contacts. At camp, he entered into all the activities and proved to be one of the best all-around campers. While he was at camp, he took an active interest in the boys who were also cases of the Bureau, and at the worker's suggestion he sent reports to the Bureau on these boys.

John has felt free to come to the Bureau at all times to discuss any home difficulty, and he has always been frank and very coöperative in his manner. The father is now working, which has relieved a good deal of the tension in the home.

Results

John is no longer a problem to his family. His behavior is out-going in every respect. He has made an excellent adjustment and is well liked by every one. He is one of the most coöperative youngsters that the Bureau has ever known. The case will remain open while John is in school, as it is felt that the Bureau means something to him that has a real positive value. Although there will probably be no more positive treatment, the fact that John gets a certain sense

of security from the Bureau is enough justification to keep the case open and maintain a frequent but casual contact with John. He has never felt it a stigma to be known to the Bureau, but is really very proud of his contact with it.

II. Robert was referred to the Bureau by the librarian, who had come in close contact with the boy as he spent a good deal of time in the library, reading books that had to do with the army and army life. This boy's one ambition was to go to West Point and he fell short of their requirements in every possible way. The librarian, realizing that Robert would be rejected, wanted him to have assistance in facing this issue.

Interview

A friend of Robert's, who was very much interested in him, was interviewed first by the worker. He described Robert as a very much undersized, undernourished boy who had numerous physical handicaps which would naturally prevent him from attaining his goal. He gave a general summary of the boy's life and the home environment so that the worker would have something tangible on which to base her interview with Robert.

Before the boy was interviewed, two teachers who were interested in the boy were seen, in order to ascertain their attitude and to obtain any pertinent information that they might have about the boy. It was learned from the physical training teacher that the boy had asked for assistance in order to increase his height—a requirement which he would have to fulfill in order to get into West Point. The teacher suggested the name of a doctor whom he might see concerning this. The boy's grade adviser was also interviewed, and he recalled that on a boat ride on which the school had gone, Robert had left the group and had visited West Point.

The Bureau thus knew something of Robert before he was seen. He was sent for by the worker and it was explained to him that the Bureau was particularly interested in students who wanted further schooling, and that the Bureau had learned from the librarian that he was interested in going to West Point. Naturally, Robert was suspicious of this as he had undoubtedly been questioned by many people before. The worker made every effort to encourage the boy to discuss his ambitions for West Point. It was evident from the first interview that the boy was greatly conflicted and upset because he was aware of how unobtainable his ambition was. He was very much on the defensive and rationalized each specific reason why he might not be able to enter West Point.

Social History

It was realized from the outset that in order to obtain this boy's confidence the Bureau would have to go very slowly in handling the entire situation. The home visits had to be made carefully and planned so that they would not arouse the boy's suspicions further.

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The following facts were learned and pieced together after several interviews: Robert was the youngest of five children, all of whom were born in Austria. He was one of a pair of twins, the other one dying a few weeks after birth. The parents were always very poor and lived through tragic experiences during the War in Europe.

The family came to the United States when Robert was six. Up to that time he was barely able to walk as he had a severe case of rickets. He never had any friends and stayed in the house all the time. He did very well in school when he first started, but toward the upper grades his interest began to wane. In his high school work he has failed almost continuously. He thought he would be able to make up his failures in preparatory school, as he wanted to concentrate for the immediate present on developing himself physically so that he might enter West Point.

Members of Robert's family are very religious adherents to the Hebrew faith. They have never permitted their children to work on Saturday. West Point, of course, sounded to them as a most ridiculous thing and they did everything in their power to dissuade the boy. The more they argued, the more he insisted. The family were desperate and were willing to do anything that would keep the boy from going to West Point.

Physical Examination

Robert had been going to see several doctors in order to improve his physical condition so that he might enter West Point. The Bureau immediately got in touch with these physicians in order to learn what was being done for Robert. It was ascertained that although these doctors were trying to discourage him from going to West Point, they all were trying to help him develop physically. Thus, it was felt that he was being adequately taken care of as far as his physical condition was concerned.

Psychological Examination

In order that the Bureau might guide itself as to the possible channels into which Robert's energies might be directed, arrangements were made to give him a psychological examination. The examination revealed good general intelligence plus excellent mechanical ability.

Psychiatric Interview

Robert has been seeing the psychiatrist almost weekly. His transference to the psychiatrist has been excellent. The psychiatrist has spent most of the time trying to explain to the boy, or rather getting the boy to understand, just what is at the base of his intense desire to go to West Point. A good deal has been accomplished. Robert has not given up West Point, altogether, but he is at least concerning himself with the present more than he ever did and he has a very thorough understanding of just why he wants to go to West Point. He will continue to see the psychiatrist.

Diagnosis and Interpretation

Robert was disturbed emotionally. It was realized that West Point was his solution for all of his problems and conflicts. He felt inferior in every way in comparison to members of his own family and his associates outside of the home. He had created a fantasy for himself in which he saw himself as a perfect individual in regard to health, build, education and position. In this way he was able to escape reality.

Social Worker's Contact

The worker's first job was to get Robert to feel that the Bureau was in no way critical of his desire to go to West Point. This was not accomplished until after several weeks had passed. At the close of school in the spring, the Bureau was able to get Robert a temporary job. He left home and went to live first in a boys' club and later with the dentist who was treating his teeth. The dentist was intensely interested in Robert and was doing all the dental work free. Robert lost his job at the end of the summer, as it was only a temporary position.

The Bureau's next step was to find for Robert a satisfying substitute for high school to help him give up his fantasy of wanting to go to West Point. Efforts to get him another job proved futile. Although Robert had refused any suggestion connected with radio work—a thing which he was well up on—he was finally persuaded, after the Bureau had arranged for a scholarship, to attend the Y. M. C. A. radio school. The principal at this school is intensely interested in the case and is hoping that he can divert Robert's interest in military things to naval radio operation.

Robert is working on a newspaper, writing a radio column. He is not being paid for this at the present time, but is in hopes of getting some remuneration in the future. Since he is attending radio school at night, he hopes to get some paying job during the day. It has been necessary for Robert to return to the home because he cannot support himself outside, but it is felt that he will return to his family with a more adult attitude toward them.

Results

This case is still active with the Bureau and our contact will continue. It is felt that Robert is much improved, but there is still more to be done and the Bureau is in hopes that it can help Robert to face reality.

HILDA LEVY,
Psychiatric Social Worker.

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GUIDANCE AS A DYNAMIC PHASE OF HIGH SCHOOL LIFE*

If David had come to you with his engaging smile to say that now that he had "seen life" he was going to settle down to the business of a high school education, you would have found out after a little while, just as we did, that David had it in him to sway the multitude of high school students, and that his powers of leadership were considerably enhanced by the ten days he had spent in jail. There are, I venture to say, very few teachers or administrators in the forty-two high schools of New York City who would not have worked, as we did, to get the confidence of not only David but his first lieutenants; and to swing their admirations and loyalties away from lurid experiences and the gang to valid adventure and the school. With the result that, instead of plotting to get into jail for the Christmas holidays, they are going to get their excitement from a series of interviews with big business men and news reporters.

And if Sadie's mother had groaned aloud at your desk over Sadie's spells of depression at home and chronic failure in high school, you would have discovered, too, that Sadie had a problem mother and that only good prospects of marriage for poor, pudgy, cross-eyed Sadie could do away with that mother's groans. You would have done the thing that common sense and understanding—or mental hygiene—dictated. Sadie's mother is slowly yielding to reeducation; ever so slowly, alas, for her old-world standards and attitudes on this subject of female destiny are deeply ingrained. She is becoming reconciled to Sadie's ambition to become a milliner instead of a wife at the age of sixteen. And Sadie is allowed to sit contentedly at home sewing away at her hats while her pretty sister goes to dances and the movies with one of several "boy friends."

And again, if Catherine had had what purported to be an epileptic seizure on three different occasions in your office, and if you had noticed that on each one of these occasions the "seizure" conveniently interrupted the performance of some duty especially painful to Catherine, you would have bent your efforts, too, to helping her develop a more courageous attitude toward her problems.

For every story of the effective handling of a student problem that I might tell you, experienced teachers here could tell a dozen stories illustrating the same points and indicating the same, if not greater, success. In other words, Guidance in the high schools of New York City is nothing new. Wherever a teacher has salvaged the best in a student and has inspired wholesome attitudes and habits and loyalties and better choices—and the number of such teachers is legion—there has been Guidance. Wherever a teacher of Civics has assisted in that creation of rich personality which the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association tells us is the supreme purpose in civic instruction; wherever a teacher of Spanish or French or German has created appreciation of, and therefore spiritual kinship with, other nations; wherever in a Mathematics class the imagination that builds bridges and airplanes, and tunnels, rivers and mountains, has been born—there has been Guidance.

And because of this realization by many teachers that Guidance has to some extent been an integral and essential part of all teaching of adolescent youth, this newest addition to our pedagogical vocabulary—*Guidance*—is an irritant as well as a stimulant. Misunderstanding arises out of the failure to recognize the manifold character of the Guidance function in the high school, and the ensuing necessity for organization.

Guidance is concerned, it is true, with helping students with every conceivable problem that they fall heir to—David's, Sadie's, Catherine's, and those of hosts of others. These problems may be predominantly vocational or educational, moral, social, emotional, or recreational, although such artificial divisions of Guidance, I think, serve little practical purpose, and if unwisely administered produce the very dualisms and conflicts that a Guidance Office exists to fuse. Such is the seamlessness (I coin this word out of the opening sentence of Professor Beard's "Charter for the Social Sciences") of human personality that it is not easy to draw the line at the place where the educational problem ends and the vocational begins. If, applying President Eliot's advice to the high school level, we give prominence to the life-career motive, as we should, these two types of Guidance are bound to overlap. William, pale little chap with heavily-ringed eyes, who comes to the Guidance Officer after an assembly talk on the choice of a vocation to ask how he may become a criminologist, merely grazes the surface of his real question, which is how to be able to continue his education in spite of a very bad home situation and ill health.

The Guidance Office is a laboratory for the complete understanding of the boy and girl. It is forced, naturally, to work to some extent with the pathological aspects of personality. But it is poor Guidance, indeed, that is content with stopping up the chinks in the walls, with forever picking off the bad apples. As a matter of fact, the chief significance of Guidance in a high school does not lie in its power to cure misconduct. There is no such power. And Guidance is not to be identified with discipline. Wonders are here and there accomplished in hardened cases by the methods and facilities of the Guidance Office, but they are the exception rather than the rule. Such cases demand the more specialized and exhaustive care of the

* An address delivered before the High School Teachers Association of New York City, December 10, 1932.

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mental hygiene clinic with ... of social case workers and psychiatrist. Guidance in the high school usually functions, in these cases, to reveal new possibilities of adjustment within the reach of the individual.

Just now, with life incredibly complex, with family relationships changing, with the "economic world breaking from its moorings," with uncertainty at every turn of the road, Guidance is a peculiarly indispensable function of the high school. There is need for the conscious concentration of all the resources of the school—curricular, extra-curricular, faculty personnel, student personnel—so that they may be made available to students for the planning of their lives today and tomorrow, inside and outside of the school building. The problem is one in human engineering. It requires organization for which administration must provide.

If this guiding of high school boys and girls is to be more than an amateurish procedure; if it is to develop techniques; if it is to be available to all students (not just those who happen to have the good fortune to come by it through the good offices of a teacher equipped with unusual insights and training), responsibility for it must be centered in professional counselors.

Professor Brewer tells us in his scholarly and understanding new book, "Education As Guidance," that although the planned interview, and the case study, and vocational placement are well worked out, there remain to be developed the great ma-

... Guidance techniques. The trained counselor must have for ... equipment existing techniques. But she must also have the time as well as the professional interest to push back the frontiers of knowledge regarding occupational information, group conferences, personality ratings, and guidance criteria, among other things.

Yet, with all the various services, goals, fields of interest, and specific influences that a Guidance program sets up, it cannot make good its claim to existence as a separate high school agency unless it furnishes consciousness of the interrelatedness of all the forms of Guidance as they apply to individuals. The insistent need of the student in the large school today, as of the citizens in a complex community life, is for balance among all its activities. And therefore the pulling into focus, for each one, of activities at home and in school, and wherever else they may be found, is the essential and distinctive guidance fuction.

The school does not go far enough when it excuses Benjamin, a cardiac, from physical training, but allows him to carry an extra major or run up and down stairs as a member of the traffic squad. It is guilty of lack of coördination when Ethel is given financial relief by one department of the school in order to ease the strain of her heavy home responsibilities, and at the same time is required by another department to attend the "afternoon session" which infinitely increases those responsibilities for her. The activities of

high school, by virtue of their volume and the size of the student body, require coördination and interpretation for individual students. If Guidance is a laboratory for the complete understanding of students, it is, as a corollary, the agency which must do its big share towards this coödination, towards this integration of interests.

We high school people are talking much nowadays about life situations in the school, and about the importance of training for habits, attitudes, and abilities that function in the lives of students, as distinguished from the mere acquisition of book knowledge for its own sake. I am far from placing responsibility for bringing about this happy state of high school education upon a few counselors when I say that a Guidance Department can be an invaluable aid to its consummation. But certainly it would seem that a properly-functioning Guidance Department is in a position to gather up a majority of the facts and points of view related to a problem, and to present them to students and teachers for their interpretation and decision.

The position of the counselor is strategic for work of this kind. She is, let it be remembered, a guide. She does not rely upon authority. She pools information, suggests possible lines of action, interprets their significance for individuals, but places responsibility for decisions squarely where they belong—upon the students themselves—thus providing life situations which are the setting for training in habits and attitudes that will determine choices forever after.

Needless to say, a guidance program is incapable of complete effectiveness unless it stimulates the participation of every member of the faculty. It may struggle to champion the students as individuals; it may call in the aid of specialists in all conceivable fields; may make less haphazard the student's chances of getting personal attention; may provide a place where problems may be freely discussed; and may even accomplish the all-important task of integration of activities. But unless it creates understanding of its aims, sympathy with them, and participation in them, by the teachers of the school, so that there is unity of purpose for the student concerned—Guidance may become but another appendage to an already-too-departmentalized system. Whether Guidance becomes a dynamo in the life of the high school depends not so much upon what the counselor does *for* and says *to* William and Benjamin and Sadie and Catherine, as upon the realizations it effects among administrators and teachers, athletic coaches and club directors, mothers and fathers, of what ought to be done and can be done *with* them. Perhaps its chief task, therefore, is to spread abroad its philosophy of success—though not in the ordinary materialistic sense of that word—to spread abroad its purpose of integration of personalities, of programs, of activities; to make better known its techniques. Will it thereby be working itself out of ex-

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istence? Eventually, perhaps; not so soon that we need abate our efforts, I am sure. But then it will have accomplished its purpose, it will have made Guidance synonymous with teaching in that the teaching process will be Guidance; it will, in a word, have become a dynamic phase of high school life. How to accomplish this end is my immediate problem at Samuel J. Tilden High School.

ELSA G. BECKER,
In Charge of Guidance.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

WHAT TO DO WITH THE GIFTED CHILD IN SECRETARIAL STUDIES *

ABOUT a year ago I was appointed a member of the Committee of the Association of First Assistants in Secretarial Work to make a study of the opportunities for the bright child. I have centered my own thoughts on the problem and enjoyed the privilege of discussing it with my colleagues. We found that we had little precedent to guide us in our studies, and that giving special attention to the bright child might be considered a new phase of our work. We realized that, although the number of superior or exceptional children in the high schools is limited to a few, it is our duty to give those pupils every possible opportunity to make use of their special aptitudes and special talents.

The Committee of the Association of First Assistants in Secretarial Work set out to discover what provisions were being made in the schools at present, and secondly, to outline suggestions for the future care of gifted pupils.

In order to accomplish the first aim, the Committee sent out a questionnaire to all the high schools of the city, asking that the chairmen of the various high schools answer questions bearing on the subject. The answers to the questionnaire were somewhat meager and too varied to reach any definite conclusions. The Committee then considered the second aim of the investigations, namely, the recommendation of suggestions for the care and consideration of the gifted student in the future. As a starting point, superior students were divided into two groups; first, the very superior children, of whom there are very few in the entire city, and secondly, a type of superior student of whom there will be a group in practically every high school. Qualifications were set for both groups. It was suggested that one comparatively small class be organized for the very superior students of the entire city, meeting in some centrally located school, and that these students be given a special course of study, consisting of general cultural subjects, excluding all commercial subjects except law, shorthand or accounting, and typewriting. It is understood that this student will be prepared to enter college. It was suggested that the superior child be provided for in the home school; that he be given an enriched course of study, consisting of dictation material on literary work, legal work, and the more difficult types of business letters. General business processes and procedures should be considered. These pupils are expected to be leaders in the secretarial field. Those of you who are interested in a further study of the findings of the Committee are referred to their report.

Although a definite plan for the care of the gifted child has not yet been formulated, many of the suggestions made by the Committee are in operation in our Secretarial department at the James Monroe High School.

1. *Enrichment of Course of Study.* In our attempts to enrich the course of study, teachers are directed to discover superior or gifted students. We endeavor to give the gifted student an enriched course of study. This does not mean that he is permitted to double up or to enter accelerated classes. By an enriched course of study, I mean that a student is required to do more work than can be done in the regular course by the normal or average student, either in or out of the classroom. This extra work must be turned out satisfactorily. This assignment of special work requires ingenuity and initiative, compelling him to exercise his special abilities. It consists of problems which are more difficult, more complicated, and more involved, demanding earnest, conscientious, and painstaking study.

The dictation in the stenography classes is graded as to the length of the "take," difficulty of matter, and rate of speed. These factors are considered from the standpoint of the average pupils in the class. The exceptional student is required to take more difficult dictation at a faster rate of speed, and in longer stretches. In the more advanced classes, the exceptional student is required to make use of his shorthand by reporting assemblies, radio speeches, and the like. He is also expected to demonstrate secretarial ability by doing practical things, such as reporting lectures and assembly talks, transcribing instructor's notes on departmental or school conferences. Some of these students are expected to cut shorthand stencils for our shorthand publication, the *Monroe Gregg Journal*. They are urged to try for the Order of Gregg Artists, based upon accurate and artistic shorthand. The work of the bright students is displayed on departmental bulletins, classroom bulletins, in exhibitions at teachers' conventions and association meetings. This work is often very attractive and interesting, displaying unusual creative and artistic ability.

2. *Pupil Assistants to Teachers or Pupil Leaders.* The gifted students act as class leaders, sharing the responsibilities with the teacher in the

* Presented at a meeting of First Assistants in Secretarial Studies and Accounting on December 3, 1932.

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administration of the class and the conduct of the recitation. They are free to use their initiative in taking care of the class at the beginning of the period, sending pupils to the blackboard, checking the blackboard work, giving brief slip tests, and so forth. They serve as model secretaries or leaders, handling such routine matters as passing papers, distributing and collecting text-books, taking care of ventilation, and checking the homework. Their own work serves as a model in style of writing shorthand outlines, general accuracy, quality of work on the blackboard, and in the excellence of their recitations.

3. *Pupil Tutors.* The bright or gifted students are asked to assist the slow or average student who experiences difficulty. This assistance is given either during school hours, after school hours, at home, or during the classroom period when circumstances permit. By so doing, they themselves develop greater efficiency and thoroughness in the mastery of subject matter, greater self-confidence, and individual initiative.

4. *Reference and Supplementary Text-Book Work.* These exceptional students are required to use supplementary texts. The instructors give them special or individual instruction or explanation to guide them in this work. This extra work requires additional time and thought. Pupils are required to make use of their library reference reading and make a summary of their notes. They are required to read supplementary texts, magazines, library books, and pamphlets. Reports on these readings are neatly arranged in typewritten form.

5. *Contests.* Exceptional students enter the annual radio shorthand contests and annual City Gregg Shorthand contests. Inter-class contests conducted semi-annually bring to light our exceptional students. They serve as a stimulus to the students to put forth their best efforts. These pupils also enjoy the winning of the sixty, eighty, one hundred, or one hundred twenty word-a-minute Gregg Writer Transcription Tests.

6. *Secretarial Practice.* In the secretarial classes, the students are expected to make extended readings on special topics. They are also assigned to departmental offices where they have an opportunity to work in a natural setting. The theory work of the classroom in this manner is more deeply ingrained by practical application. Students are assigned to observe the work of the telephone switchboard in the general office. Those who show special ability are permitted to operate the switchboard, if they desire to do so. Occasionally, bright pupils are called upon to demonstrate the operation of various office machines.

Furthermore, these exceptional students do extra work in their free periods for teachers and special faculty advisers in charge of various activities, such as the school publications, the store, and the General Organization.

7. *Clubs.* Special groups of bright students get together after school hours to get practice dictation under a faculty adviser to enable them to take dictation at higher speeds on more difficult matter than is required in the regular course of study.

I have thus briefly outlined the various ways in which we are giving special thought and consideration to the bright student at the James Monroe High School, even though no definite plan of procedure has been adopted. Perhaps a study of similar procedures in other high schools may serve as a basis for the crystallization of an effective course of study, making special provision for the development of the gifted child.

EDWARD M. KANZER,
Chairman of the Committee.

James Monroe High School.

THE PROJECT METHOD AND MATHEMATICS

It has been remarked, with some justification, that the field of education is a breeding place of queer, whimsical fads and fancies. Various notions and ideas spring from its fertile soil to enjoy a brief period of reputation and popularity only to fade away eventually in the abyss of oblivion.

Few subjects of discourse in the field of method have precipitated as much discussion as has the project method and it is therefore inevitable that in so vast a literature as has been developed there will be found a considerable number of untenable theories.

Many weird pedagogical and psychological arguments have been advanced in support of what was supposed to be project teaching, while vain attempts to formulate projects have resulted in peculiar types and forms. Teachers have become bewildered and puzzled. What is meant by the project method? Is it a new method of teaching or is it a new fangled idea in curriculum construction?

These are the questions which have caused confusion to reign among the teachers.

In order to acquire a clearer conception of the whole problem, let us make a brief cursory examination of the historical background.

With the advent of 1900 we saw the beginning of the "New Education," the "New Philosophy," with John Dewey as the predominant figure in the movement. The words "self-expression," "self-realization," "initiative," and others, began to take on added meanings vital to the educative process of our youth, and became common talk in our enormously increasing literature. Virtually, it was the inception of modern teaching New ideas in pupil activity, pupil abilities, motivation, curricula making, and the like were received and accepted with unbounding enthusiasm Out of these new changes in ideas rose the Hydra-headed term "project."

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As far as I can ascertain, Richards was the first man to use the word. In his capacity as the Head of the Manual Training Department at Teachers College it was only natural that he could see only the manual or physical side of education. He used the word "project" in reference to the constructive abilities of pupils, so that they were given an opportunity to plan, to express themselves, to do problem solving thinking.

Immediately other fields borrowed the term to lay stress and emphasis on pupil thinking in construction.

In 1908, the Massachusetts State Board used the term "home project" to designate a pupil-planned practical enterprise carried out to completion at home, as for example, raising an acre of corn; and later the Federal Board for Vocational Education used it in reference to home projects in agriculture. The whole idea, however, remained quiescent until 1918, when the term again sprang into prominence and demanded widespread attention.

It is important to note that up to 1918 the prevailing conception of a project was a practical activity by which evident, concrete results were to be obtained by means of activity which involved the planning, devising, and carrying to completion of a practical problem.

In 1918, Kilpatrick's definition ventured a new note, a departure from the generally accepted conception. He said a project was "a unit of whole-hearted purposeful activity."

Personally, I do not like the word "purposeful." I believe that all human actions, good, bad, or indifferent, can be traced to some purpose.

Again, from this standpoint, the term seems to me to be almost identical with the doctrine of interest. Any class problem, be it a topic, drill, exercise, or application, becomes a project as soon as it is "whole-heartedly" motivated. By this definition how can we recognize an activity as a project unless we observe each individual to see whether he has maintained the "whole-heartedness" throughout the whole gamut of the procedure? The pupil who is wholeheartedly uninterested in the activity is not working on a project. Thus an activity might be a project today and cease to be one tomorrow for any particular individual.

From 1918 on the arguments raged back and forth. Printing presses were kept busy publishing volume after volume supporting or attacking the issue. In 1921, Charters launched a new definition. He said: "A project is a problematic act carried to completion in a natural setting." This was a step forward and put the emphasis on the pupil initiative in the procedure. The project had to emanate from the pupil. That was the natural setting.

McMurray objected to this strenuously and claimed that the term project has no concern with the natural setting, but has reference to the organization of the subject matter. He identifies project with "central teaching units," and says that these units should be organized to conform to every-day life situations which are not always practical. His purpose is to learn something, not to do something.

Thus we have the conflicting theories, which involves a confusion between motivation and curricula making. Is it any wonder that even teachers are confused? We are deluged with pamphlets, brochures, magazines and books, a large percentage of the contents of which consist of contradicatory theories advanced without due regard to scientific testing or experimentation.

Our primary interest is in mathematics and we are concerned as to whether the "project method" can help us in obtaining our objectives in mathematics teaching. Using Charter's definition as the one now generally accepted, I am of the opinion that it cannot help us because

1. I have never seen a project in mathematics sponsored by a pupil. A few tell me they have, but these occasions are few and far between. Without the natural setting there is no project. If the desire or purpose does not emanate from the pupil, then there is no project, but a splendid example of motivation. Then again, how many students will give rise to a project that will be a project to the other thirty-four?

   The life experience of the pupil is too limited and in my opinion the spontaneous, erratic and individual interests of children are not desirable substitutes for tested life experiences.

2. In high school at least, I believe, that the time and effort expended to marshall the necessary facts for any project of the pupil, may be out of proportion to the educational value of the objectives attained.

3. It breaks up the learning process, continuity and organization of subject matter. Unsystematic development tends to decrease the logical and clear conception of the subject matter treated and the values and attitudes accompanying the learning process of the same.

4. It is claimed that by organizing learning into projects, the school approximates life and the methods of life. I doubt this very much, because there is more routine in life than is usually considered. In this age of specialization all of us have routine work to do and a large part of the work of executives consists of routine manipulation. Skills are required in these activities. The project method gives no place for drill in manipulative technic or on essential skills and associations.

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For these reasons I believe that we in the mathematics classroom can do little with the project method.

However, Morrison's recent elaboration of McMurray's work on "central units" gives every promise of becoming a "real" idea, but should weather the test of extensive experimentation and testing before acknowledgement.

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A PRELIMINARY REPORT ON AN EXPERIMENT IN REMEDIAL READING

REMEDIAL reading in the high school may seem unusual, but it is here to stay, if we are to justify our ways to the children we are supposed to be training for the present and the future. Certainly a program of remedial reading for comprehension will be necessary in the high school as long as the elementary school is forced to over-accelerate the progress of its pupils to make way for new hordes.

In our own school we have attempted to combine such work with the regular English program specified for Term II. At present our statistical data proving the measurable results of our work are not yet available, nor are we ready to do more than adumbrate our plans and devices. We have, however, already been able to gather a few salient facts in which we feel our colleagues will be interested.

Our original purpose was two-fold. First, we were not at all sure that we could give remedial work in reading without such special training and effort as might not be justified in the results. Secondly, we had no desire to displace any of the regular English work. Therefore, it was our job to find out if any or all of our teachers, without specialized training, could give corrective work in reading in the regular course of events, without special dispensations with regard to the rest of the English program.

The general outline of the experiment was simple. We were to test our chosen class with the Sigma form of the Haggerty Reading Test, Form B, at the same time testing another group which was to receive no special attention in reading. Then the teacher was to arrange the program for the class as best she could, preparing them for the same examinations the other classes in Term II were to take. During the term, the effect of the time taken out for the extra work on the class progress in English was to be checked crudely by the class standing in the uniform mid-term examination. The whole plan seemed simple and compact.

As nearly as I have been able to make it out, the underlying cause of the inability of our children to comprehend while they read springs from an over-acceleration in the elementary grades. Specifically, I have found among my own children a carelessness in looking at the letters of words, so that words somewhat similar were confused; a skipping of words and phrases in reading sentences, so that the meaning was distorted or lost; and a tendency to telescope sentences in paragraphs so that the meanings were hopelessly confused; all this, as well as the ubiquitous paucity of vocabulary.

To remedy the first defect, I have found it helpful to direct the attention of the student to a careful study of words. Checking lists of words in which identical pairs were mixed with pairs that differed slightly was a device helpful in establishing the habit of careful observation. Likewise, exercises involving the syllabication of unfamiliar words and drill in the use of the dictionary have lessened the tendency to telescope words. With this, I have found a slight improvement in spelling.

As for the students who skip words and phrases, I found it necessary to demand that they read for a time with a finger pointing to each word. After the habit of looking at words had become established, I asked them to read each sentence with a finger at the capital letter which began it and a finger placed at the period which ended it. When one sentence was thus read and the complete thought realized, I permitted them to go on to the next. This of course, served merely as a temporary device. After that, I let them read for practice paragraphs of informational material on which, subsequently, they had to answer questions. Incidentally, I found they had been learning to read the questions carefully as well as the material in the paragraph.

As for the vocabulary, I have found my little ones needed very little motivation for broadening their reading vocabulary. Lists of words taken from the various tests on reading and from the Inglis vocabulary test furnished my material. The children seemed to find it good fun to see how many words they knew and they seemed eager to see how quickly they could learn the meanings of words they did not know. The procedure ran somewhat like this. First a list was given out in which the words were used in sentences. Under the sentences were four meanings to choose from, thus:

The sky was *azure*.

Clear blue—gray and stormy—bright—flushed.

The children tried their hands at guessing the meanings. Then they were told the meanings. Thirdly, they chose the correct meaning for each word from the list of choices dictated. Fourthly, they wrote from memory the original word which corresponded to the dictated meanings, thus:

Clear blue—*azure*.

All the lists given were based on Thorndike's Word Book. I had to accept that as my final authority on the importance of the words in the children's vocabularies. I have also

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taken occasion during these periods devoted to word study to point out ways of breaking words into their component parts so that guessing at the meaning in a context would be not so much guessing as deducing. Approximately fifteen words could be so handled in one period.

I have found in my children an improvement in comprehension, but how much is due to my help and how much to the incentives offered by the standardized checks and progress charts I do not know. Such standardized material as I have had available has been invaluable in convincing the children of their deficiency and in inspiring them to improve. I have used the Thorndike-McCall reading tests for checking up, the McCall-Crabbe Test Lessons in Reading for practice with progress checking, and some paragraphs of my own for purposes of illustration. The Thorndike Tests of Word Knowledge have been helpful in isolating those having poor vocabularies from those merely careless in application.

I have found it further helpful to point out to the pupils the difference between the topic sentence of a paragraph and what we have called the "helping" sentences. It is sometimes useful, also, to point out the relation between the title of a selection and the topic sentences in it. As soon as we shall have conquered our lamentable tendency to grow absent-minded about the exact meanings of simple words, I hope to institute a very elementary type of outlining and note-taking to make apparent what a logical development of thought means.

My conclusions? I have had to conclude that proper spacing of matter on the printed page encourages careful reading about as much as anything else. Next in importance come the charts for checking progress. These engender something as near "the will to perfection" as I have seen among students. They foster a desire to outdo one's own previous record instead of somebody else's. All this seems to bring a concomitant honesty about mistakes that is encouraging.

To sum up, there is, first, the need to convince students that improvement is desirable; then comes the need to convince them that it is possible. With exercises and charts in their hands, and with a very little help, and a great deal of encouragement, they will do the rest.

RUTH E. SCHUCHOWSKY.

Morris High School.

MUSIC IN ITALY*

MUSIC in its expressive capacity transcends literature and other arts in revealing the innermost feeling and emotions of a people. If our task to teach the language and literature of a nation in our ultimate aim of gaining an insight into its inner character is to be made easier, we cannot omit from our program an attempt to gain a general appreciation of the music of that nation. I cannot conceive the possibility of a full understanding of a people's psychology without a fair appreciation of their music, the vehicle which leads us straight to their innermost feelings. This is especially true in the case of Italy because I know of no other nation that has done so much for the progress of music.

When we trace the development of music from its origin up to the Nineteenth Century, we cannot fail to see a very close parallel between Italian and world music. From the early efforts of the Greek and Roman musicians in Italy and then through the Middle Ages and modern times, Italy has been the greatest pioneer in every musical movement of importance. We may safely assert that every form of musical composition from the religious Gregorian Chant to the madrigal and later to the symphonic type was invented by the Italians. The greatest centers of world music, and sometimes the only ones, have been in Rome, in Venice, in Naples and in Milan.

Though the early periods of Greco-Roman and Mediaval music cannot properly be called Italian because of their lack of any defined national characteristics, whatever progress was made during these two eras must be attributed to Italy. For any culture developed within the peninsula, whatever its period, rightfully belongs to the Italian people, representing, as it does, their early heritage.

The only type of music prior to the Renaissance, to have any real importance, is the sacred Gregorian chant. The church during the Middle Ages was the only institution of stability, and as such, it was the only agency of progress, the only patron of every form of art. Music received serious attention because it was found of great help to the delivery of rituals which were felt to require, like the early Greek and Roman poetry, the help of a musical tone. As that early type of music was only used as the embodiment of poetry, the Gregorian chant, now written for the delivery of the sacred rituals, showed a desire to find a real tonal embodiment for the successful fusion of words and thought. Following, therefore, the religious spirit of the lithurgical works, music was stripped of all its pagan trappings. It remained without rhy-

* This is one of a series of articles on club work and music prepared for the use of modern language teachers. The final article, one on Activities of the Italian Club, will appear in a future issue.

—EDITOR.

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thm or any instrumental accompaniment. The former was not desired because of its sensuous character; nor the latter because of its association with pagan sensuality. Thus we have the spiritualization of music in its steady flow of pure melody which announces the works of Palestrina, Cherubini and later of Bellini, and the establishment of a tradition of melody which represents the main heritage of Italian music.

During this period leading to the early movement of the Renaissance which took place in Italy towards the beginning of the Thirteenth Century, there were important innovations which brought music closer to the people outside of the church. First we had the introduction of the hexachord system which represented the first form of solmization; and then musical notation and the four-line staff by Guido D'Arezzo, which gave us a definite idiom of music.

From the Thirteenth to the Sixteenth Century music remained in a period of transition during which it received a strong impetus with the increased desire of learning which pervaded the whole Renaissance movement. Music showed a marked tendency to step out of the narrow confines of the church into the hands of the masses whose crude but spontaneous creation kept it ever young and fresh. In secular hands, therefore, it was but natural that those very elements that the church had discouraged in her effort to keep music in its religious purity, compatible with the spirit of the church, should now form the basic motive of popular mus Rhythm, measured length of note part-singing, and instrumental accom paniment were introduced.

It is hard to estimate the importanc of the introduction of these new el ments in terms of musical progres For the first two are responsible fo what we call now "tempo"; the thir evolves into counter-point; and th fourth into instrumental polyphony as the desire for new effects grow Music now has the equipment nece sary to launch itself into its independ ent and glorious career.

The church, however, alive to th growing importance of music in the lives of the masses, in its pragmatic policy adopted it with all its new trap pings as a means of attraction for th alienated crowds which were now drawn out of the church by new and more interesting forms of diversion Yet its influence has been always sal tary in that it has kept music from ever falling into the hands of vulgar channels. We must add that the con stant struggle between the church and the profane element for the absolute possession of music has had the bene ficial effect of keeping music sailing a middle course both away from the sterilizing influence of the church and the vulgar channels of the masses.

It is now during the Sixteenth Cen tury that music achieves complete in dependence from the early supremacy of literature. In an age of experi mentation, of feverish activities in th search for new things, and new effects in art, music comes into its own and later forges ahead of literature, the reversing its position from the role of a hand-maid to that of a mistress. In this transformation music was helped by a new phenomenon which took place in the literature of Italy during that period. The beginning of the Sixteenth Century found Italian letters, after a glorious and golden era unparalled in the history of literature, in a period of transition. Its content being exhausted, it was now laboring under a perverted sense of art which sought originality and beauty in purely artificial and supernatural effects. Such a type of literature, devoid of sincerity of expression or real human content, was but an exercise in euphony, a series of melodic lines carrying no real message. It was but a step for music to enslave it and make use of it in its whimsical and tantalizing forms. Free from imitative patterns, music was just the art to offer unbound opportunities to those artists thirsty for spectacular and supernatural effects; for the opera later quenched that thirst with its pagentry and impressionistic form.

Although the Sixteenth Century cannot truly be considered a period of great musical progress, we are indebted to it for the first real pioneer work in music. As such, it is responsible for the development of both vocal and instrumental polyphony and counter-point; the introduction of harmonic structure and the "solo" work with all its harmonic implications which resulted in the popularization of music. For more tangible results, however, we are to wait until the next century.

The only two centers of music now existing in Europe are both in Italy: one in Rome, the other in Venice. These two centers represent the two opposing influences in the early history of musical progress; for Rome, identified with the Papal court, the Sistine Chapel, throws emphasis on ecclesiastic music without, however, entirely neglecting the secular type. Venice, on the other hand, not bound by religious traditions, stresses the secular type and its music is, therefore, more sensuous, more vivacious, and more impressionistic than that of Rome.

PIER LUIGI PALESTRINA (1526-1594)

Giovanni Pier Luigi, as a member of the Roman School, stands out as the greatest of all musicians of his time and one of the greatest of all times. He is the first composer to show the boundless possibilities of polyphony, which he brought to a state of perfection truly modern. This fact established him as the dictator of musical style, for his methods were then considered the acme of musical art. Even today, the Roman Church still accepts his beautiful style.

His music, aside from its technical progress, achieves startling effects without losing the religious sublimity required by the solemn text. His ideality of conception, together with the extreme sincerity of expression, marks his art as being truly classical, one whose beauty will never be tarnished by the evolutive process of time.

Within the Venetian school, however, not bound with the demands

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and limitations of the church, there was a strong desire for innovations and a search for sensational effects, especially in the secular type of music. It is this tendency that is responsible for much progress and many inventions of musical forms, such as the "villanella," the "frottola" and the most important of all, the madrigal.

I said the most important of all because the invention of the madrigal marks a turning point towards the general advancement of music and its ultimate emancipation from the literary text. As a part-song it represents a new development of counter-pointal music; as a popular melodic outburst, it is directly responsible for other forms of vocal music, including dramatic monodies and arias, thus revealing the possibilities of melody where the Italians have been and still are the leaders. Its influence throughout Europe was very great, for it gave a strong impetus to secular music, raising it to artistic dignity, and thus opening new fields outside of the narrow confines of the Church.

Indirectly, the madrigal is also responsible for the invention of the opera. Alive to its dramatic possibilities, a group of "dilettanti litterati," led by Giovanni Bardi of Florence, in an effort to bring Italian drama back to the pristine form of the ancient Greek drama, conducted a series of experiments in dramatic expression using some kind of musical declamation which resulted in the invention of the "morodies" and later in the first presentation of the opera.

Properly speaking, however, the origin of the opera and the oratorio may be traced back to the dramatic practices of the Middle Ages instituted and sustained by the Church. The Mass, the re-enactment of the life of Christ, the mysteries, the miracle plays, were all designed to give instructions and edification to the ignorant masses. These religious activities, however, always tending to pass into secular diversions, were the precursors of the drama in the various vernaculars. The idea of the opera and the ortatorio began when it was perceived that the vehicle of impression might be musical throughout and when appropriate musical styles were devised. The invention of the monodies, representing, as it does, the first attempt to combine dramatic with musical expression led, therefore, to the presentation of the first opera "Dafne" and later to the first oratorio.

Claude Monteverdi (1561-1643)

And yet it was only with the advent of Monteverdi of Venice, one of the greatest formative genius of musical history, that the opera as an important musical form was firmly established. As the author of many operas, he is responsible for the introduction of recitative, sustained melodies, polyphonic instrumental music, and solos. With all these new elements the success of the opera was so great that it led to the establishment of many Opera Houses in many Italian cities and later throughout Europe.

The great work of Monteverdi was continued by two other important composers. Both of them introduced

important innovations. Francesco Cavalli introduced the "aria" in the opera, thus giving lyrical expression to its characters; Marc' Antonio Cesti, the comic element. Later Cavalli transferred to it the elements of the "cantata," which gave power to the social element towards its vocalization possibilities, which had first been introduced into the oratorio by Carissimi.

With this, the opera was brought to the first mile-stone of progress, and music in general was advanced to the role of an important and independent art of limitless possibilities; for the opera, on account of its manifold character, has been determinative of all musical progress. Advancement took place in all the branches of melody with all their vocal implications, such as the "arias," the solos, and the consequent school of singing known as the "Bel Canto," which reached the height of all possible development in that century, constituting, as it does, one of the major glories of Italian music. Also orchestral music and the necessary instrumental developments which resulted in the evolution of the violin, the piano and other instruments, were brought to a high state of perfection, preparing thus the way for pure instrumental music, which formed the basis of symphonic compositions and which later, at the hands of the German masters, reached a high state of artistic development.

The Italians, however, have ever excelled in the melodic type of music. For the Italians, endowed with an eminently artistic temperament, quickly respond to exterior or internal stimuli which cause within them an inner reaction, dynamic in character, which demands outlet. In the process of exteriorization, his feelings take the shape of clear images which present all his inner feelings without any restraint, in a simple but forceful manner. Hence his predilection for vocal and melodic music which expresses more distinctly his inner life.

In this style of music the Italian has shown great geniality; for melody represents both the idea, which is pure content, and the invention, which acquires great imagination. Harmony and orchestration, however important they may be, play only auxiliary roles, for they only serve to dress the form and give color to the idea.

Corollary to their ability for melodic inventions, the Italians have excelled in the field of vocal culture. No method, as yet, other than the traditional Italian of simple, free, spontaneous, pure vocal emission, has enjoyed any success of note. And here again, they have been helped by the character of their language. Free from any guttural, throaty sounds, possessing clear and open-throated vowels, it lends itself to the most exacting demands of vocal virtuosity. I know of no other language which would prove adequate in the virtuoso, warbling passages of a Rossinian opera. No language other than the Italian could give that liquid, uninterrupted flow required in that school of operatic composition.

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Allesandro Scarlatti (1659-1725)

At this point, the center of musical prominence has shifted from Venice to Naples. The latter city, as the capital of a new kingdom, began to attract many great minds of Italy and of Europe, becoming thus an intellectual and artistic center. Among the many intellectual leaders gathered at Naples there was Alessandro Scarlatti. With him the era of Neapolitan opera began; for Scarlatti was the most forceful musical genius of that time and his influence was felt even beyond the boundaries of Italy.

This master is another luminary in the history of music. He is noted not only for the purely technical contributions to polyphony which he brought to a high degree of perfection, becoming a great pioneer in instrumental music, but also as a great teacher, a stimulator of geniuses who, attracted by his wide renown, flocked to him from all parts of Europe.

Scarlatti is the father of that classical style of the Seventeenth Century which has been an inexhaustible source of musical inspiration. We laymen still return to the soothing strains of his songs which communicate to us a feeling of sad repose and resignation. It is no small wonder, therefore, that Neapolitan music under his inspiring guidance remained the arbiter of musical taste in all Europe and determined largely the progress of German and, later, French music.

As a by-product of the opera we have the Opera Buffa. Starting as an "intermezzo," a short musical composition with a slight farcical plot and some personages introduced between the acts of an opera to hold the interest of the spectators during the long intermission necessary for the preparation of the scenery for the following act, it was developed into an independent musical genre.

Giovanni Pergolesi (1716-1736)

Pergolesi was the father of this new type of operatic composition. His works show that comic and sparkling vivacity and brilliancy of effects which prepare the way for the later Romantic type of opera made famous by Rossini.

Having its origin at Naples, the gayest Italian city, the success of the Opera Buffa was immediate. For there were even times when it seemed to find greater favor with the public than the more serious type. It is this very type of composition which, brought into France by troupes of ragged musicians, established there a national type of music, "L'Opéra Comique," which represents one of the glories of France.

The Oratorio

As a means of drawing the people back into the Catholic fold, the Church devised some sort of religious musical drama to match the progress of secular music in the opera. Following, therefore, a dramatic plan, an idea borrowed from the opera, the first oratorio sponsored by St. Filippo Neri was presented. Keeping abreast with other forms of musical progress the oratorio was gradually evolved into a real artistic type of music. Giacomo Carissimi later introduced into it the chorus work, and the cantata, which was a form of recitative and aria followed by a dramatic plan for one or two voices. The Italians, however, displayed but a slight interest in its later development, although the number of their works is not small. In all the forms of religious music, following the early pioneer work, the Italians in general have shown a decided lack of interest. Their religious music, therefore, has seldom risen to the height of permanent value because it has lacked the religious fervor of the protestant north and has had no depth of homely piety, all restraining influences of sacred writing. Still, towards the beginning of the Nineteenth century, Luigi Cherubini, a truly shining light, brought Italian religious music back to a dignified nobility of expression which contrasted sharply with the tawdriness of the operatic music of that time. Towards the end of the last century there seems to be a revival of religious music as exemplified by the serious work of the contemporary Perosi and many others.

Pure Music

The development of the voice as a solo instrument, which brought about the true and intimate personality of the performer, gave rise to various efforts to match its possibilities with other instruments. Thus, out of the great variety used since the early periods, those instruments which approached the voice in their tonal effects were further developed. The viol family, the flute, the trumpet and the oboe, chosen because of their remarkable similarity to the human voice, received serious attention. This early experimentation, thanks to the work of Tartini, both as a theorist and a technician, of Viotti and later of Paganini, gave birth to a school of violin music and violin virtuosity which not only equalled the progress of the voice, but also surpassed its technical possibilities and established itself as an important and independent branch of concert music.

With the development of polyphony the organ, the first representative of the key-board instruments, drew the attention of many musicians. In imitation of it many key-board instruments were evolved. These early experiments later culminated with the invention of the pianoforte by Bartolomeo Cristofori.

It was but natural that these new instruments, offering possibilities hitherto unrealized, coupled with the improved taste of the public, which was now beginning to accept solo and concert work as important music, should lead many enterprising composers to explore the virgin field of chamber music. Their experiments resulted in the creation of pure music, with forms of its own, more or less independent of any literary text. Many were the forms of composition thus invented. Their variety was largely determined by the varied needs of different instruments or groups of instruments. The Suite, a series of

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dance tunes related to one another, was written for a small orchestra; the Fugue, a type of contrapuntal composition, for the organ; the Overture, a part of a dramatic composition, for a large orchestra; the Sonata, a chamber work, solely for solio instruments; and the Concerto was composed as a solo work with orchestral accompaniment.

Here again we have the name of another Scarlatti who is also famous in this new work. Domenico, worthy son of a great father, was a great pioneer in the field of pure music. He is noted for his contributions in emancipating the key-board composition from the trammels of counterpoint and in advancing free style which was modern in its harmonic views.

It is in this field that the Italians now began to receive strong competition from the Germans who, with the work of Handel, were laying the foundation for a glorious era of Germanic music; and later, with the masterpieces of Haydn, Gluck, Mozart and Beethoven, they eclipsed temporarily the greatness of the early and contemporary Italians.

Still, this rising school of German musicians was not immune from the strong influence of the early Italian masters during its formative period. Haydn studied at Vienna with Metastasio and Porpora, whom he served as a valet in exchange for musical lessons. Gluck, the reformer, was also a student in Italy. Mozart, the genial and unsurpassable melodist, seems to have inherited all the melodic tradition of the Italians. They all wrote music in Italian. And even the great Beethoven suffered greatly the influence of Muzio Clementi, who had previously established a pianistic school whose style is remarkable for its singing and vigorous tone.

The Romantic Era and Givachino Rossini (1792-1868)

The birth of the Nineteenth Century brought with it a new artistic and literary movement which had great influence in changing the social and artistic life of all Europe. Romanticism, which showed a desire for individual expression untrammeled by the neo-classic doctrines of the previous periods, found also expression in the field of music. The librettos of the Romantic Opera, therefore, do not present any longer characters dressed as shepherds of a new Arcadia, but palpitating lovers who are ready to die for their beloved ones.

The greatest exponent of this type of opera is Rossini, one of the most sensational composers of all ages. The whole operatic world was stirred about the advent of this musician, the most forceful genius since A. Scarlatti. His rapid ascent to fame and his influence throughout Europe was simply astonishing. By sheer vitality, witty vivacity, and remarkable versatility, he won the homage and respect of his public. The opera, which had already shown signs of decadence, with him took a new lease of life, for he injected new vitality into it. His music is spontaneous, highly imaginative and extremely cor-

orful. He pours into it all of his happiness, his zest for life, and we feel upon hearing one of his melodies the same cheerfulness, the same joy of living. In the "Overture of William Tell" nature smiles and life revives in happiness and joy. In the "Barber of Seville" his melody flows liquid and sparkling like a fresh and rippling brook on its happy journey. In his orchestration he shows himself not only a highly imaginative writer, but also a master of technical effects.

This romantic and florid style of composition found many followers. Donizetti and Bellini wrote many operas which won international renown. Though influenced by the music of the great genius, both showed originality of treatment. Bellini, the more resourceful of the two, is remarkable for his purity of style, which achieves a sublimity truly sacred, and his music inspires a religious awe in our hearts, bringing to our agitated souls a sense of repose. Chopin found in Bellini his own master, and in his style, an outlet for his turbulent emotions, and peace for his troubled existence.

Giuseppe Verdi (1813-1901)

Italian music, especially the opera, following the Rossinian era, must be judged in the light of certain political events which constituted elements of inspiration for the important musicians of the period, thus determining the character of their art. The dream of many centuries, the unification and independence of Italy, was about to come true. Every social, literary and artistic effort of the nation, therefore, was pointing towards this sacred goal. As in literature, the historical novel was a potent weapon in awakening the desire of the masses for political independence, in music the historical opera was in the same degree successful in crystallizing that desire. Other forms of musical compositions were temporarily neglected; yet musical progress in other fields was not stayed; for the opera, owing to its manifold character, is all inclusive and well takes care of every form of music.

The giant of this age is Verdi. He is the foremost composer and the man of the hour. Italian to the core, he always sought in his operas an opportunity to help his country. All his librettos were based on subjects which either recalled the military prowess of ancient times or pointed out the terrible political slavery into which his people had fallen. As a patriot and as a musician, he won the hearts of his country-men.

Slightly affected, at first, by the Rossinian school, he later worked out an original type of opera, all his own. Always a student till his dying days, and always susceptible to suggestions from all sources, he gradually brought Italian opera from a crude musical form to a most elaborate type, one to compete successfully with the best of Wagner's.

He is the greatest melodist of all times. His operas have kept within the sphere of the best Italian tradition, showing spontaneous geniality and complete mastery of harmonic

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structure and orchestral effects. In that, Verdi represents the examplification of a happily wedded type: the genius and the master. "Aida," one of his later types of opera, leaves little to be desired either in its inspiration or in its masterly treatment both of harmony and orchestration.

While satisfying the critics of "Bel Canto," owing to his mastery of the human voice, his operas never degenerated into vehicles of vocal virtuosity, for he never lost sight of dramatic truth and power. His best works show sincerity of expression and unadulterated pathos. Any one who has seen either "Traviata" or "Othello," or any other opera for that matter, cannot fail to be impressed by the force of the dynamic emotional powers of their characters. Pity or fear is deeply stirred in our own hearts by the forceful and true music which touches our emotional chords; and while it injects into them a note of sadness, it leaves us satisfied with its beauty.

AMILCARE PONCHIELLI (died 1883)

Ponchielli properly belongs to that group of Italian composers who were both influenced and obscured by Verdi. Yet he is deserving of special mention because with him modern Italian composition begins. His operas, while not showing the spark of a great genius, are important on account of the masterly and more modern treatment of harmony and orchestration. "La Giocanda," his most important opera, would have been a matchless masterpiece, were it not for the absurdity of its libretto and a predilection of the composer for a bombastic flamboyant musical style. However, he won lasting fame more as a teacher and a developer of great geniuses than a composer, for Puccini, Leoncavallo and Mascagni were all his pupils.

While the musical school that follows this period shows unmistakable signs of Wagnerian influence in its orchestral treatment, Italian operatic music has never lost originality and has always followed the melodic tradition of its best era. The composers who have remained faithful to the Italian character have as a rule been rewarded with lasting success both in Italy and abroad. Those who have shown, together with all the harmonic and orchestral exigencies, a melodic inspiration have been quickly recognized.

Puccini's music has enjoyed a great popularity all over the world, especially in America, because of his ability to choose subjects of universal appeal, and because the composer, through the medium of his dramatic characters, has struck the universal chord of human sympathy. "La Bohème," his best opera, will have many a successful night in our opera houses, probably for years to come, because its characters are not citizens of any particular country; they are artists, citizens of the world. Its music, which truthfully embodies the diverse moods of the main characters, though languid, has always the power of evoking those deep and eternal passions of mankind which have stirred and always will stir the heart of man.

Pietro Mascagni won instant fame with his phenomenal "Cavalleria Rusticana," an opera which keeps the audience gasping and breathless with its ever rising action and its fiery and stirring music until the final and tragic climax. Leoncavallo won fame with "I Pagliacci" and other operas. These two composers have been influenced by a new trend of Italian literature. They followed the school of verism as exemplified by G. Verga in his treatment of Sicilian life. "I Pagliacci" and "Cavalleria Rusticana" are both based on veristic plots. They both have as a background the rustic life of Southern Italy at its worst, portraying the turbulent passions of its people which in contrast with their rigid and uncompromising and exalted sense of honor must ultimately and inevitably lead to a tragic *dénouement*.

Of interest also is the fact that there has been a marked tendency to return to the field of symphonic and religious compositions. Let us hope, therefore, that the young musicians of today who have already shown signs of a restless spirit will continue to give to Italy that place in music which she should occupy by nature of her glorious past.

Books consulted: "The History of Music," by Waldo Selder Pratt. G. Schirmer, New York. "Musicale Musicisti d'Europa dal 1800 al 1930," Antonio Capri. Italian Book Exhibition, New York City.

MAURICE CARUSO.

Theodore Roosevelt High School.

RECOMMENDATIONS CONCERNING THE IMPROVEMENT OF SANITATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE Sanitation Committee was appointed by the High School Teachers' Association and the New York Association of Biology Teachers to make a survey of conditions of sanitation in the high schools with a view toward making recommendations for improvement.

The committee first studied a similar investigation and report made in 1918. It was of interest to note that a great many suggestions made at that time have been included in the high schools built since then. The city seems to be trying to do its best to improve the physical conditions of our schools. The too rapid increase in high school population has been responsible for the taking over of annexes in buildings not suited for secondary school work. It is in these buildings that most of the objectionable conditions exist. It is hoped some satisfactory solution will be found for the situation in these annexes.

The following suggestions based on answers to a questionnaire sent to all

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of the high schools are offered by the committee with the hope that sanitation in the high schools may be still further improved.

The Committee in charge:

A. Recommendations Concerning the Selection of Sites to Improve Sanitation.

1. Most of the newer buildings have sufficient space for recreational activities. The older buildings and most annexes indicate a lack of space. Schools built in the midst of business or crowded residential sections seem to be the sufferers. It is recommended that as far as possible, locations be chosen for schools where adequate playground space can be supplied. In schools with insufficient space, it is suggested that wherever it is possible, the roof is modified to accommodate pupils. Where playgrounds are provided, it is recommended that the principals of the schools make certain the space is utilized not so much for team practice as for general outdoor health education.

2. Approximately four schools report extraordinary noise, annoying smoke, and lack of sunlight. In each case it is a building situated in a business section of the city. It seems desirable to place school buildings away from lines of traffic and annoying neighbors, such as garages, car-barns, factories, and junkshops. Careful police supervision is suggested to see that anti-noise restrictions are observed.

3. Inasmuch as many of the high schools report buildings too tall for comfortable travelling, it would be wise to plan that future buildings be no taller than three floors.

4. Several of our present high schools and their annexes report their buildings are so situated that a maximum of sunlight cannot enter the rooms because they are constantly shadowed by tall buildings. Since sunlight is essential for the physical welfare of both pupils and faculty, we recommend that school sites be of sufficient proportions to assure no close neighbors.

5. A location chosen for a high school building should, in our estimation, be far enough away from pools or ponds of stagnant water to be free from mosquitoes. Breeding places for flies in adjacent garbage, stables, or accumulated litter should be cleared away.

B. Recommendations Concerning the Relation of Building Equipment to Sanitation.

1. It appears that the Building Bureau maintains certain standards regarding the color of the walls and of the furniture. This consists of the following: Class rooms, halls and assembly rooms are to be painted ivory color with furniture stained in light or dark oak. Recreation and rest rooms are furnished and painted as directed by a school committee appointed by the principal. It is recommended that the Building Bureau appoint committees to study new institutions such as the Medical Center with a view toward making the color of walls and furniture in schools more attractive.

2. It is recommended that floors of the classrooms and especially of the gymnasiums in new buildings be laid in hardwood and properly dressed so as to prevent splintering.

3. New buildings ought to be provided with adequate stairways to meet any emergency.

4. It is indicated in the report that certain drinking fountains do not work properly. It is suggested that plumbing of certain schools be altered to give pupils an adequate supply of sanitary drinking fountains that work properly.

5. In most industrial organizations of a higher order, adequate facilities are now provided for the rest, recreation, and for the medical aid of their employees. Some of our schools are slightly behind in this matter. Better facilities ought to be furnished in the interest of school efficiency and economy. The committee recommends that every school, without rest rooms for teachers, at present, should set aside some space where teachers may spend their free periods and work at their leisure. The committee further recommends that all new schools should provide rooms for the exclusive use of teachers.

6. The survey shows that certain schools need elevator equipment. It has been advocated that children who have cardiac or pulmonary conditions, and those who are crippled or who have had surgical treatment, should not be compelled to climb stairs to get to their classes. This type of exertion is detrimental to the health and life of such children. A thorough investigation ought to be made of these schools and a definite plan should be presented for the relief of these schools. All new schools above one story high should include elevators as part of the building equipment.

7. It appears to the committee that each pupils ought to have a place, for which he or she is held responsible, where clothing, accessories, books and materials necessary to school work may be kept safely. It is recommended that provision be made, especially in new buildings, for an individual locker for each boy or girl. It is further rec-

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ommended that these lockers be cleaned at regular intervals and be given special cleaning when occupied by a pupil with a contagious skin disease.

C. Recommendations Concerning the Methods of Cleaning to Improve Sanitation.

1. It is recommended:
   a. That no cleaning be done while classes are in session.
   b. It is further urged that schools should be equipped with vacuum cleaners.
2. That feather dusters be taken off the supply list and that instead of these antiquated relics, cheesecloth and other modern dusters be provided.
3. That a better grade of chalk be furnished by the city. Dustless chalk can be secured. One teacher has bought all the chalk that has come into her room for two years rather than suffer the annoyance of the chalk that is procurable in the supply room.
4. That in every school erasers be really cleaned by the cleaning force.
5. That desks and clothing closets be dusted daily with cheese cloth. Thorough washing should be done during vacations.

D. Recommendations Concerning Toilet Facilities to Improve Sanitation.

1. Certain schools report inadequate toilet facilities. We can readily understand how an annex located in a very old elementary school building would not have sufficient accommodations for pupils of high school age, but adequate changes should be made to correct this difficulty. We recommend that such conditions be brought to the attention of the superintendent of buildings with a view toward making necessary changes so that these schools conform to the modern sanitary standards.
2. It is recommended that paper towels be furnished by the city for the following reasons:
   a. It is incongruous to teach hygiene and not to provide for the washing and drying of hands.
   b. Vending machines are inadequate for
      (1) Many pupils either lack the pennies or do not use them.
      (2) These machines are constantly getting out of order so that they can not be relied upon.
      (3) These machines encourage theft.

   c. At present toilet paper is being used in large quantities for drying hands, with the result that the toilet paper is wasted and the hands are not thoroughly dried. With this arrangement money is being lost.
3. It is recommended.
   a. That a soap-dispensing system be provided in the original specifications of the building to feed all lavatories and showers from an overhead reservoir.
   b. That toilets, wash basins, and lavatory floors be washed with a solution of salsoda or some antiseptic.
   c. That drinking cup machines be installed in every lavatory.
   d. That all girls' and women's lavatories be provided with vending machines for sanitary equipment. Since this entails a fee for the pupil or the teacher, it should be cared for in the school, possibly by the health officer (if a woman).
4. There should be generous provisions made for adequate toilet and sink facilities in lavatories adjacent to lunchrooms.

E. Recommendations Concerning Lunch Rooms to Improve Sanitation.

1. The organization of the lunch room, so often left to some "practical" member of the faculty, should be in the hands of a small committee of teachers, the chairman being a trained dietitian employed by the school to supervise not only the food served, but the circumstances in which it is handled and eaten. The chairman of the Health Education Departments and of the Department of Biology should be represented on the committee.
2. It is apparent that utterly unsuitable lunch room conditions are found in many of the older buildings now employed as annexes. The committee feels strongly that it is the duty of the Board of Education to improve these buildings as soon as possible. Certainly, rooms used for physical training classes should not be used for lunch rooms.

F. Recommendations Concerning the Relation of the Use of the Gymnasium to Sanitation.

1. It is obvious that every secondary school pupil should have a swimming pool at his disposal; but the lack cannot easily be remedied in the older buildings.

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2. It is recommended that the water be changed at least twice a week. It is further recommended that antiseptic foot tanks be a part of the equipment of all swimming pools.

3. It is the opinion of the committee that instruction in the use of the showers should be provided in an attempt to inculcate their habitual use and that careful supervision be instituted to see that pupils use the showers properly. Only one school in thirty-five reported the existence of such instruction; it may, however, be more common in those schools not using the showers; it is recommended that they use them after physical training periods in case there is no pool in the school. It is further recommended that more shower baths be built in new schools to give every child a chance to take a shower after the physical training period.

G. Recommendations Concerning the Relation of the Proper Care of Pupils' Health in School to Sanitation.

1. There is so close a connection between health and efficient school work, that an annual complete physical and dental examination should be required of all boys and girls. As far as possible this should be done by a competent family physician and dentist.

2. The physical examination should be carefully followed up with a view toward removing remediable defects and bringing the health of the pupils up to the finest possible standard. In some schools, the physical examination records are filed away and very little use is made of them. The high school diploma should be enlarged to include "good health" as well as good scholarship and good character. Modern education should be interpreted to include instruction that will help the high school graduate understand preventable disease so that the employer will have a reasonable assurance, in the high school diploma, that his employee will not miss time from business because of preventable illness. It is the feeling of the committee that this can be done largely through the present organization of the health education teachers if they can be educated up to the importance of health and if they spend their best efforts on health building rather than competitive athletics and team development. In addition to the removal of defects, hygiene instruction should be given to groups in ordinary classrooms, in order to set standards for health habits. The important thing in hygiene instruction is to select teachers who have the following qualifications: interest in health problems and in children's

scientific training so that their standards and information are correct; correct classroom methods so that emphasis is placed on individual problems and on pupil activity rather than on the lecture methods frequently used in mass instruction; a desire to spend time outside the classroom in discussing individual problems with the pupils.

3. Each school building should have a properly equipped room to which pupils who are ill during school hours can be sent. The committee does not wish to encourage too much first aid or paternalism on the part of the school, but it feels the necessity of such a room for emergency treatments. In so many homes both parents go to business, and it is not always practical to send ill pupils home.

4. There are so many accidents possible in gymnastic work, biology, physics, chemistry, domestic science, workshops, and other laboratories, that it seems desirable to have first aid equipment availbale in all laboratories.

5. Overcrowding seems to be a problem in many high schools. The committee feels unable to make any practical suggestions in regard to this condition. The high schools are now feeling the results of the extension of the compulsory school age to seventeen years, and of the general business depression. We believe that the High School Division of the Board of Education has this condition under advisement and that some solution will be forthcoming.

6. That each high school should have a health council headed by a health officer to advise, take charge of, and supervise problems of sanitation. This organization should exist in annexes as well as in main buildings. The health council might consist of the health officer designated by the principal, the custodian, representatives of biology, health education, and home economics departments, and any other competent and interested people. Problems concerning cleanliness, heating, ventilation, illness, lavatories, the lunch room, and any other problems can be taken care of satisfactorily by such a council because all viewpoints should be represented.

H. Recommendations Concerning the Education of Pupils to Secure Pupils' Participation in the Sanitation of the Building.

1. The committee feels that the care of the building rests primarily with the pupils rather than with the teachers, the custodian, or the custodian's helpers. No amount of supervision of lavatories or cleaning of the

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school will be effective unless adequate education is given pupils in the care of the building, in prevention of litter accumulation, in defacement of walls and furniture, and in care of lavatories and drinking fountains. High school education fails unless it teaches proper respect for property. The best place for planning this campaign is the hygiene classroom. If hygiene is distributed throughout the entire high school career, the control of habits of sanitation is extended throughout the entire school career. It is most advisable, however, to give such instruction to regular recitation size groups instead of to large groups so that a more direct appeal may be made to the individual pupils and so that the individual pupils may present definite cases for class consideration. Where this instruction is given to large groups, very little individual response can be secured. There should be a concerted effort on the part of all school agencies to see that the pupils participate actively in the care of the building. All teachers, all classes, all pupils should be actively alert to the care of the building at all times.

2. It seems advisable to have morning inspection of all pupils in official rooms so that suspicious coughs, skin conditions or any other disease condition can be controlled. While the hygiene and health education teachers are the specialists along these lines, many contagious cases escape notice until they have been circulated in school for some time. If, in the morning inspection, the official teacher notes a suspicious condition in a pupil, that pupil should be sent to the health officer for investigation. It seems to the committee that a better control of habits of cleanliness and personal appearance could be effected if the aid of official teachers could be enlisted. Swimming teachers should conduct painstaking examinations before each swimming period to detect conditions of uncleanliness or infectious conditions such as colds, sinus infections, ringworm, scabbies, impetigo, and planters' wart. These cases should be referred to the health officer for follow up work.

3. A concerted effort should be made along the lines of accident prevention. Official teachers, assembly programs, hygiene classes, health education classes and all possible means should be utilized to reduce the number of accidents to school children both in and out of the building.

The Committee in Charge

ELIZABETH T. FITZPATRICK, Chairman of the Sanitation Committee, George Washington High School.

NELSON S. KLINE, DeWitt Clinton High School.

MICHAEL LEVINE, High School of Commerce.

FLORENCE MCDOWELL, Wadleigh High School.

WALTER WOLF, Grover Cleveland High School.

HIGH POINTS

"Let's Write a Book"—A Project in Creative Writing

The first day of school this term, my second term students were engaged in an enthusiastic discussion of "Books you can't afford to miss." Suddenly, one of the children exclaimed: "Why can't *we* write a book one can't afford to miss?" The suggestion was instantly seconded by the class, and in this way our composition project saw its inception.

Taking advantage of the interest of the class, I spent a few periods doing "laboratory work" with them. This consisted of having the children bring to class, for discussion and analysis, their own books, as well as library books. Not only were the contents of the books considered, but all of the mechanical features were carefully discussed. One fortunate result of this first part of our enterprise was the general increase of reading in the class.

The next step in our task was to choose appropriate subjects. Many, indeed, were the titles suggested, and in the end we had a wide assortment to choose from: "Adventures," "My Hobbies," "Chinese Stories," "Jolly Times," "Museums," "Sports," and "Mystery Stories," were a few of the suggested titles. Of course, the students of ability chose more individual topics. One girl proposed to write on "The Three B's of Music," while others, writing original stories, created fitting titles for their tales.

The next three weeks proved busy and happy ones for the children. We had decided that our books should contain a minimum of three chapters. Many students, however, wrote five or six. This, of course, entailed considerable work. Students, moreover, were required to re-write their compositions, and they did this most painstakingly, for they were genuinely interested in correcting their errors in order to produce a "perfect" book.

The actual composition work completed, the class now eagerly made a search for illustrative materials. The less gifted students merely cut out

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pictures from newspapers and old magazines, but the more gifted displayed fine ability in creating original illustrations. Cover designs and bookmarks were also considered at this point with equally happy results.

Attention was next directed, once again, to the other mechanical features of a book. The title page, the table of contents, the dedication, and so on, were all considered. Some of the dedications the children wrote were very charming. One little girl wrote an original poem in which she dedicated her book of "Adventures" to her dear mother.

Since many of the students at John Adams are skillful in using the typewriter, I thought it would be helpful to correlate our work with that of the typewriting classes. As a result, most of our books were beautifully typewritten.

When our task was completed, the children brought their finished books to class and read them to each other. Afterwards, the books were hung around the room to serve as original wall decorations.

That this task proved stimulating to the students is evident, not only from the interest taken during the conduct of the work, but also from the eagerness with which the children have plunged into another composition project—the writing of a newspaper. That my students have gained in composition ability is shown by the decided decrease in their work of errors which usually appear in the papers of high school freshmen.

In conclusion, I should like to append a few outlines of the books which will serve to indicate the wide range of interests tapped in our project.

MY ADVENTURES

I. My Mistake.
II. Frightened.
III. Dear Old Earth.

THE GOLD WATCH
(A Mystery Story)

I. A Clue.
II. On the Trail.
III. Solution.

TOURING THE WORLD BY POSTCARD
(A Travelogue)

I. Touring Mexico.
II. Touring England and France.
III. Touring Japan and China.
IV. Touring the United States.

MUSEUMS I HAVE VISITED

I. The Museum of Natural History.
II. The Museum of Science and Industry.
III. The Aquarium.
IV. The Metropolitan Museum of Art.

DOROTHY M. BYRNS.

John Adams High School.

A School Makes Its Movies

As its parting gift to the Far Rockaway High School, the Senior Class of June, 1932, donated a motion picture camera and projector. The machine was first used to obtain living portraits of members of the faculty arriving one morning at school.

From this entertaining feature, it progressed to shots of students in action: the commencement procession, tennis matches, the riding and archery clubs, the baseball and punchball teams, and a major opus of the football team in practice and in actual play. In fact, the latter flashes reveal exciting end-runs, forward passes, and even a touch-down. The dancing classes have not been neglected, for there is a reel of a picturesque minuet, a souvenir of the Washington Bi-Centennial Assembly.

Let us consider the adaptation of these films to educational needs. Surely there is no more efficacious method of teaching skills that require definite movements than illustrating them in close-up flashes of students adept in different types of sport. By showing these pictures in slow motion, we can achieve the last word in visual representation. In fact, it is hoped that the films will become an aid to our Health Education course and will be included as part of the regular instruction. Perhaps the most vital history lesson ever given in the school took place recently after three o'clock, when eager students thronged the auditoriums to witness a film of scenes from the World War. They were excellent pictures and the comments after the performance proved that the futility of huge armaments was far better disclosed by the screen than by classroom talks.

To limit the value of the machine to the purely educational factors tells but half the story. At present, because of the intrinsic value of the machines and the inexperience of pupils in this field, students act only as assistants. The actual filming is done by a member of the faculty who is familiar with the intricacies of photography. Thus far, the only expenses incurred in the use of the camera have been for the purchase and developing of films. The enterprise, financed by the General Organization, is a worth-while outlet for profits accruing from gate receipts.

The projector is a sixteen millimeter outfit and can show films on any size screen. Hence pictures borrowed from film libraries may be displayed in the school Auditorium. Students may enjoy the better type of cinema entertainment which they themselves frequently overlook in their response to the more lurid pictures shown in average theatres.

There is here a good opportunity to arouse in students a love of good literature, the chance to see literary pieces transferred to the screen. By providing such entertainment the school becomes not only a place for study, which by its very name implies something distasteful to youth, but it also becomes a place to work in, to play in, to live in; this after all, is what a school should be if it is to have a vital effect in shaping the lives of youngsters.

The last, but by no means the least, of the advantages of the camera, is its contribution to the tradition of the school. History is made every day. Every record broken, every game won, every event celebrated in

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the school is indelibly recorded. In years to come, this picture library will add the glamor of past history to the tradition of the school. Nothing is more encouraging in the life of a pupil than to look back upon past accomplishments, compare them with the present, and note the progress that has been made. This is one of the aims in enlarging our motion picture library.

Far Rockaway feels confident that its new "film industry" is a worthwhile addition to an ever-lengthening curriculum.

JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON.
RUTH T. GOLDSTEIN.

Far Rockaway High School.

The Pipe Organ in Theodore Roosevelt High School

When the Board of Education of New York had the fine Estey pipe-organ, a modern electric action organ, installed in Theodore Roosevelt High School, William R. Hayward, Principal of the school, members of the Music Department, and all concerned were determined that the organ should become an integral part of the school life and should not be heard only on Occasions! Mary Caecilia Doran, accomplished organist and enthusiastic teacher, most heartily agreed with this determination and instituted a series of daily recitals and found other ways to intrench the instrument firmly in the life of the school. Now that results of her work of a year and a half begin to be very tangible, the inside story may be told.

The organ is not a sideline with Miss Doran, but an art. She can have part a real enthusiasm for it because it is one of her major enthusiasms she can give instruction because she comes to the work with thoroughly adequate training. Miss Doran is a graduate of the Yale School of Music. She studied composition with Horatio Parker and David Stanley Smith. Harry Benjamin Jepson was her teacher in organ and for twelve years she was church organist and director in a large church in New Haven. So much good teaching is known to be mere contagion that in this case one is tempted to credit Miss Doran's success mainly to her complete absorption in the organ and to her knowledge of and love for it.

Very soon after the installation of the organ, Organ Appreciation classes were established. There was one last term; there are two this term, one more advanced than the other. Each class meets once a week and each passing pupils receives a .5 major credit. Eighteen pupils are enrolled in the elementary course and twelve in the other one. More boys than girls are enrolled; no one knows just why; perhaps the answer is mechanics, perhaps music. None of these students plays an organ, but they are out to learn all they can about the instrument so complicated in its structure and so majestic in its appeal. One boy grew so absorbed in the study that he asked if it would not be possible for him to learn to play *some* instrument while in school. Accordingly Miss Doran found that he could be taught the

oboe in connection with the school orchestra. Another member of the first class, who is now graduated, reported just recently that she is now a professional musician since she is receiving a salary as organist and choir director in a church. She volunteered the further information that she intends to spend all the salary on lessons in organ playing.

Excursions have formed a large part of the activities of these classes. They have visited organ factories to learn about the various types of pipes and how organs are built. The classroom, or organ office if you wish, has an interesting display of pipes which are the tangible mementos of these trips. The organ rooms at Roosevelt have been made to yield their mysteries to these young enthusiasts. There have been visits to theaters where the devices of the theater organs have been explained to them. Church organs and pipe organs for homes have all been investigated. The course might be likened to a course in anatomy—organ anatomy—and pupils have learned the functions of the mechanical parts; they have learned to know and name the various pipes and to recognize the effects produced by them. During the present term an internationally known authority on the organ will address the classes on the subject of organ pipes and with a complete demonstrating apparatus will show the various types of organ pipes and the variety of tone possible in it.

This school study has awakened a keen interest in organ recitals. When Germani, the honorary organist of the Vatican, gave a New York recital at the Waldorf-Astoria, the pupils were there! They have gone to the recitals of Dr. Heinroth at City College of New York and individually they listen to radio organ music and attend church programs. They bring reports to class of what they have discovered and of features they have enjoyed.

Miss Doran plays the organ during two periods of each day. A large poster announces the name of the selection so that the students in the auditorium may learn to associate the name with the music. During one week the programs are given the second and fifth periods; the following week, during the fourth and sixth. Every Monday at two-thirty in the afternoon, a public program is played. The selections for this are announced in advance in the school newspaper, as, in fact, are all the programs. At Christmas time and on other special occasions, extra recitals of music appropriate to the season are offered and it is possible that, in the future, public recitals may be offered on Sunday afternoons. There ought to be enough music lovers in the Fordham community to make such a plan very popular. Each term Miss Doran plays a request program in some study period. This has proved to be a happy innovation; the requests have always been numerous. None recently have asked for jazz and always there have been several requests for Bach music. It is pleasant to record these facts so decidedly in favor of the younger generation!

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It may not be amiss at this point to give some of the typical programs which echo through the halls of Roosevelt High School for the joy and benefit of those who would learn the best in music. Had the reader of this article been a listener on the morning of November seventh, he would have heard the following:

1. Morning, Peer Gynt Suite, Edward Grieg.
2. Asa's Death, Peer Gynt Suite, Edward Grieg.
3. Anitra's Dance, Peer Gynt Suite, Edward Grieg.
4. In the Hall of the Mountain King, Edward Grieg.
5. Solvejg's Song, Peer Gynt Suite, Edward Grieg.

On Wednesday, the day before Thanksgiving of this school year, the program was:

1. Elégie, Max Reger.
2. Prière, Clement Loret.
3. O God Beneath Thy Guiding Hand, John Hatton.
4. Lento Assai VII Sonata, Alexandre Guilmant.
5. Hymn of Thanksgiving, Netherland Folk Song.

No formal survey has been made to ascertain just how teachers and students react to these daily recitals, but judging by unsolicited opinions, they are popular. The impressive and stately music drifts to many corners of the huge school building and drives out the humdrum spirit of a large busy place. It is not unusual for a teacher in a distant classroom to send to the auditorium to find out the name of the selection everyone had just enjoyed. Groups of students often drift to the console after a program to ask questions or to chat with Miss Doran. Many have found their way into the special music course from this seemingly casual contact and others enter the organ appreciation classes. And so the organ has come to Theodore Roosevelt High School pupils and they have come to it. Some are learning about it at first hand and all are hearing good music every day. It may not be possible to measure the permanent influence of this "music every day," but as all beauty affects the sensitive human being, so this beauty will have its result. This pioneer work will go on and develop in many ways.

GLADYS L. PERSONS
Theodore Roosevelt High School.

The Bushwick Beacon

Are we fully capitalizing the varied abilities of our student body? Might we not profitably provide more activities to challenge their interests? Is it not educationally justifiable to set before our students an opportunity to plan and carry through a mimeographed magazine in social science? Such thoughts prompted the initiation of the *Bushwick Beacon*.

What follows constitutes a report of what it is deemed fitting to call a product of social science study or can be dignified by calling it a project. While it possessed the virtue of being a unit of purposeful activity, it was not student initiated. We refused to become party to the educational crime of setting bait in the form of pre-arranged leading questions and then trapping and pouncing on the victims with what is equal to "and that is the homework for to-morrow!"

To go into excessive detail would rob the person who may be drawn into attempting a similar enterprise of the many possibilities of seeming originality in the production of a social science magazine or burden him unnecessarily. The task of enriching school life with a magazine of the nature indicated was relatively simple. Essential to success are the following:

1. Easily obtainable materials in the form of stencils, mimeograph paper, paper to provide a suitable cover, and a good mimeograph machine.
2. A student corps which is willing, able, and reliable.
3. An administration which is cooperative.

It is superfluous to say that at Bushwick High School we found all the necessary factors in full measure. Our participating student group was selected from among those who were engaged in the study of our social sciences. They were found by circulating notices in classrooms and by advertising in the school paper. The staff consisted of approximately thirty students. A meeting called outlined the appropriate content and on a volunteer basis its distribution was arranged. The material was to appear in a mimeographed booklet which was to be issued without expense to the school General Organization and to the students. A total of 120 copies was made. All work involved was performed in the school with the exception of the stapling. The school machine could not bind a booklet containing forty-seven pages of mimeograph paper and a fairly substantial paper cover.

The table of contents, among other facts, reveals essays on Washington, Peace, Russia, the Philippines; biography sketches of Briand, Gandhi, Al Smith; humorous essays on the discovery of America and Napoleon; poetry; a playlet on William Jennings Bryan; a column of current comment; a series of interviews with Professors Hughes of St. Johns, Hayes, Moon and Muzzey of Columbia, and Schapiro of the City College; and a cross-word puzzle. Scattered illustrations, such as a page view of Mount Vernon and a sketch history of Theodore Roosevelt, help to complete the magazine.

There was a very liberal expenditure of time involved in production by both the students and faculty adviser. It took approximately two months to complete the work, fashioning vague ideas into a product which seems to have been a success, judging from its reception by the teachers and students of Bushwick High School.

Was it worth while? We emphatically reply yes, without going into any more space-consuming detail than is necessary to state that all were in-

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terested throughout, kept quite busy, and enjoyed making the *Bushwick Beacon*.

What more is necessary?

A. E. Horowitz.

Bushwick High School.

Opportunities for Training in Character Habits in Class and in School

In the discussion of educational topics we usually set aside a definite period to consider the acquisition of knowledge, and another period for the study of character education. This makes possible the centering of our attention upon one element of the entire educational process at a time. Our environment today is very complex and our adjustment to it, which is education, necessarily has become a great problem. The immensity of this educational problem necessitates its division into smaller units for effective study. This practice frequently gives rise to the fallacious notion that the acquisition of knowledge by our pupils and training in character habits are separate and distinct processes in our educational scheme. We should always be mindful of the unity of our educational program. With the exception of certain instinctive acts, knowledge makes it possible for us to do things; character habits—accuracy, neatness, self-control, sympathy, thoroughness—decide how these things are done.

The educator has as his raw material the inherited tendencies of the pupils and the environment in which we all find ourselves. He skilfully brings these two dynamic forces together to effect a change in both; in the pupils the result aimed at is educated, cultured and refined person; in the environment, a better world. The inexperienced pupil is gradually subjected to environmental forces to develop in him responses better than those he started with. The improvement we call learning. All learning results in changed conduct. Every act has its character implications. Everything a pupil does gives him an opportunity for training in character. The composition is written neatly or slovenly, the commercial law problem is studied thoroughly or superficially, every assignment is performed carefully or carelessly, ranging from a degree of supreme excellence to one of complete worthlessness.

It follows, then, that every opportunity giving a pupil to react to his environment is a chance for character training. And the opportunities in school are many. These opportunities arise in the class on the one hand and in the school outside the class on the other; and in both places they may be initiated by the pupils of the teacher.

We can accompany our pupils during an entire school day from early morning until late in the afternoon and note the many influences constantly at work to develop character habits. These influences would make a long list. Briefly stated, they include our school regulations, which require the pupils to be in school on time, to attend regularly, to be orderly during change of periods and at dismissals; to dress neatly; to care for school property; the varied curriculum with the special character appeals of each subject; methods of teaching that take into consideration individual differences and that provide for drill; the contact of pupils with pupils and pupils with teachers; the extra-curricular activities; and the very layout of the building and its decorations. However, it will hardly be necessary for us to consider more than one or two opportunities for character training in the classroom and in the school outside the class.

Let us begin with the character habit, cheerfulness, which is important for efficient living in and out of school. It creates an atmosphere of happiness in the classroom essential to proper learning. Expert teaching can help to develop this character trait. The teacher who skilfully prepares his pupils for new exercises, divides the work into appropriate units, recognizes individual differences and makes assignments accordingly, will have pupils busy at tasks which they understand and can see through. Success fosters good cheer, frequent success develops the habit of cheerfulness.

The tempo set by the teacher has character training significance. We must teach slowly enough to enable our pupils to do their assignments thoroughly and neatly and get from their work the satisfaction of good work done that will develop in them an attitude toward the subject taught which will make them love it. At the same time we must teach fast enough to present a challenge to every pupil in the room. The proper tempo will help to develop such character traits as thoroughness, neatness, industry, and love of learning.

It must be recognized that the pace is not wholly determined by the teacher and the pupils. Work is prescribed and State examinations must be prepared for. Courses of study are at times over-crowded. Commercial Law may be cited. Teachers of this subject agree that the chief purpose for teaching it in a high school is to develop certain ethical concepts. But the pupils must study the Law of Contracts, Sales, Negotiable Instruments, Bailments, Insurance, Real Estate, Partnership, and Corporations, during one short term. The Board of Regents sets examinations of such a nature that compels the covering of this vast field. The result is a constant nervous rushing in the classroom, shallowness in the treatment of every topic, and an emphasis upon facts rather than upon ethical phases of the subject. The speedy treatment of many topics develops unfavorable character traits of shallow and careless thinking. Teachers should carefully note any such over-crowding of the course of study and make constant recommendation for curtailment where necessary.

The assignment of homework carries with it character training possibilities. It is important to assign homework tasks for which the pupils are adequately prepared and commensurate with their abilities. Assign-

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ments that are too easy may develop laziness and indifference. Homework that is too difficult tends to inculcate the habit of cheating.

The pupil is highly imitative. Whatever model is set by the teacher will be largely followed by the pupils. The teacher who comes to school on time will encourage punctuality in his pupils, the happy teacher will radiate happiness for his children to absorb, the straightforward teacher will develop honesty in them, and the one who is calm will help his children develop self-control. The teacher who dresses neatly will more forcefully suggest the idea of neatness than he could do in many talks. We may tell our pupils what is expected of them, but the implied suggestion of a good example is by far more powerful.

The classroom is an ideal place to develop the character traits of coöperation and service. A bright pupil should be given the opportunity to help his slower fellow-pupil. Pupils should be encouraged to work together to help keep the boards clean, ventilate the room, keep the floor free of litter.

Habits develop only through patient repetition. The teacher must constantly check up on the pupils in his charge. He must not tolerate unnecessary lateness or absence, careless work, slovenly appearance, inaccurate language.

The school outside the classroom is equally rich in opportunities to develop character habits. Whenever pupils conduct assemblies, regulate traffic, write and manage a school paper, serve in departmental offices, contrib- ute toward social service, conduct dances, present plays, they have a chance to develop habits of coöperation, initiative, sociability, generosity and service.

For our pupils "the school is a special field for their activities as citizens. The proper performance of these activities is the best preparation for the civic duties of the years to follow." In the schools of a democracy emphasis should be placed upon pupil self-government. Our pupils might be put in complete charge of our study periods. They could frame and enforce the regulations under which they could frame and enforce the regulations under which they are to live. This would help develop in them initiative and social-mindedness.

Another similar opportunity is afforded in the conduct of our assemblies. The school can be modelled after our Federal Government into a confederacy of states, each class being the unit; representatives may be selected from each class to form an assembly council from which chairmen of assemblies and program committees are chosen. These committees formulate plans for the preparation and presentation of programs. Such planning and performance call for the exercise of initiative, responsibility, and team work.

The central idea of this discussion is that every experience of the pupil in class, in school, anywhere, is an opportunity for character-habit development. But these same experiences may also develop unfavorable habits. So teachers must through percept, personal conduct, and the example set by great and good men, make certain that pupils know what the approved habits are; teachers must develop in the pupils the right attitude toward these habits so that our boys and girls will accept them as their ideals of conduct, and, finally, teachers must give the students every opportunity for the practice necessary for habit formation.

JACOB HEMLEY.

Seward Park High School.

The Project Method for a Chemistry Club

Several years ago, the writer became faculty adviser to the Chemistry Club of his school. The average membership at the beginning of a term was twenty-five. Meetings were held once a week after school hours. The usual procedure of lectures, demonstrations, visits to industrial plants, or the showing of motion pictures was followed. At the end of each term a prize was voted to the member who had given the best lecture or demonstration.

At this school, a Chemistry course is given during the last three years of the pupil's attendance at school. Those who elect this course study Elementary Chemistry for one year. This is followed by one term each of Advanced General Chemistry, Qualitative Analysis, Quantitative Analysis and Industrial Chemistry. Some of those who join the club are beginning students of chemistry, while others are quite advanced. Not many weeks of a new term pass before the average attendance at meetings drops to a dozen. Those that do attend show a lack of interest and spirit. The beginning student is still interested, probably because he feels that he has more to learn. The advanced student often admits that he does not attend because he does not gain much by attending.

About a year ago, the writer proposed to the club the use of the project method instead of the older scheme of operation. The suggestion met with approval. A new and different type of interest and enthusiasm was apparent. However, over thirty boys presented themselves for membership. Because of difficulties of a physical nature, such as a lack of apparatus, chemicals, and the like in sufficient quantities, membership had to be limited. Since many of those applying were beginning students, the formation of two clubs was decided upon. For the beginners, the Junior Chemistry Club was organized, to be conducted in the same manner as the original club. For membership in the Chemistry Project Club, the successful completion of one year of chemistry is required.

The membership in the Chemistry Project Club is limited to fifteen. The meetings, which are held weekly, are informal and are primarily of a laboratory nature. At the beginning, the boys arrange themselves into groups of two or three to work on a problem. If the group has no particular problem in mind, one is sug-

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gested. The groups consult the writer regarding the method of using reference works and other matters. The method of procedure is written up. Discussion then follows to clear up any points of difficulty in the method. The groups are then ready to go ahead with the laboratory work. Use is made of any apparatus or chemicals available at the school. Apparatus closets have been set aside for club use only. If any special material is required, it is bought with dues obtained from the members.

The advantages of this method of club operation are manifold. Much new chemical technique is acquired. The boys are given the opportunity to proceed along lines not possible for them in the regular course of study. They are encouraged to go around, at their leisure moments, to watch the work of other groups and to discuss their problems with others. Absence from meetings is due to illness or other unavoidable causes, not because of a lack of interest. The membership remains intact at the end of the term. The boys have decided that the award of a prize is unnecessary, since the successful completion of a project is sufficient reward in itself. Interest in the work of the club does not have to be forced. The boys are glad of an opportunity to work out something that they are interested in. Seriousness is much in evidence. Toward the end of each term, meetings are held two or three times weekly, so that the projects may be completed. A final written report is made and filed as part of the club records. A hektograph pad, with special ink, has been made by one of the members and is being used to furnish copies of each report to every member.

A list of projects completed or in process follows:

(1) Preparation of zinc sulfate crystals from the mineral sphalerite.

(2) Preparation of manganese sulfate crystals from manganese ore.

(3) Conversion of cerium oxalate into cerium chloride.

(4) Extraction of caffeine from tea.

(5) Extraction of quinine from cinchona bark.

(6) Extraction of thorium oxide from monazite.

(7) Extraction of citric acid from lemon.

(8) Extraction of chlorophyll from green leaves.

(9) Preparation of a series of esters.

(10) Preparation of a series of elements.

SAUL S. HAUBEN.

Brooklyn Technical High School.

Pointed Paragraphs

1. Who call upon pupils "in order" need not expect to find them so.

2. To digress is not to progress.

3. It is not a far cry from moralizing to demoralizing.

4. What is clear to the teacher may becloud the child.

5. Water seeks its own level; a good teacher, the pupil's.

6. "Cover the surface and save all" does not apply to teaching.

7. It is possible to go over a topic five times and not get over once.

8. The "each" in "teach" refers to *every* child in the class.

9. Who expects a response must hold each responsible.

10. A request for "volunteers" may result in the last syllable only.

11. Where there is tension in attention, there is usually inattention.

12. The student's standing is a measure of her understanding; her understanding is a measure of her teacher's standing.

13. Supervision implies vision.

14. Take not the quest out of questioning lest there be more rest than interest.

15. Let not our theme song be, "Over the heads and far away."

16. History, unlike the good teacher, repeats itself.

17. To educate is to draw out, not drive out.

18. Who teaches the subject, and not the child, does not teach.

19. Marks should not provoke remarks.

20. In our educational balance sheet, pupils should appear as assets, not liabilities.

21. Our job is to provoke thought, not to provoke.

22. Who preaches, seldom reaches.

23. Help pupils to help themselves; otherwise the more you help, the less you help.

S. W. Fox.

Washington Irving High School.

A Practical Art Project

Show-case displays, whether scientific displays of museums, or merchandise displays of retail stores, have always attracted attention, but a display of either sort needs a certain amount of organization and selection before it can be really effective. The Poster Club at Far Rockaway High School decided that there was a great deal of material at the school to be shown in this manner. This material could be found not only in the constructive work of the art and domestic science classes, but also in the project work attempted in the academic courses. It became the purpose of the club to work out suitable backgrounds for an exhibit of this type.

Store window displays were discussed by the Club. The general opinion was that most of the windows in the neighborhood stores, as well as the cases around the school were poorly arranged and did not secure maximum attention. The main faults were:

1. Overcrowded windows,
2. Lack of definite color harmony,
3. No change of eye-level to secure distribution of attention.

Various types of windows were criticised. The club noticed that different objects required different types of settings. Drug stores, cigar stores, and a few dress shops used to best advantage displays employing a pictorial setting. Articles such as perfumes, hats, shoes, and accessories appeared most effective against a modernistic setting. A realistic background was

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best arranged for furniture houses, transportation companies, and real estate brokers.

The club decided it preferred to start with a modernistic setting, which would permit the use of simple block and set-back shapes arranged at various heights. It eliminated many details and could, therefore, be worked up more quickly and easily. The subject chosen to fit this type of setting was perfumes and powders. The club decided on this because bottles and cans, such as ink bottles, medicine bottles, paint cans, and the like, could be painted and labelled. Cardboard caps of various shapes were to be added to give a finished effect.

With the subject decided, each member drew a small sketch of what he felt would be an attractive modernistic window display. The results were placed on the board, discussed, and voted on. The one chosen was then considered for possible color harmonies. The result was a model store window consisting of two high set-back block shapes, two small shelves, and a large crescent background. A printing cut-out was to stand in the foreground. Because the crescent shape in the background gave a suggestion of the moon, the colors chosen were a bright blue background, a gold crescent, darker blue set-back and shelves. The small objects were to be painted coral, pale yellow and light blue.

The design was enlarged to the correct size by working to a scale. Each student was given one particular part to enlarge. One boy received the background to paint, another a crescent to cut and paint; a girl had to design and cut labels, while another had to cut out and print the letters. This work, since the club meets once a week, extended over four weeks.

Then all was ready to be put up. The glass shelves in the hall case were removed. The background was fastened in, the block sections were put up, the shelves pasted and tacked in, and all was ready. This actual set up, however, took much longer than had been anticipated. Several difficulties arose as the various parts were added. The background, because of metal ribs in the back of the case, could not be fastened against the wood, but had to hold about a half inch away from it. This prevented the shelves and block sections from being fastened to a solid back. This was finally overcome by inserting small wooden boxes inside the large cardboard blocks to give a solid support at the corners. Another difficulty to be met was in cutting the letters from cardboard. The club finally bought a small saw which gave a rough edge, but was much better than any other cutting device we had.

It was generally conceded that the final result was worth the time expended. The case has attracted a great deal of attention at the school. As a club project, it was more than a success, as has been shown by the eagerness of the members to start another, the willingness of the club to stay very late, and by the interest of each member in finishing his part

tion of the case. There were none idle at any time. When a member's assigned work was completed, he always eagerly turned to painting a bottle or can which had been brought in.

There are several possibilities being considered for a second case:

1. A display of book covers planned in the Art Appreciation Course, to be exhibited against a modernistic background.
2. Christmas cards, boxes and papers to be shown against a realistic background of snowy landscape.
3. Cardboard manikins displaying proper clothes for school wear.
4. Small boat models of cardboard set against a realistic seascape.

The Domestic Science department has offered to make small objects, such as doll's clothes, laundry bags, or embroideries which might furnish possible display material.

Once started, this case could be made the main display case for all class projects and become part of the regular work of the club.

DOROTHY NEVINS.
Far Rockaway High School.

How the American Boy Learns to Write

Sir Philip Sidney, searching for extravagant phrases to describe his amorous passion, saw the futility of "turning others' leaves, to see if thence would flow some fresh and fruitful showers upon my sunburn'd brain; but words came halting forth, wanting invention's stay." When he saw the light, "Fool," said my Muse to me, "look in thy heart, and write." How shall we encourage the American boy to look in his heart and write?

The last few minutes of one period were devoted to a discussion of family albums. Attention was directed to keeping an album of one's own; but this time the album would be written pictures, instead of photographs. We decided to call it "My Album-Journal."

The following day I asked if anyone could tell me how a student who needed the means with which to buy a football could obtain it. This led to several volunteer stories on "The First Money I Earned." Because there was not enough time to hear everybody, the class was asked to write the first record, or chapter, for the "Album-Journal."

When three chapters had been written, the students became interested in the decorative aspect of the project. After they had prepared an attractive cover, they studied the illustrative possibilities of their stories. It was decided to adapt the patterns set by magazines. Pictures cut from periodicals were pasted on a separate sheet, each picture bearing a caption borrowed from the illustrated story. Some students created their own illustrations.

Among other records the following were decided on, each one introduced in the manner of the first:

"I Shall Always Remember."
"If I Had Listened."
"Daydream."
"My Friend."

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In tabulating the results of my first records, I found that students had earned money through delivering papers, working with hucksters, running errands, minding babies, cleaning house, serving as grocery clerk, posing for a photographer, sewing buttons and collars on coats for factory workers, messenger boy for telegraph companies, mechanic, plumber's helper, and so forth.

If the kind of work performed by the pupils is not rich enough in interest, let me say that the reasons for working should touch the most cynical: to buy clothes, to contribute to the family income, to buy gifts, to pay for operations, to buy food, and so on. Each pupil is a storehouse of experiences worth long labor, difficult though it be, to penetrate. There is dignity in the emotion called forth by the performance of such a simple task as delivering a parcel for a neighbor, from whom the student refused to accept remuneration "because she couldn't afford it." There is drama in a recollection:

> "At first I was calm. But when I found that I could not touch the bottom, I began to be afraid. Then I began to sink. I made the sign of the cross, and then with all my strength I managed to reach the pier. The first thing I did when I reached it was to thank God."

There is promise of early maturity in the child of poverty who writes, "If I were rich, the first problem would be to consider the misfortune of others. . . . One does not need wealth to be happy . . . nevertheless, if we have a good job and a cozy home, nothing else matters."

What is the enterprise worth? The writing of compositions has become no mere daily assignment. Each composition is motivated not only by a desire to express one's self, but also by a realization that each composition is a chapter in a unified record of vivid life experiences; the "Album-Journal" is a coördinated work, revealing and critical.

ALLEN KANFER.

Grover Cleveland High School.

Do It Alone!

As I pored over a set of compositions, my trained eyes and brain reported on and protested against a phrase or sentence—suspiciously familiar! I looked back and found the other paper.

Next day I told the class that some one had obviously handed in work that was not his own, and that I wanted the two students involved (they would know whom I meant) to stop a moment after class. When I found six students at my desk, instead of only the two I had expected, I barely caught myself in time from asking the other four what they wanted; light dawned.

Later I was reading reports written by a superior class. Two of them included reviews of "The Red Badge of Courage," and in each I discovered a phrase including the word "writhe"—uncommon enough for the repetition of it to cause the mechanism of suspicion to function. The writers (two excellent and interested students) explained that they had discussed the book; that one of them had used the phrase; that each, when writing her report, had remembered and used it; that they often discussed their work. They seemed to find it difficult to understand why I had brought up the matter; and as I spoke to them, I found it equally difficult to justify my having done so.

Aldous Huxley, in his essay "Education," in Proper Studies (1928) writes (p. 155) in extolling the Dalton Plan, "The silence of the old classroom is abolished, and with it the preposterous notion (based on the evil system of competition and mark-grubbling) that it is dishonorable and punishably criminal to give help or to be helped by one's fellows."

I report these incidents not with the purpose of proposing any reforms, nor, I hope, because of a failure to recognize the new trends, but because they were disturbing, and "gave me to think." Perhaps, in spite of the trends, we are still unhealthfully influenced by the demands of our marking and grading systems.

MANUEL PRENNER.

James Monroe High School.

Reports on Leisure Reading: Life and Literature

An interesting variation of the usual type of report on novels or biographies read outside of class is the following form, which requires the student to compare life with literature. I asked the students to write a paper comparing the books which they had read outside of school with the circumstances of their own lives, specifying certain definite topics for their discussion. I elaborated on the topics in some such way as in indicated below:

(1) Setting: What is the time and place of the story you read? How does the setting compare with your own surroundings?

(2) Kind of people: Are the people of the novel similar to or different from the people you meet in your daily life—your friends, your parents' friends, your relatives? Are the story characters kinder or crueler, more or less educated, wiser or more thoughtless than people you know?

(3) Things that happen in the story: Mention several incidents of the story which will give the reader an idea of the kinds of adventures one finds in the book. Are the things that happen to these characters more or less exciting, interesting, complicated, depressing, or inspiring than the things that happen to you and to people you know?

(4) After considering these topics and drawing a comparison between the book and your own life, decide whether you would rather be a character in the book or whether you would rather continue to be yourself.

Some interesting results were obtained from this experiment. Its chief value, of course, lies in the fact that the students actually consider the

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books they read in the light of their own surroundings and experiences.

PAULINE T. KANE.

Washington Irving High School.

Better Speech Week at Girls Commercial High School

One Monday morning in November there was seen about the halls of the Girls Commercial High School a number of girls wearing red badges. Before the day was over another, ever-growing, group with white badges made its appearance.

Better speech week was in progress.

The red-tagged girls were speech detectives, members of the Speech Club, and girls especially selected from English classes of the 8th and 5th terms. The white-tagged girls had been "arrested" for some infringement of the laws of good speech.

Every girl who received a white tag was required to present herself before a court, prove that she knew the error she had made, and how to correct it; also pay a fine of one cent for the benefit of the Student Aid Fund.

The Speech Department had determined to make the school, for one week at least, vitally aware of the possibilities and advantages of good speech and the drawbacks of poor speech.

The court idea was only one method used to do this.

The coöperation of the Art Department was sought and there appeared in the lunch room and halls beautifully lettered posters bearing such slogans, advice, and admonitions as "Think before you lisp"; "Stop, look and listen to your speech"; "There is no joy in Jersey"; "Daisy wore a stylish dress but she would say yeah for yes"; "Hend for hand should never stand; terl for toil your speech will spoil."

The Wednesday assembly period was allotted to the department and a special program was prepared. The week before, appropriate words had been written to the popular tunes "As You Desire Me" (As you desire it, your speech can be), and "At the Mardi Gras" (If you speak in a tone that is soft and sweet, you will find that the world will be at your feet.) They were distributed among the classes to be learned and sung at the assembly.

Two short plays—with morals—were written for the occasion and presented by the Speech Club and a group of girls from a 5th term English class. (This term has speech five periods a week.)

The first play depicted a scene in a trolley car—girls going to school. The well-spoken girls contrasted with the noisy, careless ones who could not understand why they were unsuccessful socially and in the business world. This play, being true to what the girls knew and heard every day, and being somewhat humorous, was enthusiastically received. The second was a pantomime acted as one girl read the story, accompanied by the piano, to the tune of "Clementine." This tale dealt with a pretty and styl-

ish maiden who could not make a living on account of her poor speech. She was rescued by a "tall and handsome stranger" who taught her to speak well and then falling on one knee, to the great delight of the audience, begged her to marry him.

The songs were sung by the whole assemblage and the entire program was considered a success by the department and, more important still, by the school.

This is our first attempt. We know there are many ways in which we might have been more effective, but we do feel that the pupils—and the teachers—have become, temporarily at least, speech conscious, and we consider that the venture has been worthwhile as a beginning of other and better campaigns for good speech.

MILDRED W. BOLLES.

Girls Commercial High School.

Theodore Roosevelt Spelling Lists Widely Recognized

Dr. Charles Robert Gaston, Chairman of the Department of English, had long cherished an ideal for the organization of spelling; and so, when Mr. Harry M. Love suggested a revision of the term word lists, what was intended as a step toward simplification became a thorough-going scientific process in which the great authorities, such as Ayres and Thorndike, were consulted, with the result that, after a weighing of thousands of words, there were finally selected eight lists of one hundred each which satisfied a double standard, namely, difficulty in spelling and frequency in use. In other words, we resolved not only to get rid of a medieval emphasis on difficulty for its own sake, but also to build up such a vocabulary of common words as the average student in each grade might well master for daily use in writing and speech. A description of these new "friendly" lists appeared in an article published in HIGH POINTS. The lists were printed in connection with the discussion.

In September of the present year, editorial mention of our new attitude toward this vexed problem appeared in an issue of the *New York American*, with comment on the whole favorable; and the editor of the *World-Telegram* soon after drew further attention to our spelling reform. Requests began to come in from the most unexpected quarters for copies of our graded words, and the tide of applications swelled when that international newspaper, *The Christian Science Monitor*, advised its far-scattered readers of the innovation established by our school, and further extended its powerful influence by a radio broadcast of the good news.

While we are unpersuaded that our own revisions have reached an ideal goal, at least we take satisfaction in having struck a blow for human freedom. The Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution—does it not apply to minors as well as grown-ups, and is it not "slavery and involuntary servitude" to compel some healthy lad to suffer from *dyspepsia, hemorrhage, arteriosclerosis* and other horrors? Should we require of a

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bright, cheerful girl—*antipathy, lassi-*
tude, and *disingenuousness?* Our Charter of Liberty says something also, does it not, about "cruel and inhuman punishments?"

We are content, in a word, that our graduates should enter the world of business and social life with this modest bounty of eight hundred counters of verbal wealth, all of which are fully understood and often used, and—correctly spelled!

Nothing in our care of these minima is intended to restrain the building up of a vocabulary of recognition, so much needed in the reading of fine literature. But the preparation of lists for the understanding and appreciation, say, of the works of George Eliot, or Nathaniel Hawthorne, is left to the initiative of the individual teacher.

Analysis of the Errors Made in the June, 1932, Short-Hand II Regents' Examination

Last June, in a survey as careful as the brief time permitted for the handling of the Regents' Shorthand papers allowed, some interesting facts were disclosed. It is because I am confident these will prove as thought-provoking to others as they have to me that I pass them on. The study, although it originated chiefly with the idea of locating specific weaknesses in our students with a view to subsequent application of remedial measures, proved just as enlightening in a radically different direction.

From the viewpoint of the original purpose, a study of the accompanying table, the numbers of which represent totals of actual percentage losses, discloses the fact that more than half the penalties (54% of them, to be exact) were for errors in English, 26% of this 54% on paragraphing and punctuation alone! It was enlightening to note that the penalties deducted for the hyphen error comprised 6% of all penalties. The apostrophe difficulty cost us a total loss of 2%, and our actual spelling errors, the commonest of which were *salable, usual, among, shipment, handle, basis, persistence, intervals, concern, secretaries, correct, comply, exceed, valuable, crescent, today,* brought us down 13% lower than we might have been. It is discouraging to note how great were the type (or careless copying) errors that caused spelling penalties—16% of all spelling erors, 4% of all deductions. Careless capitals, too, caused appreciable minor deductions. As for actual shorthand difficulties, by far our greatest weakness (30% of all errors, 70% of shorthand errors) lay in substitution with omission weakness following as second. The substitution of a singular and plural (notably *requirement-s, economy-ies, opportunity-ies, reference-s*) cost a loss of 70 credits while the *a-the* fault occurred no less than 22 times. Tense change, as *learn* for *learned*, appeared on 17 papers and the following faults, though varying in frequency, were all sufficiently common to warrant comment:

1. Gram.; *of-to, for-in, that-with, all-and, those-this, as-his, should-shall* (hearing?).
2. Stroke size, slant or curvature; *what-account, only-until, few-future, appropriate - proper, shop - establish, filled - handle, might-say, immediate-you, may-madam, affords-offer, it is-this, address-draft, great-credit, confidence-evidence, credit-correct.*
3. Vocalization; *lowest-least, apply-comply.*
4. Numbers; each digit of which had to be separately charged for.

As for omission faults, students were notably careless with these words: *a* (17 times) *that*, a second *had* and in a discouraging number of cases, whole series of words that investigation found legibly written in the notes, or words that were given on the board for inside addresses! From these findings, it would seem that our greatest progress the coming term may be made by apportioning our teaching time in accordance with these disclosures. Certainly, while our Regents' requirements remain as they are, it would seem good policy at least to spend half of our time on those phases of English spoken of above, and the remaining time on the perfection of shorthand outlines, stressing again the weaknesses manifested by the tabular statistics.

While making this investigation, especially when recording the multitudinous number of paragraphs and punctuation errors, as well as recurring bonus deductions, another thought aside from that of remedial work occurred to me—a thought that we were getting far afield in our aims. According to the new psychology as advocated by our leading educators of today, the elimination of all useless material and the substitution of those habits, ideals, attitudes and that knowledge that have the greatest and most numerous use—that are, in a word, most serviceable in the social (and industrial) life the student will eventually pursue, must be the criteria of all aims of education today. In spite of such drastic changes in education theory promulgated in the last century, much of the old theory predominates in our present commercial education, made necessary by Regents' requirements. In the matter of the bonus alone, where can its counterpart be found in business today? Aside entirely from its unfairness, from the standpoint of the modern business procedure, it has no practical justification. It is time for it to go. It does not, moreover, take much experience with the accepted business correspondence of today, nor great acquaintance with the literary writers of the current day literature (who have in many cases even gone so far as to discard the complete sentence!) to realize that old forms are being discarded and new modes taking their place. In view of these modern trends, to quibble over the placement or omission of an unimportant comma (and it is not long since that a convention of department heads argued at great length to settle such questions, only to return to their home

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schools and penalize students for what were there moot points), in a short letter of 120 words, all on one subject anyway; to be terribly concerned whether the paragraph shall be here or there, to have to submit to goodness-knows-what group whose sacred word at Albany establishes these points, makes us all ridiculous victims of a system that has not kept abreast of the times. I do not argue for the drastic changes advocated by many of our present literary writers, but I do believe a more sane policy than insistence on rigid adherence to outgrown forms is highly desirable. The words of John Dewey, in his "Schools of Tomorrow," bespeak an ideal we might well pursue! "The problem of educational readjustment thus is to steer between the extremes of an inherited bookish education and the narrow so-called practical education. . . . But since the real question is one of reorganization of all education, to meet the changed conditions of life—scientific, social, political—accompanying the revolution in industry, the experiments which have been made with this wider end in view are especially deserving of sympathetic recognition and intelligent examination." And that, I feel, in the field of commercial education and particularly in Regents' standards, is as far as we teachers are concerned.

Below is given a tabulation that may be of interest to shorthand teachers.

REGINA W. SHANNON.
Jamaica High School.

ERRORS IN REGENTS' TEST IN SHORTHAND, JUNE, 1932

English	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5	No. 6	S.T.	%
Minor errors	10.5	48.	40.5	21	23	27	170	
Paragraph	34.5	99.	54.	22.5	32.5	66.5	308	
High Type	6.	6.		3.		2.5	17.5	
Capitals			.15	1.5	2.	1.	19.5	
Strike over		1.			1.		2.	
Erasures	5.	2.	1.5	6.5	2.	1.	17.5	
							534.	5%
Spelling								
Division	2.	10	2	2	2	2	20	
No hyphen					56		56	
Extra hyphen		6			32	16	54	
Type or copied		26	18	10	12	12	78	
Apostrophe		34	2	2			38	
Real	40.	50.	24.	28.	52.	50.	244	
							490	5%

ERRORS IN REGENTS' TEST IN SHORTHAND, JUNE, 1932—(*continued*)

Shorthand								
Omission	18.	25.	37.	42.	40.	39.	208	
Substitution	67.	114.	114.	135.	89.	80.	561	
Tense		5.	5.	2.	6.			
Number	3.	7.	38.	8.	15.	6.		
Insertion	0	14.	3.	9.	8.	5.	39	
							808	45
						Total	1832	

Aims and Motivation in Stenography and Typewriting

It is difficult to separate aim from motivation because the teacher should conduct the lesson in such a way as to make the students' aim correspond with that of the teacher. In other words, the students must be made to feel the necessity of learning whatever the topic happens to be, and this process is called motivation.

One method of motivating the stenography class is the use of the problem sentence, which is a sentence containing familiar words with the exception of one, and this word involves the point the teacher wishes to present. This method is known as the Sentence or Analytic Method.

Another method of motivating the lesson may be employed in connection with the Inductive Method. Motivation, as has been stated, is the process of making the student feel the necessity for learning the point the teacher wishes to present. In the learning of the word signs, instead of the students' accepting the form given the text, and learning each sign by rote, an explanation which will show that the forms for the word signs are not haphazard, may be given. They will readily realize that the explanation will help them to remember the word signs, and will enable them to increase their shorthand vocabulary.

An illustration of this method follows: The aim of the lesson is to teach that final *t* is omitted after *s*. The review should consist of the matter studied in the preceding lesson, and the following words: *must, list, against, trust,* all familiar word signs, and yet all are illustrations of the rule the students are learning. The teacher asks what these words have in common, and the students are thus led by their own knowledge to the formation of the new rule. As soon as the words are listed and examined, the students will realize the necessity for a rule governing all of them.

Whatever the aim of the lesson, it should always be clear, specific and known to the pupils. Among the aims in teaching shorthand is a knowledge of symbols for all sounds, of rules for joining these symbols, of

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the abbreviating principles, and, in correlation with typewriting, rules for letter placement. But knowledge or understanding of these rules, will, alone, not enable the student to take a letter from dictation. It follows then that a second aim in the teaching of our subject must be the inculcation of skill, that is, the ability to use knowledge with ease, speed and accuracy. In other words, knowledge must be reduced to a set of habits. Both knowledge and skill must, of course, be inculcated with a view to their usefulness in actual life situations.

With regard to knowledge, the aims of shorthand are the learning of the principles of the system, word signs, vocabulary, word building, the reading of shorthand notes, and, in connection with typewriting, the setting up of shorthand transcription.

With regard to skill, the aims of shorthand are to learn to write the proper *legible* symbol for each word; to learn to recognize word signs *instantly* and to write them *automatically;* to learn to recognize and write stock phrases *with ease;* to learn to recall *instantly* the outlines for particular words and to execute them *automatically;* to learn to apply known shorthand principles to new words *rapidly;* to learn to read shorthand outlines as intelligently and precisely as longhand; to develop and increase word-carrying capacity; to learn to transcribe with ease on the typewriter, this in connection with typewriting.

In Typewriting, as in Stenography, the problem of motivation is less difficult than it is in other subjects, because the students realize the practical value of the two subjects.

In Typewriting I, at the very beginning of the course, the teacher may motivate the class in connection with the touch system by explaining in simple graphic terms the results achieved by a group of students studying by the old sight method, and another group using the touch method. These results were set forth in detail by William Book in his "Psychology of Skill as Applied to Typewriting."

The teacher can motivate rhythmic typewriting by demonstrating a line of type done in uneven rhythm, and show the uneven spacing and touch resulting. Since the students enjoy the feeling of creating a perfect piece of work, they will want to avoid a practice which will result in poor appearance.

Where the work in any subject resembles its functioning in real life situations, the students are bound to feel more profoundly the need for learning the subject. For that reason the sooner the class proceeds from letter combinations to words (without, of course, limiting the amount of drill necessary for the former), from words to sentences, to paragraphs, and finally to letters, the better will the class retain interest in the subject.

The artistic features of typewriting never fail to interest the students. For this reason, a class can be motivated by being shown artistically arranged material, and being asked to make a perfect reproduction of the model.

A very live form of motivation is a demonstration of accuracy at a good rate of speed by the teacher.

Where time allows, the teacher may permit the students to keep accuracy charts as illustrated below:

Mary Jones	October											
	1	2	3	4	5	8	9	10	11	12	15	etc.
100												
90												
80												
70												
60												
50												
40												
30												
20												
10												
0												

An example follows: On October 1, Mary Jones typed 50 words and made 3 typewriting errors. She deducts 3 from 50 and finds that she had 47 perfect words. She reduces the fraction 47/50 to per cent, and find that her percentage of accuracy is 94% for October 1. On October 2, she typed 100 words, and made 12 errors. Her accuracy percentage for this date would therefore be 88%. A broken line would represent her rate of progress or the reverse.

The aims of typewriting are first and foremost accuracy. The word "speed" should not be mentioned before the second year, and even then it is hardly necessary; for the student who is typewriting with accuracy will develop a higher speed gradually. His knowledge of typewriting should also include the parts of the machine with which he comes in contact, the folding of letters, the setting up of letters, the typing of envelopes, bills, telegrams and other special business forms, the use of the carbon, stencil cutting, tabulation; in correlation with the English—the correct syllabication and abbreviation of words, and, in correlation with stenography, transcription of shorthand notes.

Lillian C. Heisler.
James Monroe High School.

Syllabic Intensity of the Regents' Shorthand Examination

Teachers of dictation classes have noticed for some time that they could dictate a letter at a certain rate of speed and find that every pupil had taken it down with ease. But then the teacher dictated another letter at a same rate of speed she might find that perhaps 5 or 6 pupils had successfully noted what she had dictated. It was known that some material was more difficult than others, but the letters were not graded as to difficulty until some time ago.

It was found that some letters had 120 syllables to every 100 words. Other letters had 180 syllables to every 100 words. Therefore, although the teacher might still be dictating at the same rate of words per minute, the number of syllables might often vary from 120-180 per minute.

One or two of the newer dictation books have adapted this method of dividing words into syllables, and have arranged the letters according to syllabic intensity. It is therefore, easier

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now for the teachers to grade the difficulty of the dictation.

Preparation for the Regents' Examination is always a problem, and teachers have always had difficulty in deciding just what kind of material to dictate. To dictate material that is too easy will give the pupils no preparation. To dictate matter that is too difficult is discouraging. One of the editors of the American Shorthand Teachers investigated the syllabic intensity of thousands of business letters, and found that the average was about 140 syllables to every 100 words, that is a syllabic intensity of 1.4. This investigation has been used as a guide by many teachers in choosing material to be dictated to Regents' Classes. In spite of that, pupils have complained that many of the Regents' Examinations are too difficult.

In order to ascertain the difficulty of the Regents' Examinations, I made an investigation of the syllabic intensity of the letters given during the past few years. It will be seen that the range is from 1.3 to 1.8. It is therefore, advisable for the teachers who wish to prepare their pupils properly to dictate matter within this range of intensity.

The following is a tabulation of the syllabic intensity of letters given in the Regents' Shorthand Examinations from January, 1928 to January, 1933.

SYLLABIC INTENSITY

REGENTS' SHORTHAND EXAMINATION

JANUARY 1928-JANUARY 1933

Letters	1	2	3	4	5	6	Average
January, 1928.....	1.55	1.52	1.66	1.55	1.53	1.57	1.56
January, 1929.....	1.66	1.47	1.45	1.88	1.49	1.46	1.56
June, 1929.....	1.36	1.55	1.41	1.59	1.69	1.69	1.54
June, 1930.....	1.30	1.58	1.76	1.73	1.72	1.50	1.64
January, 1931.....	1.46	1.32	1.40	1.30	1.52	1.73	1.43
June, 1931.....	1.55	1.58	1.59	1.58	1.79	1.53	1.60
January, 1932.....	1.08	1.36	1.49	1.47	1.39	1.55	1.39
June, 1932.....	1.40	1.42	1.39	1.52	1.48	1.60	1.47
January, 1933.....	1.48	1.54	1.56	1.42	1.70	1.57	1.59

M. E. ZINMAN,
Chairman, Shorthand Department.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Citizens' Conference Asks Priority for Education

"Our Nation faces the acute responsibility of providing a right-of-way for the American child," declared President Herbert Hoover in opening the Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education which he called in Washington, D. C., on January 5 and 6.

"We may delay other problems but we cannot delay the day-to-day care and instruction of our children. This conference is unusual, in that it invites the coöperation of men of widely different points of view in consideration of our school and tax system from the standpoint of maintaining the welfare of the children of today."

The group of men and women meeting in the National Academy of Science at the President's call was not unlike a school board. Familiar civic interests were represented by 71 national leaders. Spokesmen for the five groups who coöperated in calling the conference were: Frank Morrison, American Federation of Labor; Dean Charles H. Judd, American Council on Education; Louis J. Taber, National Grange; Charles E. Hearst, Iowa Farm Bureau Federation; Howell Cheney, National Association of Manufacturers. Among the other participants were President Rosier of the National Education Association, Mrs. Hugh Bradford, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Mrs. Grace Poole of the Federation of Women's Clubs; and John J. O'Connor of the United States Chamber of Commerce.

The members of the conference were at once informed of the extent of the crisis in education in reports by the Office of Education and the National Education Association summarized in a pamphlet, "The Current Situation in Education, Increased Responsibilities—Decreased Revenues." They listened to statements made by representatives of various participating groups on needs and remedies. They discovered that each group was devoted to the cause of adequate public education.

Dividing into six committees, the conference endeavored to agree on prescriptions for the succor of education in the crisis. The six committees discussed: (A) Relation of Expenditures for Education to Expenditures for Other Public Service; (B) Organization and Operation of Instruction; (C) Buildings; (D) Higher Education; (E) Relations of Schools and Other Social Agencies; (F) Legislation.

After two days' vigorous and earnest discussion the conference adopted 40 recommendations. The declarations include suggestions for the President and Congress, governors and legislators, school boards, superintendents and citizens. Those which are probably of chief interest are in brief:

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Local governments and local school districts should be reorganized and consolidated.

Administrative control of the schools must be centralized in the superintendent.

State administrative organization of education must be reorganized through creation of a non-political and professional agency for administration of educational policies.

The State must assume the responsibility . . . assuring adequate public education to all local communities. . . .

We especially urge law-making bodies to give priority to legislation which will alleviate conditions in communities now being required to make injurious curtailments in their school programs because of unusual burdens, inequitable tax systems or faulty fiscal machinery.

We urge Congress to provide for Federal assistance through emergency loans for a limited period to such States as may make an adequate showing of their inability to maintain reasonable standards of support for public school education.

. . . immediate reformation of the system of taxation.

Immediate efforts should be made through the raising of the general level of commodity prices, the correction of serious economic maladjustments, and otherwise, to increase the volume of income and purchasing power, and thus to provide the moneys necessary for a proper educational program. If this is not done, wide-spread injury will result, not only to the cause of education, but to the value of all obligations, public and private. . . .

. . . recommends . . . consideration by another conference . . . of steps . . . for increasing the level of income and of purchasing power.

. . . opposed to the shortening of the school year below the term existing previous to the depression. . . .

The teaching load should not be increased either in courses or hours, beyond the ability of the individual teacher to offer a reasonable standard of instruction to each pupil, and should be adjusted in relation to the quality of supervision, the experience and qualifications of the teacher, the provisions for exceptional pupils, and the methods of grouping pupils.

The size of classes in all special subjects such as art, music, manual and domestic arts should be made as large as that of the average academic class; in secondary schools laboratory periods in the sciences should be of the same length as periods for other subjects, and standards of accrediting agencies which now prevent such arrangement should be modified.

. . . postponing of building construction . . . reorganization of business departments . . . adjustment of the size of class; and . . . curtailing the activities of auxiliary agencies, etc., . . . before readjustment of teachers' salaries. . . .

Readjustment of salaries, if necessary, should be made in relation to the reduction in the cost of living of the teaching group in any given community. . . .

Consideration should be given in a long term building program to the fact that unit costs are probably at a minimum. . . .

Careful study should be made of the purchase, distribution, and utilization of fuel and other supplies used by building employees. . . . The number of building employees should be kept at what is actually needed. . . .

Careful attention should be paid to the preparation of proper specifications, the purchase, distribution, care and use of all supplies and equipment. Permanent inventories in all cases should be maintained. Where school districts are small, coöperative plans of purchasing supplies and equipment might be made under the initiative of State departments of education. . . .

. . . effective, economical and non-political operation and adaptation of the plan of popular education, at all levels, from the elementary schools through the universities, are fundamental obligations of the American State. . . .

The essential limitation upon attendance on secondary schools of any grade is the requirement that the student give such evidence of a continuing and developing ability to learn. . . .

. . . there should be set up in every locality, councils broadly representative to mobilize and clarify public opinion in the present crisis in education.

. . . The home, the Church, the library, all must be maintained and strengthened along with the schools . . . adult education must not be forgotten. . . .

The Conference notes the critical condition of certain under-privileged groups, particularly the Negroes. . . .

. . . We recommend that the Office of Education give nation-wide continuing publicity to efforts of various localities in moving promptly and energetically to maintain and extend their social services.

. . . regrets Congress found it necessary to discontinue the study of school finance carried on under the direction of the United States Office of Education . . . hope ways may be found to resume study.

—*Release of the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior.*

President Hoover's Statement on Schools

"Our Nation faces the acute responsibility of providing a right-of-way for the American child. In spite of our economic, social and governmental difficulties, our future citizens must be built up now. We may delay other problems but we cannot delay the day-to-day care and instruction of our children.

"This conference is unusual, in that it invites the coöperation of men of widely different points of view in the consideration of our school and tax system from the standpoint of main-

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taining the welfare of the children of today.

"Our governmental forces have grown unevenly and along with our astounding national development. We are now forced to make decisions on the merits of the various expenditures. But in the rigid governmental economies that are requisite everywhere, we must not encroach upon the schools or reduce the opportunity of the child, through the school, to develop adequate citizenship. There is no safety for our Republic without the education of our youth. That is the first charge upon all citizens and local governments.

"I have confidence that with adequate reduction of expenditures there can be ample amounts obtained from reasonable taxation to keep our school system intact and functioning satisfactorily. Those in charge of the schools must be willing to face conditions as they are, to coöperate in discarding all unnecessary expenditures, to analyze all procedures, and to carry forward on a solid basis of economy. But the schools must be carried on.

"I wish to thank you for giving of your time and coming here to Washington for this meeting. I trust that out of it will come recommendations that will be of national significance.

"Above all, may I ask that throughout your deliberations you bear in mind that the proper care and training of our children is more important than any other process that is carried on by our Government? If we are to continue to educate our children, we must keep and sustain our teachers and our schools."

Secretary Ray Lyman Wilbour Urges Fight for Schools

"You have met to decide what will happen to this generation of American children—what can be done to see that the boys and girls of today are not robbed of their educational birthright. You must take an aggressive attitude toward schools if we are to keep them open. It is not a matter of passing resolutions but a matter of fighting. Fight through! Figh highways! Fight politics! Fight all groups! It is worth while."

—*Release of the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior.*

Character Development for Citizenship

The National Self Government Committee has received a most reassuring report from the Board of Regents of New York State on

CITIZENSHIP TRAINING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

As is well known, teachers protest they cannot pay more attention to *character* development for citizenship because Regents' or college requirements of *scholarship* are so severe.

The Committee recently urged the Regents to steer the course set by the Fathers of the Republic, namely, a public school system devoted primarily to citizenship and government: (To quote only a few.)

Franklin: "for public service"

Washington: "an enlightened opinion on self government"

Madison and Monroe: "for government."

The Regents' reply to the Committee agrees with this viewpoint and out of a long report the following concluding page tells the story:

THE BOARD OF REGENTS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

"A REPORT ON CITIZENSHIP TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF THE STATE"

"The Department contemplates a complete revision of the syllabus for citizenship and patriotism, based upon the fundamental philosophy that 'a child learns by doing.' Such a syllabus will suggest to the teacher many ways of providing for pupil participation in the control of home room and of the school.

"Growing out of curriculum study in the secondary school is a demand that the Department, with the assistance of public school teachers and supervisors, prepare a syllabus in social science, the subject content of which will take the place of that now outlined separately under the various subject titles: Civics, History A, History B, and History C. This syllabus will suggest to the teacher how to organize and guide many worthwhile group activities closely allied to the classroom work. A growing adolescent does not need the factual material of four separate unrelated courses, but an acquaintance with the simple and fundamental principles of social responsibility which will tend to make him an intelligent and useful member of a social group.

"The department plans to make a survey of the status of student participation in the government of the elementary and high school. The results of this survey will indicate what steps must be taken to assure the public that the school is keeping an even balance between book-work and worthwhile social activities. It will be the aim of the Department to see that every pupil has an opportunity to participate in the civic and social life of the school so far as he is able, realizing that it is through participation—'doing'—that citizenship becomes meaningful."

CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY.
VICE CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY.

Pan-American Day: A Proclamation by the President of the United States of America*

Whereas the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, at the session held on Wednesday, May 7, 1930, adopted a resolution reading as follows:

"Whereas, it would be desirable to recommend the designation of a date which should be observed as

* This year Pan American Day will be celebrated in New York City in a program given under the auspices of the Pan American Society the afternoon of April 11, in the ballroom of the Waldorf-Astoria. The program will be in charge of students from the high schools, with the coöperation of the Pan American Student League.

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'Pan American Day' in all the Republics of America and which should be established as a commemorative symbol of the sovereignty of the American nations and the voluntary union of all in one continental community;

"Whereas, April 14th is the date on which the resolution creating the Pan American Union was adopted;

"The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

Resolves:

"To recommend that the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, designate April 14th as 'Pan American Day' and that the national flags be displayed on that date."

Now, therefore, I, Herbert Hoover, President of the United States of America, in order to give effect to the resolution adopted by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, do hereby proclaim April 14th as "Pan American Day," and do hereby order that the flag of the United States be displayed on all Government buildings on that date, and do invite the schools, civic associations, and people of the United States generally to observe the day with appropriate ceremonies, thereby giving expression to the spirit of continental solidarity and to the sentiments of cordiality and friendly feeling which the Government and people of the United States entertain toward the peoples and Governments of the other Republics of the American Continent.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington this 28th day of May, in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and thirty, and of the Independence of the United States (Seal) of America the one hundred and fifty-fourth.

HERBERT HOOVER.

By the President:

H. L. Stimson,
Secretary of State.

Good Food for Little Money to Protect the Health of Children; by Lucy H. Gillett

A handy guide to the wise and economical selection of foods for the family.

Lists those foods that will protect health, build sound bodies, and develop resistance to disease.

Suggests a week's food orders for families of various sizes.

This leaflet is obtainable at the following prices, which include postage:

1 to 3 copies	$ .03 each
4 to 9 "	.01 "
10 to 24 "	.008 "
25 to 99 "	.007 "
100 copies	.50
500 copies	2.25

1,000 to 5,000 copies cost $3.50 per thousand, f.o.b. New York. Larger quantity prices on request.

PUBLISHED BY THE AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION, 450 SEVENTH AVENUE, NEW YORK CITY

Publications of the First National Survey of High Schools

Titles and prices of 28 monographs reporting findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education have been announced by the Federal Office of Education. Orders may be placed with the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., specifying Office of Education, Bulletin 1932 No. 17, together with monograph numbers. Each monograph is bound separately. There is no provision for issuance of survey findings in one complete volume. The complete set of 28 monographs costing $3.80 may be ordered, however, and monographs will be mailed as they come from the press. (Enclose check or money order with order.)

The list (with prices) is as follows:

Monograph No.

1—Summary. 15c.
2—The Horizontal Organization of Secondary Education — A Comparison of Comprehensive and Specialized Schools. 20c.
3—Part-Time Secondary Schools. 10c.
4—The Secondary-School Population. 10c.
5—The Reorganization of Secondary Education. 40c.
6—The Smaller Secondary Schools. 15c.
7—Secondary Education for Negroes. 10c.
8—District Organization and Secondary Education. 15c.
9—Legal and Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Education. 10c.
10—Articulation of High School and College. 10c.
11—Administration and Supervision. 15c.
12—Selection and Appointment of Teachers. 10c.
13—Provisions for Individual Differences, Markings, and Promotion. 40c.
14—Programs of Guidance. 10c.
15—Research in Secondary Schools. 10c.
16—Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public. 10c.
17—The Secondary-School Library. 10c.
18—Procedures in Curriculm Making. 10c.
19—The Program of Studies. 15c.
20—Instruction in English. 10c.
21—Instruction in the Social Subjects. 10c.
22—Instruction in Science. 10c.
23—Instruction in Mathematics. 10c.
24—Instruction in Foreign Languages. 10c.
25—Instruction in Music and Art. 10c.
26—Non-Athletic Extracurriculum Activities. 15c.
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28—Health and Physical Education. 10c.

Announcements giving time of issuance of the various monographs will appear from month to month in *School Life*, official journal of the Federal Office of Education.

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REVIEWS

An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences

By Henry Johnson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The small volume under consideration is the second of a series which the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools is publishing. It is really a brief review of the history of the *teaching* of the social studies, an "exploratory survey," which the author expects to amplify at some future date. The teacher and the curriculum maker will find the three closing chapters most useful, for it is in them that Professor Johnson offers challenging material of present-day interest. The rest of the book develops the thesis that many supposedly new principles and new discoveries are really "re-discoveries," that some of them go back to dim antiquity, and that what we have done is to dress up these ideas and to give them fancy names.

It is quite apparent, says the author, that history written even in ancient times and in the Middle Ages recognized the idea of a changing world, used the past to interpret contemporaneous events and emphasized the need of searching the past for its lessons and precepts. Didactic history was especially prominent in the Middle Ages, though it also appears frequently among writers of early modern times; for example, in the works of such 16th century thinkers as Luthers and Vives, the Spanish humanist, both of whom were interested in the moral influence of history. Still another characteristic that developed was intense patriotism. But Professor Johnson goes on to show that exaggerated nationalism in history writing was a trait which continued down to our own day. In fact, he quotes the introduction to a text-book published in Boston in 1898 which asked the question, "Why are Americans the bravest men and the most successful inventors, explorers, authors and scientists? In short, why is the United States the greatest nation in history?" There is ample evidence, then, that writers of early modern times, like writers of a much later day, were scrupulous in the selection of material which suited their own purpose, be that the inculcation of moral precepts, patriotism or anything else.

The 16th century was distinctive in the sense that for the first time actual history text-books appeared, that history assumed definitely a place in the school curriculum, and that it was taught by special teachers. Visual aids were now being introduced, and what we call the cultivation of desirable attitudes took on a definite aim. Yet it was another century before the study of history was required in the schools.

In the subsequent chapters, Professor Johnson sketches the contributions of a number of men to the evolution of history teaching, all of them advocating ideas which seem as if they had been expressed on this very day. Comenius, for example, favored the study of history right through the university, preferred arrangement by "units" and argued for the necessity of more social history. Weise is particularly modern, for he advocates map studies, drill work, contemporary history, the use of newspapers, improvement in the art of questioning, the use of the "regressive method" and well-prepared teachers. Rousseau emphasized the study of geography and biography for young people, would have them learn what was useful and would let them draw their own conclusions. While he felt that there was more of evil, prejudice and illusion than was good for Emile, nevertheless he saw in history an opportunity to study the "human heart." The many-sided Priestley prepared syllabi which contained a pretty thorough treatment of the history of civilization. In his scheme, history would be taught to develop "the able statesman and the intelligent and useful citizen." He advocated much pupil activity and frank classroom discussion on controversial issues. The eccentric and revolutionary Basedow strove to cultivate the historical sense and what we now call "world-mindedness." He, too, used the "regressive method." His disciples offered an approach to the culture-epoch theory and advocated the study of the immediate community for young children. Perhaps we are not accustomed to thinking of Frederick the Great as something of a landmark in the history of history teaching. Nevertheless, he appears to have made some highly significant contributions. He favored history not only because of its moral lessons, but because of the broad vision that might be gained by studying it. Tell the truth, he said, stress the important, pay more attention to events of your own time. In Carl Muller, Professor Johnson discovers a valuable kinsman. Muller was an enthusiast over the mission and the value of his subject. He favored the study of history to meet current needs and proposed a whole course with appropriately fitting parts. In his concept of history as the story of humanity as a whole, and in his plea for correlation with other subjects, this early 19th century writer does appear, indeed, strangely modern.

Three great movements, pertinent to the problems of our own day, are then taken up by the author. First is the problem of the relationship between history and other subjects. The author shows that while some kind of fusion has always received serious consideration, nevertheless, difference has arisen over the subject which should constitute the core, so to speak. Largely because of the influence of Herbart, or, more appropriately, Herbart's disciples, we in the United States have experimented more or less successfully with correlation. Sometimes this correlation, whether between history and the other social studies or between the social

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studies and other subjects of the curriculum, has proved to be an excursion into the ridiculous. More recently emphasis has been placed not so much on the subject as the core, but rather on what the author calls "group correlation." Thus arose the "social" studies. But, the author points out, remarkable as has been the progress in correlation, the movement for fusion (that is, for the disappearance of separate social studies) has made little headway in this country.

A second consideration of timely interest is that which concerns *what* should be taught. Professor Johnson shows that an examination of textbooks and syllabi reveals unmistakable tendencies to teach what fits the particular time or place, the particular social group, or "pressure group," aye, even the particular pupil. This strained effort has led to the perversion of history teaching into propaganda and sometimes into deliberate falsification. The author sounds a dismal note as he observes the dissention wrought over the question of *what* to teach. "The general result is that history has become, to a degree new in the United States, a controversial subject. We have been rapidly moving in that direction since about 1918, and if we go on may produce a condition that will force history out of the public school's curriculum, and relegate it to the domain to which religion has already been relegated."

Finally, the author examines the extent which contemporary history has been emphasized. Despite the attention given to recent and current problems by older writers, as we have seen, interest in contemporary history is rather a late development both in Europe and in America. Probably the greatest progress in the matter of teaching current problems has been made in this country. This is undoubtedly due to the feeling that the pupil should know thoroughly the world in which he lives, and that the past should be taught as the basis for understanding the needs of our own time. Pedagogically, the increasing popularity of the "regressive," topical treatment is evidence of this type of orientation. But in Europe the study of recent history has been affected by strongly nationalistic considerations, for some countries are more eager to emphasize a pride in the past; while others (like Russia and Italy) choose to part with the past and stress movements and ideals which have developed since the war.

Teachers of history would do well to acquaint themselves with the implications regarding the extent of correlation, the choice of the subject matter and, in general, the question of teaching for "present needs," which Professor Johnson discusses in his concluding chapters. Certainly, the movement to revise the syllabus in American history in the high schools of this city can gain much by a careful consideration of the dangers against which the author warns.

LUCIAN LAMM,
Chairman, History Department.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

Education and the Modern World

By Bertrand Russell. W. W. Norton.

In "Education and the Modern World," Bertrand Russell is occupied with the deeper social and individual implications of education for adult life. Though education in its larger sense is not very closely linked with mathematical physics and theoretical science, Russell's métier, he nevertheless brings to his subject a mind to which, in the truly Terentian sense, nothing human is alien. Pedagogically, Russell is no mere dilettante—for his own school in England has attracted more than local attention and applause.

The *leit-motif* which runs through this work is simply this: Shall education train citizens or shall it train complete, full, harmoniously developed individuals? To Russell, this presents an almost insoluble difficulty. For it is his contention that education, as organized today, places a greater emphasis on social rather than on personal virtues. He grants that this must be so, since our civilization is so intricately interdependent that a lack of social solidarity would inevitably lead to anarchy. The individual is first a social creature, and then a unique entity. This much is incontrovertible. But there is the danger, Russell points out, that the State, in moulding a social-minded citizenry, may stifle certain very valuable traits whose significance is not entirely social. Russell reluctantly reconciles himself to the fact that a sense of vivid world-citizenship has a vaster import than the "sense of glory" with which the fully-developed ego invests its owner. With a nostalgic sigh and a wistful look backward at the Titans of yesterday, he remarks that, ". . . the education of the individual is to my mind a finer thing than the education of the citizen; but, considered politically, and in relation to the needs of the time, the education of the citizen must, I fear, take the first place."

Throughout the book, the individual is conceived of as a battleground of external forces wrestling for the possession of this soul. The State, the church, the herd, each want him for their own. And so from birth to death, he is a prize for which all with with any special interest to serve seek avidly to capture and by means not always scrupulously immaculate. How is Everyman to appease all these factions and yet retain his intellectual and emotional identity, his "me-ness"? That is the crucial question which Russell raises, but does not answer. From out of these chapters on types of education, on sex, patriotism, religion, propaganda, economics, class-feeling in education, there emerges no clear course. The analyses are trenchant, deep, and basic. The brutal contradictions inherent in our social, political and economic systems are laid bare, quivering hot and repulsive under the cold, unerring scalpel of Russell's mordant observations. But, enough, enough of this! Is there no Balm in Gilead, no emollient to

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soothe the seared tissues of a groaning civilization? Just this, says Russell, in a truculent peroration which ends on a note of vague and dubious optimism: "Our world is a mad world. Ever since 1914, it has ceased to be constructive because men will not follow their intelligence in creating international coöperation, but persist in retaining the division of mankind into hostile roups. . . . The source of all this does not lie in the external world. . . . It lies in our passions; it lies in our emotional habits; it lies in the sentiments instilled in youth, and the phobias created in infancy. The cure for our problem is to make men sane, and to make men sane, they must be educated sanely. . . . Can it be wondered at that a world in which the forces of the State are devoted to producing in the young insanity, stupidity, readiness for homicide, economic injustice, and ruthlessness—can it be wondered at, I say, that such a world is not a happy one? . . . Our age is so painful that many of the best men have been seized with despair. But there is no rational ground for despair: the means of happiness for the human race exist, and it is only necessary that the human race should choose to use them."

Those who look to Russell for a definite program to get us out of the Slough of Despond will be disappointed. He has none to offer. Only the querulous will quibble at Russell's findings. They are indisputable. They are known to us. But emotional excitation, intellectual stimulation provide no basis on which to build a newer, better, more finely integrated educational system. There is need for definiteness, specificity in our educational aims and policies. Despite his contemporary relevance, his indubitably profound grasp of education in all its ramifications, Russell still has about him the exasperating elusiveness of the Utopian. Where the situation demands immediate means and ends, he points to a feasible, but all-too-distant prospect.

While he does not soothe our spirits in travail, Russell must be read by all who are interested in the current education scene. His philosophic detachment, his impartial dealing where partisanship is rife, his pellucid style, his rare and brilliant wit, are qualities all too rare in the pedagogical forum today. He is no facile server of panaceas. His is a germinal mind, pregnant with many vital suggestions for the clear-seeing, practical-headed educator.

A. H. Lass.

Manual Training High School.

The Theory of Education in the United States

By Albert Jay Nock. Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932.

This book contains a series of lectures given by the author at the University of Virginia in 1931. I shall first present a brief outline of these lectures, and then give a critical evaluation of some of the ideas therein developed.

Some thirty-five years ago a revolution occurred in the theory and practice of education in this country. Prior to that time a small select group received a secondary school education, and a very much smaller group went to college. The course then was dominated by the study of Latin, Greek, and Mathematics. Education was formative and disciplinary. It was the age of the "Great Tradition."

But suddenly there came a swift change. Our secondary schools, colleges, and universities opened their doors to almost all comers, and in order to retain this horde of poorly prepared and mentally inferior students, our educational administrators were forced to abandon Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, and to replace these disciplinary studies with all sorts of vocational courses, English courses, and diluted sciences. Standards had to be steadily lowered, courses of study incessantly tinkered with, and methods of teaching changed only to be changed again and again. The burden of learning was placed on the teacher rather than on the student, and the teacher felt himself compelled to smooth the way for the lazy and incompetent and to give passing grades to many who were obvious failures. The product of such a system was a bitter disappointment to both the professional educator and the layman.

Such is the state of education in this country today, and such it must necessarily be, if we but examine the theories that underlie our educational procedure. These theories are: the idea of equality, the idea of democracy, and the idea that a literate citizenry will assure public order and honest government. All three ideas have sound philosophical bases, but all three have been popularly formulated and distorted so as to lead to false practices. The assumption that everybody is educable is popularly regarded as implicit in the doctrine of equality. Also "people accept as democratic what is merely indiscriminate. They have a strong resentment of superiority. They resent the thought that there are practicable ranges of intellectual and spiritual experience, achievement, and enjoyment which by nature are open to some and not all. We must aim at no ideals above those of the average man. The lowest common denominator of intelligence, taste, and character dominate. Hence the slogan 'we must give the people what they want,' not what they should want or might profitably want."

Mr. Nock's comment on the third theory is very caustic. He says: "The mere ability to read raises no very extravagant presumptions upon the person who has it. Surely everything depends upon what he reads, and upon the purpose that guides him in reading it. . . . Consider what our large literate population reads—the colossal and unconscionable volume of garbage annually shot upon the public from the presses of the country, largely in the form of newspapers and periodicals . . . any expectations put upon the saving grace of literacy are illusory."

We know, as a matter of course, that only very few people are educa-

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ble; but nearly all can be instructed and trained. There is a vast difference between education and instruction. Hence, if we realize that what we are doing is training and not educating, we would not be disappointed in the results. Indeed, this type of instruction and training should be extended to include many more of the uneducables. But we must not expect to gather grapes from thorns. As a matter of fact, considering the material, our educational system in this country is doing a pretty good job.

We must, however, realize that our colleges and universities have no right to be called such. They are chiefly engaged in training motor-minded persons in vocational pursuits. A list of the subjects that are counted toward a bachelor's degree at Columbia would amaze anyone educated in some of the continental countries. Here are some of them: writing of advertising copy, practical poultry-raising, business English, elementary stenography, newspaper practice, feature writing, wrestling and self-defense, the fundamental processes of cookery, fundamental problems in clothing, family meals, food etiquette and hospitality, principles of home laundering, gymnastics and dancing (including clog-dancing). Truly bargain-counter education.

Unfortunately, while concentrating our attention on the uneducable we are neglecting the very small group that is educable. The abilities of this latter group largely go to waste, and there is no college in the country where our finest minds can receive an education.

How different is the educational situation in Europe! There educational administrators are not hampered by any false theories of pseudo-equality and pseudo-democracy, and hence they give their students an education that is really formative and disciplinary. Only those who show ability to do clear, sustained, and hard thinking are allowed to go to secondary school and college.

This, in brief, is what Mr. Nock has to say about education in this country. He says it tersely, forcefully, and beautifully. There is a challenge on almost every page. But one puts down the book with a feeling of regret and irritation that such a fine, clear-cut analysis should lead to a conclusion of futility and despair. He despairs because in this country the day of the "Great Tradition" is gone, never to return.

That he has correctly diagnosed the educational situation no informed person can question. The distinction he makes between instruction and education is sound. The theories underlying our educational practices have never before been so clearly exposed. The recognition of the existence of a vast horde of uneducables who can only be vocationally trained bears out what every experienced teacher knows. But that one must study Latin and Greek to obtain an education that is formative and disciplinary, is certainly debatable. The sciences, mathematics, modern foreign languages, history, sociology, economics, psychology, and philosophy (all of these undiluted) afford ample opportunity for clear, sound, sustained, mature, and profound thinking.

When he says that there is not a single college or university in the country today where one can obtain a real education, he simply asserts what is not so. True, there are many courses of a trifling and pseudo-educational character, but at any one of our first-rate universities it is possible to do work of a very high order in any of the subjects enumerated above. I am told that even the author's *sine qua non* of education—classical languages and literatures—may be intensively studied there.

One final thought. He laments the passing of the "Great Tradition." He will admit that in the past our leaders in government and in big affairs, both here and abroad, were brought up in the "Great Tradition." Has their leadership promoted the happiness of the mass of mankind? Has it not rather led to crushing exploitation, widespread misery, and the wholesale butchery of organized war? We cannot possibly make a worse mess than was made for us during the many centuries that were dominated by the "Great Tradition."

CHARLES SOLOMON.
Chairman, Department of Mathematics.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

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PROGRESS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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Books concerned with educational matters may be sent for review to Miss Helen L. Cohen, Washington Irving High School. School text-books will not be reviewed.

The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11" in size. They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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BY WAY of summary, the depression has brought about a condition of unrest and chaos in our national and individual lives. Its effects have been felt by every institution because of lasting and permanent changes that have occurred. These changes preclude any hope that we might entertain of returning to any previous set of ideals, objectives, or conditions. Retrenchment or reversal of form is therefore impracticable. It is necessary to reconstruct our institutions to meet a life which has seen a phenomenal change in the last decade and which will have even a more rapid change in the years to come.

In order to meet the adjustment successfully, it is necessary to co-ordinate the efforts of all our institutions toward an integrated life that will give individuals the best opportunities for growth and development. The proposal that is suggested is the development of the national conference plan for the development of an integrated program. This planning will be effected as a result of the determination by prediction of what American life in its respective phases will become. It will be the task of education so to construct its system of training that children will not only live most efficiently here and now, but that their personalities will be integrated so as best to meet the conditions of life that they are likely to find in a few years to come.

DOUGLAS B. MILLER

In his article, "The Depression's Challenge for Educational Reconstruction," in **Educational Method** for November, 1932.

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THE CHALLENGE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY *

JAMES TRUSLOW ADAMS in "The Epic of America," gives beautiful expression to the American dream —"that dream of a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for every man, with opportunity for each according to his ability or achievement. A dream of a social order in which each man and each woman shall be able to attain to the fullest stature of which they are innately capable, and be recognized by others for what they are, regardless of fortuitous circumstances of birth or position."

With complete knowledge and a thorough understanding of the trials, the tribulations, the struggles, the hardships and the achievements of the pioneers on the successive expanding frontiers of our nation, and with a deep insight into the dynamic causes of the various conflicts through which our young nation had to pass in the process of political, economic, social, educational and spiritual adjustment to achieve a position of leadership among the nations of the world, James Truslow Adams, author of "The Epic" keeps full faith in the common man. Adams rises to higher and higher levels of democratic idealism where, with prophetic vision, he sees the promised land of the American dream.

Will the American dream come true? Will democracy save itself? Will men, women and children learn, acquire, cherish and use those values of life which create and develop a richer and fuller life for all? Will the citizenry of America be privileged to enter this blessed land of promise on earth, where all will work cheerfully together, each giving the best of himself for the good of all; where competitive struggle for position, wealth or power will cease, where individual and social strife to build merely bigger and bigger than before will disappear, and where coöperative service to build better and better on the solid foundation of finer qualitative and abiding values of life will be the greatest motivating power for individual and social action?

EDUCATION MUST BE WIDENED, DEEPENED

To a very large degree the answer to these questions will depend upon our educational vision, our educational philosophy, and our educational practice. We must add length, breadth, depth and height to our educational structure. Education must be lengthened beyond the school years of the child, *i.e.*, education and life should be coterminous. Education must be widened to embrace more and more recreational, social and civic activities so that all children and adults in our society may be profitably engaged during their leisure hours. Education must be deepened so that the finer fundamental qualities and potentiali-

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ties of each individual may be reached, understood and then wholesomely developed for the greatest good of both the individual and society. And finally, education must hold her torch of enlightenment high enough to illumine clearly the highest ideals of a genuine democracy, and those abiding spiritual values of life which should guide all human beings.

Juvenile delinquency is only one of the end results of the individual's maladjustment to the many demands made upon him by various complex human relationships and codes in modern society. The causes of individual and social maladjustment have been studied by many scientists in the fields of sociology, psychology, physiology, biology, anthropology, criminology, neurology, psychiatry and education as well as by social workers and religious leaders. As a result of these numerous studies and investigations, conclusions have been drawn that some of the causes of maladjustment are to be found within the individual himself, *e.g.*, physical or organic deficiency and disease, glandular disfunction, intellectual inferiority, feelings of insecurity, emotional instability due to infantile fixations or frustrations, unsatisfied cravings for attention and love, early conditioned reflexes or responses, compensations, etc., volitional inefficiency, social inadequacy, lack of moral tonicity, vigor or power, loss of religious comfort, consolidation, peace, inspiration, and guidance, and numerous functional disorders of the psychobiological human organism. Other causes of maladjustment are to be found in the total environment which surrounds the individual, *e.g.*, lack of wholesome, cultural, social and recreational opportunities in the community, lack of stimulating and attractive environment in the home (the broken home, constant conflicts and quarrels in the home, destructive influences of delinquent parents in the home, and the like) and the unfortunate disintegrating influences of various social, economic and political evils which surround the child in the community in which he lives. Another set of causes of maladjustment may be traced definitely to the associations, the reactions and reciprocal relationships of the total individual to his total past and present environment, *e.g.*, parent-child relationship, sibling relationships, child and child relationships or companionships at school, on the street and elsewhere, teacher-child relationships, child-adult relationships both in the past and present, and the entire child's relationships and reactions and conditions to past and present situations.

We have, therefore, become duly impressed with the fact that the causes of the individual's maladjustment may be so varied, numerous and complex that it is impossible to give effective treatment to any maladjusted individual or to prevent disintegration of human personalities or anti-social behavior, unless we can clearly diagnose the underlying causes behind the symptomatic behavior of the individual and then secure the coöperation of the individual himself, his family, his church, his teachers and all other constructive resources of community agencies for either the cure or the prevention of anti-social tendencies or overt anti-social acts of the maladjusted or disintegrated individual.

While it is perfectly true that without a complete understanding of the underlying causes of maladjustment and without the fullest coöperation of all the personalities and agencies that influence the child, valuable results in the prevention, treatment, or cure of problems of maladjustment are difficult to obtain, still it must be clear that nothing of value will be accomplished if each person or each agency that influences the child's personality growth and integration, constantly shifts the responsibility for the wholesome development of the child from one agency to another, or fails to act constructively until all other influential forces are combined.

Juvenile Delinquency Challenges Society

Juvenile delinquency challenges the best thought of the entire community. Parents, teachers, social workers, civic and religious leaders, specialists in the field of mental hygiene and related fields of human personality study, must work together and give the best of themselves to conquer the entire kingdom of individual and social evils. The true prevention of juvenile delinquency also challenges every condition and institution in society. The school, therefore, cannot accept the entire responsibility for the solution of all personality problems presented by different children, nor indeed should it take away the fair responsibility of the home, the church, and society for the best development of the individual.

Educators welcome the constructive contributions made by all those who have given the best of themselves to the study of human relationships and human problems. Educators eagerly seek the coöperation of all those who are interested in preventing the disintegration of human personalities, and in the reduction of individual and social failures. But the schools in our land have definite duties and responsibilities of their own for developing each child's personality as well as for the education of his body and mind, for developing the child's emotional habits as well as for his mental accomplishments, manual performances and skills, and his vocational preparation. The school is quite as responsible for formation as for information. It is to these responsible tasks and specific duties and obligations of our schools that attention is now directed.

Democratic Principles in Education

The aims and cardinal objectives of education have been stated in various ways by leading educators in this and other countries of the world. These are well known to all students of the history of education. It should be self-evident, however, that in America we must emphasize democratic aims, democratic values, and democratic ideals so that children and adults may day by day learn to know

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and to cherish those principles which must guide them in their present mode of living, and which will prepare them to live efficiently and in harmonious social relationships with other men in a democratic society.

Long ago, we accepted those fundamental democratic principles of equality and of the rights of individuals to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. But in accepting these principles have we taught the real meaning, the rich content, and the abiding values underlying these democratic ideals?

Equality in a democracy means equality of opportunity for all, and the very essence of equality of opportunity is found in giving unequal treatment to unequal talents, abilities and capacities.

"The old democratic ideal was based on the childlike idea of the equality of all men. The new conception of the democratic ideal is based on the psychological fact of profound individual differences." (Dr. William H. Burnham.)

Opportunities granted to each child and adult according to his needs, his abilities, his capacities, his limitations constitute one of the great dramatic ideals towards which modern education in America is progressing. Through the persistent and enlightened effort of educational and socially minded leaders, great forward steps have been taken in America away from old traditional forms of mass instruction and mass treatment of individuals with their resultant dehumanizing uniformity, to the new and better modes of individualized instruction and treatment of individuals by offering differentiated types of work in our schools to suit the needs of individual children, and to develop the creative initiative and the best potentialities of each child for more efficient individual and social usefulness.

"Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness"

The inalienable right to life in a democracy means the right to live on that higher level of society which guarantees to every child those standards of life which have now been incorporated in the "Children's Charter" and adopted unanimously at the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1930. These standards should become familiar to all educators, parents and community leaders in America so that educational and social progress in America may be made along the lines indicated in the Child's Magna Charta.

The right to liberty in a democracy means freedom of thought, freedom of speech and freedom of action within safe and sane constitutional and legal bounds, in other words liberty without that license which interferes with the rights of other citizens in society. Individual rights imply reciprocal duties and obligations towards others with whom we must cooperate cheerfully to live harmoniously and efficiently for the good of all. Individual rights cannot be guaranteed to any individual by society unless the individual is ready to assume those social and civic duties and

obligations which make it possible for a democratic society to save itself and to progress to its higher and better destiny.

The right to the pursuit of happiness in a democracy means the right not only to the pursuit but also to the actual achievement of happiness. This right guarantees to each individual in a democracy, the joy of living an abundant and well-rounded life, the joy of growing to the fullest stature of which the individual is innately capable, the joy of service, the joy that comes from living harmoniously not only within the family group but also outside of the family circle with friends, neighbors, and all other human beings, the joy that results from feelings of adequacy and security, the joy of accomplishing worthwhile tasks, the joy of appreciating the good, the true and the beautiful in life, and finally the joy that comes through the attainment of good physical and mental health which are the sole guarantees of well-balanced, socially efficient and spiritually integrated personalities.

Tested in the light of modern mental hygiene, these democratic principles are not only the safest guides for each individual's health, happiness, efficiency and normal life, but they are socially sound. If we accept these simple but far reaching statements as the most desirable fundamental principles of democracy and mental hygiene, then we must be ready to adopt practical means for the gradual attainment of these ideals in all the educational systems in our land. We must have full faith in the abiding values of these principles and their fullest implications, we must organize our educational work in such a way that our school organizations, our curricula, our methods, our daily practice and all our extra-curricula activities, shall constantly reflect the spirit and the ideals of our ever expanding and wiser interpretation of the essential principles of a progressive and health democracy.

Juvenile delinquency and many other individual and social evils will be greatly reduced when the schools throughout the land actually carry into practice those basic principles which form the arch on which a socially healthy democracy will securely rest.

How shall we give due emphasis to these principles and apply them in our daily educational practice to meet the challenge of juvenile delinquency?

Much has been done by our leading educators to enrich various courses of study in both elementary and secondary schools, to differentiate types of academic, commercial and industrial work for different types of children above the sixth year of the elementary school, to provide special classes and special schools for physically and mentally handicapped children and for children who present difficult problems of maladjustment. Within the financial allowance granted by various cities, education has been extended into summer schools, summer playgrounds, after school recreation and community centers, evening elementary and secondary schools, continua-

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tion schools, classes for adults and into the homes of home-bound, helpless crippled children. In addition, very beautiful new elementary and secondary academic, commercial and industrial schools have been built and equipped during the past decade.

Our methods of instruction have also improved, and we recognize today the need of placing more and more emphasis on the child's methods of learning rather than on methods of teaching, and on the fullest development of the whole child rather than upon certain limited scholastic achievements by the child. The rich contents of our courses of study are presented logically and psychologically. All progressive teachers watch not only the intellectual growth of each child, but also the emotional attitudes and volitional reactions of the child to the subject matter presented and to the real and dynamic situations which exist in the modern classroom. We know now that me must do much more than present cold facts to be memorized by the child and that we must create numerous opportunities for each child to initiate, to plan, to think, to judge, to apply and to concentrate on the work at hand so that he may exert his best effort because the work has real meaning and value for him. The child's work must be a real challenge to him, it must present a problem that is sufficiently attractive to him and within his abilities and powers to cause him to think, to enjoy, to judge and to exercise his will in the constructive and concentrative process of finding a satisfactory solution to the problem. Individual and social attitudes developed by the child and the child's reactions to these attitudes constitute the essentials of character formation. School subjects, school and extra-school activities, school methods and personal influences must be combined to develop character—the highest aim of the educational process.

Educational progress has been made, no matter what destructive critics may say to the contrary. We all know, however, that much remains to be done to meet the individual needs and capacities of millions of children who must attend school up to the legal chronological age limit set by various states in the Union. We have adopted compulsory education laws and we have opened the doors of educational opportunity to more and more children and adults in our land and for longer periods of time, but it has not been a simple task to meet the legal and educational demands of an ever-increasing school population. Owing to financial limitations, it will take a long time to provide all the necessary facilities and the trained personnel, so that the right type of individual instruction may be given to each individual in our schools. But in a dynamic and progressive democratic society, we shall always try to provide equal educational opportunities for different types of individuals in our society, and we shall always aim to provide adequate material, equipment and stimulating educational activities to develop the best individual, social and spiritual potentialities of as many individuals as possible.

Training for Leisure

Educators are generally agreed that the function of the school does not end with the close of the school day. If its aim is to influence the social outlook of its pupils, the school must concern itself in a large measure with the social life of the children. The school is interested in what the child does with its leisure hours, where the child plays and how, what its preferences are in companionship. The school is interested in these aspects of the child's life because the kind and character of a child's use of time after school hours affects behavior, its attitude toward authority and study and has an intimate relationship to retardation and truacy. As Warden Lawes of Sing Sing Prison says, "Furnish the opportunity for wholesome supervised recreation and groupings, and there will be less gangsterism and ultimately less delinquency and crime. Is not provision for this opportunity a proper responsibility for the school? Does it not merge with socialism in education? The sooner this view is more generally appreciated, the quicker and easier shall society be able to cope with incipient delinquency and criminality." The school may have to create new standards, broaden its scope and widen its influences. It may have to incorporate within its sphere all the agencies that have to do with social as well as scholastic attainments. But as the socially minded Warden continues to say, "The school will have the satisfaction of knowing that it is doing a great work in turning the tide of delinquency and criminality; that it is creating a new concept of life that must work for the greatest stability of the individual and the security of society."

The school stands as a representative of society in relation to the child. Since an important part of the process of growing up is to learn how to adjust to society, the school must undertake to furnish appropriate environment in which this adjustment can be learned.*

More Individualized Methods

To achieve better and better results in democratic education, we do need more and more manual and vocational work for all children, more and more supervised playgrounds, a still wider use of all school plants, more and more trained personnel, more and more individualized and socialized methods and projects. But we cannot afford to wait until all the necessary facilities, opportunities and varied types of educational, social and recreational activities have been provided in our ever expanding educational and closely allied social organizations. We can continue to revise, modify and enrich our courses of study and give more and more emphasis to the positive aspects of mental hygiene and to fundamental democratic principles. We can continue to

* White House Conference Reports on Child Health and Protection, 1930.

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improve our methods and techniques of individualized and socialized instruction, to make these basic principles of mental health and democracy more meaningful and of greater value to both children and adults. And above all, each school can be organized so as to reflect to an ever greater degree, a wholesome and stimulating democratic spirit everywhere and at all times. Such spirit will be felt by children, first, in their daily contacts with the wholesome democratic personalities of the principal, assistant principal and teachers who create the tone and spirit of the school, and secondly, through such individual and social practices as develop the type of character that motivates healthy individuals at all times and in all places, to right social action.

Measured in terms of educational achievement, the mastery of the essential content of subjects prescribed in the courses of study is important, the development of all the special abilities of individual children is necessary, the acquisition of skills in the use of the tools of art and science, and the preparation for a useful vocation in life, are very desirable, the increased power to appreciate the good, the true and the beautiful in life is of great value, but of all these achievements the development of right individual and social attitudes and wholesome reactions to human relationships and to various life situations is of supreme importance. Indeed, many leading educators, now agree, that the school's success should be measured solely in terms of the effectiveness, social adequacy and emotional maturity of the personalities of the children who have grown up in the school.

To develop right attitudes and reactions, the total individuality and personality of each child must be considered at all times. The modern democratic school realizes that its chief objective is not the teaching of subjects but the development of boys and girls for social life. With all that is being done by our schools to safeguard the physical health of children, it is even of greater importance that special attention be paid to the mental health of children as the factor most directly influencing personality.

As Dr. Stanley Davies states, "Mental hygiene should be introduced into every school through the principal and teacher. Second only to the home, the school should be a great mental hygiene force. In fact, it can be safely said that the school which neglects the mental health of its children fails in its greatest mission."

Good mental hygiene demands that all the influential factors of the school must be employed so that the democratic rights of each individual child will be respected and his reciprocal duties and obligations to others will be taught and emphasized. Good mental hygiene also demands that every child be considered a potential asset to the community, and the good qualities of the child must be discovered and developed to their maximum potentialities to the end that the entire personality of the child may become well adjusted and wholesomely integrated.

Of all the permanent influences or factors for good which a democratic school may exert on each individual child, none can compare with the spiritual influences of the fine personalities of superintendents, principals, assistant principals, supervisors and teachers who come in daily contact with children. These personalities create the tone and spirit of the entire educational system and of the school, and it is chiefly through these personalities that due emphasis is given to both the democratic and the hygienic aims of education.

The Principal

The principal is the educational leader, the executive and administrative head of his school.

He is the wise counselor and friend of teachers, children and of parents of children who attend his school. The principal can, therefore, influence the teachers, and directly and indirectly the children and their parents. The principal is, therefore, in a position to help families to understand the great lessons of democracy and to guide them in carrying over these lessons into daily practice and relationships in their homes. The democratic principal is also interested in all constructive agencies in his community, and thus becomes a powerful influential democratic force in the city, helping to stimulate and to develop an educated public conscience for the good of all children and adults in the community. It is the principal who leads in the educational progress of his teachers, and both he and his assistants not only help to improve the teachers' methods of teaching subjects, but assist in developing those right attitudes of teachers toward their children which enable them to give the best of themselves to the total personality of each child under their friendly and stimulating guidance and influence. The democratic principal confers frequently with his assistants and teachers, and advice and suggestions are unhesitatingly given and interchanged for the benefit of the children in the school. The democratic principal selects carefully committees of teachers to organize, direct and supervise various activities in the school so that the responsibility is democratically shared by all for the good of all. In other words, the example set by the dynamic and wholesome personality of a democratic principal will do more than any other single factor to create a wholesome democratic school spirit which will be reflected in every classroom of his school, and in the lives of the teachers and children in his school.

Schools organized on a wholesome democratic basis and giving due emphasis to the mental health of all teachers and children, find that the positive healthy and happy coöperative atmosphere established in these schools serves in a great measure to solve many problems of behavior presented by different types of maladjusted children. Such schools become attractive to all children. It becomes unnecessary to force any child to attend regularly the school or the class where the atmosphere is congenial to him,

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where the opportunity is given to each child to succeed, where individual help is given to each child to overcome difficulties which are not beyond his abilities to surmount, where wholesome, well-balanced and integrated personalities are met and where teachers, assistant principals and principal inspire confidence, respect, admiration and love in each child because of their sincere attempts to understand and to guide each child with patience, sympathy, insight, kindness and love. "The essential principle of education is not teaching subjects; it is love." (Pestalozzi)

"There are in the schools of America, a host of educational leaders and skilled teachers who have kept alive in their hearts the real spirit of eternal youth. They have the art of dealing sympathetically and intelligently with the hopes, ambitions, burning ideals, bitter disappointments of real children. They are past masters of the art of stimulating, guiding and disciplining the feelings, the thought and the actions of children in various grades. They understand, love, and perhaps most important of all, have supreme faith in children." (Henry C. Frick, Educational Commission School Betterment Studies, Vol. 3, No. 2, p. 55.)

The New Mental Hygiene

To assist principals and teachers in democratic schools in the further reduction and solution of difficult individual problems of behavior, the new mental hygiene has a definite contribution to make to public education in opening its eyes to a great opportunity to understand the personality problems of school children, and to help in altering the conditions that breed destructive habits while a child is young. Dr. William H. Burnham, Professor of Education in Clark University, makes this very significant statement: "The longer one studies the subject of education and the more one considers the practical needs of teachers, the more one feels that one subject more helpful to them than any other in the professional field is mental hygiene, not only for the contribution it makes to the teacher's own health, but also for the vast benefits its teachings give for the health of children. The advantages of mental hygiene for the teachers and for children can hardly be emphasized too strongly."

Many of the causes leading to individual and social maladjustment are now definitely known. More and more permanent cures of mental disorders and mental diseases are now effected through the careful diagnosis of these underlying causes, by specialists in the field of clinical psychology, psychiatry, neurology and mental hygiene, and through the unified coöperative scientific and artistic treatment of maladjusted individuals by teachers, parents, social workers and specialists. But more important than the diagnosis and cure of unbalanced or disintegrated personalities, is the constructive program which is now being organized and applied for the prevention of future mental and nervous disorders.

Not until the opening years of the twentieth century was the preventive note sounded. In earlier periods only the most obvious mental disorders were recognized and attempts made to cure these. There was no extension of mental hygiene concepts to every day problems, and little attention paid to the possibilities of prevention. But as the roots of many maladjustments were traced further and further back into childhood, it became clear that most work with adolescents and adults could only be remedial, and that true prevention must begin earlier, when habits and reaction patterns were being formed, often undesirably and with some grave implications for the future.

The plasticity of the human organisms during childhood makes possible not only the inculcation of desirable character traits, but also the modification of undesirable traits already established. Childhood has been aptly termed the golden period for mental hygiene. (Mental Hygiene Bulletin, January, 1931.)

Mental Hygiene in School Program

Any knowledge which the educator may be able to receive from scientific research in mental hygiene or from any other field dealing with the study of human personality and the relationships of the total personality to other human beings and to life situations, should be incorporated in all school programs and in all progressive methods of education because the school which neglects the mental health of its children fails in its greatest mission.

With such additional knowledge of mental hygiene and with the professional guidance and assistance given by specialists in this field, teachers will gain a better understanding of the causes that underlie symptomatic behavior. With deeper and clearer insight into problems of human relationships and with more objective attitudes towards the individual child who presents simple or more difficult problems of maladjustment, great gains will be made in helping children to develop wholesome personalities and in preventing future and more aggravated conflicts and disorders which lead to partial or total disintegration of personality or to anti-social behavior.

To assist our schools in achieving these results, the Bureau of Child Guidance of the Board of Education of the City of New York was established on June 1, 1931. As an integral part of our educational system, the Bureau of Child Guidance is now organized to work in closest coöperation with superintendents, directors, principals and teachers in our public schools to assist children in conquering undesirable character and personality traits, in strengthening desirable individual qualities, in developing right individual and social habits, attitudes and reactions, and in raising the total personality of each child to higher and higher levels of integration and social efficiency.

At the Third International Congress of Eugenics held in New York on August 22, 1932, the positive statement was made that: "The number

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of socially inadequate people in the United States is appalling, that one out of every one hundred and sixty people in the United States during the year 1930 was a patient in an institution for nervous or mental disorders, and that from present indications we will have more than 500,000 people in nervous and mental institutions in 1934. Mental disease is widespread in the United States."

Juvenile Delinquency and Crime

In addition to this appalling fact our crime commissions are discovering that a large part of crime is committed by a relatively small proportion of criminals who are repeated offenders. These repeated offenders were for the most part known as recidivists in adolescence by the juvenile court. The majority of them were considered problems in school. Furthermore, the great majority of maladjusted adults who fill the beds in our psychopathic hospitals were recognized as unstable or "different" personalities in adolescence and their histories reveal a succession of difficulties of adjustment extending back to early childhood. In other words, the great majority of maladjusted adults presented difficult problems in childhood.

For three years the sub-commission on causes of the New York State Crime Commission delved into the factors associated with juvenile delinquency. As a result of their studies, this commission made the following definite recommendations: (1) Mental Hygiene and psychological treatment for the prevention of juvenile delinquency are to be given strong support, (2) School behavior clinics should be established, (3) A course in behavior problems of school children should be embodied in the teachers' curriculum, (4) The school curriculum should give more emphasis to the mechanical aptitudes of children wherever they exist, (5) Purely punitive methods in attempting correction of delinquency behavior should cease, (6) Incipient behavior disorders should be treated as early as possible, and (7) A coördination of delinquency prevention efforts among all agencies is absolutely necessary.

From the statements, findings, conclusions and recommendations made by leading authorities, it is clear that we must attack the serious problems of individual and social maladjustment and of nervous and mental disorders which lead to juvenile delinquency with a positive educational, clinical and social program which will endeavor not only to cure those children who show incipient and significant signs of maladjustment, but which will prevent the development of nervous disorders, mental diseases and social delinquencies.

The place to begin is with the child. "The important points to remember in beginning are first, that normal, modern children have been abundantly shown to be sound and wholesome in their impulses, prime emotions, feeling, thought and action, responding to proper stimuli with a readiness which is all that could be desired. The problem is to place before them a progressive series of ideals, each of the right kind, at the right time, in the right manner." (Pamphlet on "Emotion," School and Betterment Series.)

Educators are prepared to join forces with all intelligent groups that are directly or indirectly concerned with the spiritual guidance of human beings. Educators realize fully that the more unified, the better related, and the better integrated all constructive influences and spiritual forces become, the more valuable and the more permanent will the results be both for the individual and for society. But the Educator also sees his own unique part in the battle against existing individual and social evils, and in the progressive, democratic movement for the improvement of both the individual and society.

The spirit of democracy in principle and practice with all its implications and wholesome satisfactions, supplemented by those positive aspects of mental hygiene which help to develop wholesome personalities, can be created and developed in all of our schools. The right spirit will conquer all evils. The cultivation of this spirit, through the emphasis on democratic values and ideals, through the development of stimulating and wholesome activities, and through the adoption of hygienic attitudes and relationships towards each individual child in our schools, is the educator's answer to the challenge of juvenile delinquency and the educator's unique contribution towards the ultimate realization of the American dream.

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Leon W. Goldrich,

Director of Bureau of Child Guidance.

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SUGGESTIONS IN TEACHING ALGEBRA I AND GEOMETRY I

THIS is not intended for the veteran teacher but for the unfortunate beginner who has five classes flung at him with the command, "Teach." The process of learning how to teach by teaching is at times a cruel one. Co-workers and chairmen are too busy to be of much help and books on methods of teaching Mathematics generally ignore the beginner. The new teacher is told to forget everything he has learned at college about teaching; that it is all very well in theory, but not in practice. What does he do that first term? Flounder as best he can, hoping that next term will be different. Of course it will be—with a term's experience.

My first term of Algebra and Geometry meant long hours of preparation, lack of complete confidence in my presentation of the lesson, and discouragement. This, my second term at the same subjects, has been entirely different. I discovered little things that have been of indefinite benefit both to myself and the class. Many another mathematics teacher may be using devices similar to the ones I am about to suggest, but the beginner is not aware of them.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ALGEBRA I

1. Problems seems to be the bugaboo of many students. I found some who were good in the mechanical part of algebra and yet were unable to handle the problems. This may be due to difficulty in understanding the language, prevalent among children of immigrant parents, or to lack of ability to organize the problems, to pick out what is given and what is sought. The language difficulty can be overcome by having students state the problem in their own words, by defining the more difficult words and by a definite translation of words into processes. The word "exceeds" gives many an intelligent student trouble. Have him translate the word "exceeds" into the words "is more than" and these in turn to the algebraic symbols = ——— + ———.

A student may be helped greatly with the organization of a problem by using the box arrangement. For example:

A is now 12 years older than B; four years from now, A will be twice as old as B is then. What are their present ages?

Name	*Now*	*Four Years Later*
A	12+x	16+x
B	x	4+x

The student asks himself, "Whose age do I know least about? B. Therefore, I'll call his age X." With plenty of practice, most students fill in the boxes readily, but then they hesitate. Why? They can't get the equation. Have them go back to the problem and pick out the sentence or phrase that gives the equation—make them realize that the sentences which have given the information to fill the boxes cannot possibly give the equation. Finally the sentence is obtained. Have the sentence written down, and the exact algebraic translation of each word written underneath, thus:

Four years from now, A will be twice as old as B then.

$$16+x=2\ (4+x)$$

Get the pupils to see that all parts of the verb "to be" should be translated by an equal sign—that the verb "is" is the most important little word in a sentence because it determines the equal sign. Very often a student will have to rearrange the words of the books in order to give a sentence for the equation.

In the problem: A grocer wishes to make a mixture of 60 lbs. of coffee to sell at 40c. per lb. He has some 55c. coffee and some 30c. coffee. How many lbs. of each should he take? The sentence here should be: The cost of 55c. coffee plus the cost of 30c. coffee equals the cost of the mixture.

$$55x+30\ (60-x)=40\cdot 60$$

Or in this problem: The base of a rectangle exceeds its altitude by 9 inches. A better shaped rectangle is formed by making the altitude 3 inches longer and the base 2 inches longer, but this increases the area by 78 sq. inches. A diagram of the rectangles would be of help. The student will pick the phrase, "but this increases the area by 78 sq. inches," and change it thus: The area of the new rectangle is 78 sq. inches more than the area of the old rectangle.

$$(x+11)\ (x+3)=78+x\ (x+3)$$

I have found that picking out the sentence which gives the equation, writing it down and putting the algebraic translation underneath, helps greatly in the solving of problems.

Another simple and often amusing way of clarifying problems is that of dramatization. Just as the dramatized English word holds more meaning for the foreigner than a verbal explanation, so does the algebra problem in action take on new significance for the student. Try it on the rate, time, and distance problems and you will have some veritable races in class.

2. The teacher should be familiar with the common algebraic mistakes and warn the class against them. These mistakes may be due to confusion between processes, to wrong concept, or to carelessness. I am noting a few of the common errors:

a. five more than x, interpreted as 5x.

b. the value of 2x, if x is 6, interpreted as 12x.

c. ten less x, interpreted as 10—x.

d. 3 (a—b) interpreted as 3a—b.

e. the sum of —3 and —5, interpreted as 8.

f. sum of 6a and 10a, interpreted as $16a^2$.

g. the product of x and y, interpreted as x+y.

h. $\frac{1}{2}\cdot\frac{1}{2}=2/4$.

Don't wait until the pupil makes these mistakes. Explain the possibil-

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ity of their occurrence as new concepts are taught.

3. Factoring is very often a stumbling block to many students. The teacher must be sure that the student has a clear concept of the process—that he is finding the prime quantities which when multiplied will give his original quantity. The only short multiplication process necessary to factoring is the product of the sum and difference of two quantities—mention may be made of cross multiplication. The three cases taught are: the highest common monomial factor, the difference of two perfect squares, and the trial and error method for the trinomial. Students must be given constant drill in just recognizing the cases—you will have to point out that expressions such as these: a^2+b^2, $50a^2-b^2$, and a—b, are not the difference of two squares. You have to teach that the method of highest common factor must always be tried before any other.

Until the student obtains a facility in factoring, I have him state the case before he factors. For instance:

Factor: $32x^2-2y^2$.

Student: Highest common factor 2, $2(16x^2-y^2)$.

Teacher: How do you know $16x^2-y^2$ is the difference of two perfect squares?

Student: You can take the square root of $16x^2$ and y^2 and they are connected by a minus sign.

In teaching the factoring of the trinomial you have to be careful to take one difficulty at a time. First, the coefficient of the highest power of the unknown, unity and all signs positive; second, coefficient unity, last sign positive and middle negative; third, coefficient unity, last sign negative; fourth, coefficient more than unity. In factoring the trinomial, make sure that the student always checks the middle term.

4. The recitation on board homework is usually a waste of time as the students pay no attention. Why should they pay attention? They have done the work at home—why listen to a fellow student repeat it? Instead of having a student read his work from the board, I glance through it and then I ask questions, calling on the class for answers—this compels their attention—it makes them alert to mistakes and it leads them to discover shorter methods of solution. In this way I have often been able to question an entire class on the five or more homework problems which were put on the board.

5. Checking by common sense is a habit that should early be inculcated. In the problem:

When asked her age, a girl replied, seven-fifths of it is 21. What was her age?

As a check on his thinking, have the pupil ask himself—"is her age more or less than 21?"

6. The algebra lesson should be opened with a short quiz—one or two exercises, one on the new lesson and one on review. This not only helps the teacher in picking out the student's weaknesses, but also helps the student by showing him what he missed in yesterday's lesson. This likewise starts the class promptly. These daily tests can be marked by a student. If the teacher has the students recorded in his book as they are seated, it takes but a minute to enter the marks. These daily tests may be graphed by the student on either a daily or weekly progress chart. These charts not only picture the pupil's progress but also arouse a competitive spirit. A horizontal straight line graph becomes the goal. Drill and review lessons may be vitalized by speed and accuracy contests.

7. In a drill lesson it is well to remember that drilling one item at a time is ineffective. If, for instance, you turn to a page dealing with the factoring of the difference of two squares and you have each student do one, you will find all the answers perfect; but if you give them another type of example, they are stumped because it is easy enough to follow a set pattern without thinking. Therefore, drill several items at one time—as simple addition, subtraction and multiplication—first and second case of factoring, and so on.

8. A note-book should be kept in algebra for the practice of exercises that are done in class. Teach something new, assign problems for the students to practice and then you find that they have no paper to work on. A note-book just for algebra is useful.

Suggestions in Geometry I

The teaching of geometry is simpler, and yet more difficult, than the teaching of algebra. Simple, because the subject matter is more interesting and decidedly less mechanical, so that there isn't that fear of monotony and boredom which arises in the algebra. More difficult, as it requires greater skill in presentation.

1. Geometry is usually begun with a brief history of the subject; then come simple constructions, such as bisection of a line and angle, erection of a perpendicular and construction of simple triangles. I discovered rather late in the term that the students find the construction of geometric designs fascinating—they could be introduced very easily with the constructions at the beginning of the term.

2. The axioms should not be taught as such, they should be explained as they come up in problems. For instance, given the square ARFO with points, C, E, D and B, taken on AR, RF, FO, and AO, respectively, so that CR=OD and BO=RE; prove $\triangle ABC=\triangle DEF$. The student gets the right angles equal and so it remains for him to prove AC=DF and AB=EF. He knows that the whole sides are equal since the figure is a square.

Teacher: What do you have to do to the line AR to give AC?

Student: Subtract the line CR from AR.

(You must make sure that the student understands that he is subtracting line lengths and not letters as in algebra. If he has difficulty in seeing this, give the line lengths numerical values.)

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Student: To get DF, you subtract OD from OF.

Teacher: But what do you know about AR and OF, about CR and OD?

Student: They are equal.

Thus you lead him to realize the need for the axiom, "equals subtracted from equals, the remainders are equal." And so with the other axioms. I have heard students use the reason "Substitution" without understanding just exactly what was being substituted. Wherever possible, have them actually state the axiom involved or explain the exact substitution.

Spread the axioms over a period of two weeks or so—don't try to cram them into one lesson—bring them in almost incidentally—and then you won't have students saying, as I have heard—"I hate axioms, I don't know what they're all about."

3. Even though the first few propositions are taught intuitively, analysis should be used in their application. Students have difficulty with the demonstrative geometry because they are not taught to analyze. This requires constant practice and patience at first, but at the end of two weeks the results are surprising. In the homework assignment, I ask that the analysis and proof be written for the more involved problems. In the classroom, I have the students think out loud, that is, analyze, for all to hear. Take this simple problem in the early weeks, when the student knows three methods for proving triangles congruent: Given the two overlapping triangles ABD and CEF with points A, C, D, F in a straight line, AB≅EF, AC=DF and △A=F; prove the two triangles congruent. The student recites as follows:

a. How can I prove two triangles congruent?

b. Either by sas, sss, or asa.

c. I know that AB equal EF and angle A equals angle F, since that is given.

d. If I could prove side AD equals CF, then I could prove the triangles congruent by sas.

The student then is ready to give a demonstrative proof.

At first the students think it rather silly to ask themselves questions and then answer them, but it isn't long before they realize its value. As I proceed through the term, I have the students omit the unessential details of analysis—often two or three questions are sufficient to lead to a solution. In the same problem: To prove CS equals SD. The student proceeds:

a. How can I prove two sides of a triangle equal?

b. By proving the angles opposite equal.

c. I can prove angle 1 equal to angle 2 by proving them corresponding parts of triangle ABD and triangle CEF. Then the student is ready for the proof.

Or in the example: Given two parallel lines cut by a transversal in points A and B; prove that the bisectors of the interior angles which meet at K form a right angle.

a. How can I prove angle K a right angle?

b. By showing it has 90 degrees.

c. I know that angle A and angle B contains 180 degrees, since the lines are parallel.

These three questions are enough to lead the student to the demonstrative proof.

4. A goodly number of your acquaintances tell you that they memorized propositions at the time they studied geometry. The tendency to memorize that which is not understood must be stopped at the very beginning of the term. Nothing in geometry need be memorized—what of it if a student states a proposition in his own words, provided he understands and knows how to use it? Memorization automatically disappears with a growing facility in the use of analysis. Teaching the class a proof different from the book, and calling for proofs with diagrams given in various positions, also eliminates memorization.

5. With analysis at his command, you will find the pupil eager to tackle difficult problems. I often assign difficult problems as honor homework—this arouses the competitive spirit, keeps the bright pupils interested and even gets a spark from the dull ones.

6. The diagram plays an important part in demonstrative proof. Students should be taught to mark equal given parts on diagrams. Several lessons of the term should be devoted to drawing a diagram from words and these should be followed by frequent practice. Students also have difficulty in picking out the hypothesis and conclusion.

In the problem, The altitudes to the legs of an isosceles triangle are equal, you will find many students saying given the altitudes equal. Straighten the student out on these seemingly little points and you will find a marked improvement.

7. Models have played an important part in my teaching of geometry. HIGH POINTS recently published an article by Mr. Charosh of New Utrecht on the use of models in geometry. Not only did I use the models to demonstrate, but I also had the students build their own. I gave them a month, suggesting that they use any material they wished—paper, wood, metal—that they paint or varnish them and mount them on a chart explaining just what the models represent. Considering the crudity of the models used in class, I was astounded at the results. A few models were brought in before the date set, but at the required time practically every student in my two geometry classes brought in a model. They were so excellently done that I had them on exhibit in the school library; a picture of a few of them appeared in the *New York Sun* of June 22, 1932. Some were of wood, some of paper, some of metal, some painted all sorts of colors, some neatly varnished and all mounted on printed charts. These models were all movable, showing that the theorem was true for all positions. Some students combined several propositions on one model; I received one model that demonstrated six theorems. The students spent long hours making these; they enjoyed it, so did I. They will never

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forget the geometric facts learned from these models.

From a few suggestions made here, you will notice that I have attempted to x-ray the pupil's mind while he is struggling with new mathematical concepts. Therein lies the little trick of success. Put yourself in place of the student, try to recall the thoughts that went through your mind when you were taught how to subtract algebraically or shown the obvious fact that halves or equals are equal. Weren't they rather confused, vague thoughts? Therefore, help the child to organize his thinking by mechanical aids, if necessary, such as the box arrangement and the writing of the equation sentence in problems or by analysis in geometry.

Appeal to the visual and manual senses as well as to the intellectual. Avoid the cut and dried. I have heard teachers say, "Children these days expect us to entertain them." Wrong interpretation on the part of the teacher! Put the word "interest" in place of "entertain" and the sentence reads correctly. "Interest" the children in what you are teaching; put some personality into your work; inject some humanity and understanding—a bit of humor—and you will find it more than worth the effort. You will find the youngsters your friends instead of just your pupils.

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A VIEWPOINT FOR PSYCHOLOGY

THE April, 1932, issue of HIGH POINTS carried as its first main article "Different Schools of Psychology and their Influence on Education," by Joseph B. Fish. Here was given an exposition of six prominent schools of psychological thought.

Mr. Fish's article, as I took it, did not purpose to go beyond a clear, concise statement of these conflicting schools, and how their influence has been felt in education; it did not seek to gain adherents to any of them.

Now I believe teachers would welcome an evaluation of some of the viewpoints in current vogue in psychology. That is what I shall attempt to give. I wish to explain the basic differences among these various systems of psychology, and to recommend the viewpoint I consider most fruitful.

The confusion which today exists in psychological thought comes chiefly from its old indebtedness to philosophy, of which it is an outgrowth, and its inability quite to redeem itself. Take the roster of those accredited in the history of psychology as its founders—Plato, Aristotle, St. Augustine, St. Thomas, Descartes, Spinoza, Leibniz, Hobbes, Locke, Berkeley, Hume—it reads like a history of philosophy. In the speculative systems of these philosophers psychology has its grounding. No wonder, then, that psychology which today seeks standing among the exact sciences, based upon knowledge, finds itself so firmly enrooted in metaphysical abstractions.

MIND—CONSCIOUSNESS INTROSPECTION

The Subjective Systems

Modern psychology began as a study of consciousness and mind; its method was introspection. Yerkes told us, "The subject matter of psychology is consciousness." Judd says, and so does Angell, "Psychology is the science of consciousness." And Angell, without intending clairvoyance, wrote "An Introductory Study of the Structure and Function of Human Consciousness."

Consciousness, as every one is presumed to know, is Awareness. Beyond that definition by synonyms, introspective psychology does not take us. If we inquire the nature of consciousness, we are variously answered. Some say it is spatial; others say it is not. Some say it consists of unit ideas with gaps between; some say it is continuous, never ceasing from birth to death. Some say it is located in the brain; others say it may be located outside the brain. Titchener, of Cornell, especially, applied himself to a study of the structure of consciousness.

Now let us turn to the method of traditional psychology—Introspection. This is simply a "looking inward" upon the mind. In the development of this method, Titchener stands head and shoulders above his contemporaries. He was imbued with the laudable faith that the human mind (the entity of which consciousness is a function) could be limited to laws by studying introspections. To Titchener and his disciples a training in introspection was the basis of psychology. It was developed to such extremes that it became an art. The experimenter who could analyze a mental process into its pure sensations was the master. And we have it from Yerkes that "No one who is unable to observe the wonders of his own consciousness can really enter into the kingdom of psychology."

Present day schools of psychological thought, with one exception, are based upon the consciousness-mind-introspection philosophy. Their ideas, their methods, their terminology, are subjective. Whatever differences obtain among them are of minor significance compared to this most fundamental similarity in their whole fibre—their subjective point of view. Associationism, structuralism, functionalism, parallelism, interactionism, purposivism, psychoanalysis, and Gestaltism—there is not one which is not predicated upon mind as a basis; not one which does not treat of sensations, images, perceptions, and the whole category of traditional terms.

EXPERIMENTATION—STIMULUS AND RESPONSE

The Objective System

The one school of psychological thought which differs from the others

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is the objective school. Most prominent of the objectivists is John Watson, who popularized objective psychology as "behaviorism," but which its first American proponent, Max Meyer, still prefers to call objective psychology. This school rejects mind, consciousness, introspection, sensation, image, and all other subjective methods and terminology. It sets itself to a study of observable human conduct, as contrasted with the study of consciousness. Its method is experimentation and observation, rather than introspection. Its terminology is stimulus and response, in contrast to sensation and image.

The classification of psychological systems into subjective and objective, I hope you will find clarifying. It is a key for penetrating confusion. As we draw out the implications, we shall see what occasions such conflicting views in psychology—a state of affairs which some are misled into believing healthful for its advance.

An Evaluation of Subjective Psychology

The aim of psychology, broadly, should be to give us a knowledge of human motives and conduct so that we may learn to predict and control them. If it is to concern itself mainly with playing with poetic figures of speech, or cluttering an already burdensome nomenclature with abtruse and abstract terms, it becomes a pleasant pastime, a mere hobby, a vacant evening's occupation, not a scientific study.

It is well, too, before considering subjective psychology, to caution ourselves that we have all been trained in the terminology of the subjective school. So vitally has its verbalizing become part of us and colored our expression in psychology, that it is impossible for us to break away. We are predisposed toward it; and this caution is advanced that we may somewhat, at least for the time being, unprejudice our thoughts.

Psychology began as a study of the mind; its etymology tells that. But what is mind? Few psychologists would have the temerity of Descartes to locate it in the pineal gland; and few would undertake to treat it as an organism, as Angell did. We may postulate mind as an axiom, and assume what it would be well to establish by proof; or recognize mind as a theoretical concept about which to organize our knowledge. And from a scientific point of view "mind" should be retained or rejected, depending upon its usefulness or uselessness.

Consciousness, which is presumed to be a manifestation of mind, should be judged by the same standard—What is its value for scientific study? Its importance in psychology is a throwback to speculative philosophy. It is another way of saying "soul," "ego," "self." Among the ancient Greeks it was customary to assume consciousness in water, mountain, tree, air. "Nature abhors a vacuum" is an apt example of attributing consciousness to nature. So was the ancient idea of thunder as the wrath of God, or the angry sea as the bellowing of Neptune. Our poetry abounds in such figures of speech. But if we are to understand human conduct, we must be more scientific; we must deal in more specific terms. We must experiment and measure. No one has ever proposed a unit of consciousness. Yet it is on the groundwork conception of consciousness that the subjective schools builds the superstructure of psychology.

And the structure and function of consciousness, we are told, may be discovered by introspection.

What have consciousness and introspection availed us in psychology? Have they helped us to an understanding of human conduct? We turn to the work of Titchener at Ithaca. Here were the best trained introspectionists in the country. The scalpel of shrewd introspection dissected every mental state in the course of an experiment—but the laws of the mind lay unrevealed. Psychology has come considerably away from its insistence on introspection, but it is still dominated by the tradition and terminology of the consciousness-introspection school. And that is the important idea to know.

But why didn't introspection reveal the nature of consciousness and the laws of the human mind? Because, simply, introspection is subjective. Each one's introspections are his own, not susceptible to proof. One psychologist sets down certain attributes of image; another sets down an altogether different category. How can we prove or disprove? Introspectionists in Oshkosh get a "glassy sensation" with certain visual images; but in Kalamazoo introspectionists cannot just discern it. There follows, somewhere else, a controversy between the exponents and opponents of imageless thought. An oceanful of ink is spilt, and tempers are frayed over these discussions in vacuo. Wundt stoutly maintains there can be no thought without images; Bühler insists as strongly that under controlled introspection he and his followers had thought without images. Well, what are you going to do about it?

It should be clear that such disagreements cannot justly be imputed to the undeveloped state of psychology. If psychology were as old as the hills and clung to introspection as its method, we should still find radical disagreement. Confusion comes of each developing his own system, and none being verifiable because they are all subjective.

Titchener himself made a pertinent commentary in speaking of the psychology of feeling: "The professional and the amateur psychologist exchange ideas on equal terms; here is a field in which a general impression is worth as much as an experimental result." The psychology of attention and sensation are in a like state.

I do not mean to suggest that we should abandon introspection. It is delightful. It gives our literature a depth and warmth which objective treatment cannot. But to make it the method of a branch of study which makes claims to exactness is to invite failure. Among students of psychology in its earlier days it was a commonplace that psychology was inter-

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esting, but it taught them what they already knew.

It is a direct outcome of the introspective method that psychological terminology, and consequently psychology itself, is so indefinite. To put less emphasis upon introspection, but to retain the terminology that introspection bore, is inconsistent.

Terminology is decidedly important. Words are thoughts. Scientists have so well recognized this that their nomenclators turn to Greek for new terms, devoid of life and personality—words that are like algebraic symbols—unequivocally explicit. Modern terminology is likely to have been subjected to language processes, so that original meanings have been altered; and subjective interpretations would confuse exact understanding.

We have spoken of mind and consciousness. Sensation and image and perception and attention are not clearer. Does a sensation have quality, intensity, duration, clearness? What difference does it make? Are you stirred to know that a visual image has protensity and extensity; or that images have succession, fusion and adhesion? Do you relish recollections of hours and days spent over the conative, cognitive, and affective processes and their countless obscure attributes?

It was once my misfortune to spend six months studying the psychology of meaning and judgment. What an impenetrable wilderness of words! One "authority's" guess is as good as another's. I cannot resist a few choice examples, because too much can not be made out against the method and the nomenclature we have been prey to.

I was impressed with the profound observation that falling down is not a thinking act, but may become the object of our thoughts. I learned that association of ideas is by universals—and that meaning is the universal; that meaning does not exist "per se," but is inherent in images; that meaning precedes image, that image is merely on illustration of meaning; that image is meaning; that image and meaning are in reality fused but discriminable; that thinking may go on without meaning; that thinking must have meaning. There is Reintegration, Intentionalism, Logical Universals. There is static meaning and dynamic meaning. And somewhere in this welter, space must be allowed for a "psychophysical continuum." Then, to give you the last word, as it was given to me, the trouble lies in the fact that for the term "meaning," which is not adaptable to psychological needs, we need more terms to cover the scope of the word. We need a quadilateral division into The Significant, The Significance, The Signified, The Signifying.

All nonsense! Where will it get us? These verbal gymnastics, in my opinion, are meant but to strike awe in the unsuspecting. Just some new curious, learned way to say old, simple, and often well-known thoughts.

The difference between the ancient idea of "horror vacui" and Toricelli's explanation of atmospheric pressure is the difference between the subjective and the objective—terminology, if you please. Whether you explain the attraction of the flame for the moth as a Desire, or as a neural connection between eye and wing muscle, does matter. Far from being an explanation, the subjective terminology is a positive detriment to scientific advancement. It offers a specious explanation, and those who take it are disinclined to seek further. It is only when an objective, verifiable explanation is formulated that science begins its prolific progress. It is only when measurement is performed that it makes strides.

So I think it is high time for psychology to jettison this whole lumbering cargo of the subjective school. We have had enough arm-chair psychology with its lengthy introspections and speculations, in which each psychologist is an authority. Consciousness and introspection and their wake of subjective terminology have availed little. They have not stood the test of science, and so merit rejection.

And now, to conclude our thoughts on the subjective school, we should consider present-day schools of psychological thought in the light of what has been adduced.

Structuralism studies what mind is; Functionalism studies what mind does. Both are based upon consciousness and introspection. They lead to little more than speculative discussions.

Purposivism or hormic psychology, as propounded by Macdougall, and implied by Freud, is a sort of mystic philosophy which may be summed up in the familiar epigram, "There is a divinity which shapes our ends." The mind, and all impulses and activities, are believed to be working, automatically, towards a purpose they have in view. This endowment of the human organism with an inner force which drives it toward a goal is an interesting symbolic interpretation of human action. But not for science.

Psychoanalysis goes further than other subjective systems in its interpretation of human action. What Darwin did for biology with his theory of organic evolution, what Keppler did for astronomy with his theory of the solar system, Freud has attempted for psychology in his elaborate theory based upon the "unconscious." The symbolisms Freud invokes to sustain his theory stamp it an art, plainly. They give it a literary flavor which literature has not been slow to appropriate. The pity of it, so far as psychology is concerned, is that it is couched and quilted from tip to toe heavily with the subjective, equivocal terminology which science finds inarticulate. Jung and the Zurich school have objectivized one phase of it in the time-reaction tests. Let us hope for more.

Gestaltism, our latest childbirth in psychology, makes its additions to our nomenclature to give us more supernaturalism. The mind is possessed, so we hear, of a grouping sense. This integrates experiences and gives them meaning. "Configuration patterns" that we make instinctively develop in us "insight" so that we may accomplish "continuous wholes." Says Koh-

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ler, "We now have to solve the problem of the segregation of wholes in the temporal and spatial extension of kinesthetic experience." Don't you wish it were more intelligible? Insight, instinctive grouping sense, integrating power of the mind, configuration patterns, continuous wholes—all vague, all subjective.

An Evaluation of the Objective School

John Dewey ventured the thought that the World War might have been averted had the social sciences kept pace with the physical sciences. In the latter are considered phenomena which are observable and measurable —and verifiable. It is patent in science that the discoverer must formulate the experimental conditions under which the phenomenon described may be observed by anyone of accurate scientific training. And the description must be made in unmistakable terms so that the experiment may be reproduced identically.

The objective school believes that the laws of human behavior can be formulated only as a result of experimentation and observation under standards as rigid as those prevailing in the physical sciences. Its workshop is the scientific laboratory.

The ancients, we know, attributed consciousness to numerous inanimate objects. The physicist of today does not concern himself with such an attribute. Nor should the psychologist concern himself with the attribute of consciousness in the human organism. It has served but to confuse. Objective psychology rules it out.

Objective psychology rules out, too, the subjective, ill-advised terminology of traditional psychology. Mind, image, perception, sensation, satisfaction, insight, and the rest should be rejected, or replaced with explicit terms. Objective psychology speaks of definite stimuli rather than desires or impulses. It speaks of neural arcs, rather than association of ideas.

The Objective school gives a simple, unified method of interpretation for the facts its experiments adduce. It seeks no metaphysical aid. The human being, it submits, is an organism responsive to the same forces as other organisms. It recognizes the greater complexity of the human, and lays it to a more complex nervous system, and consequently more varied habits, most important of which are language habits. But it divests the human organism of the mystery and wonder with which anthropocentric philosophy has invested it. Cause and effect, conservation of energy, and all the laws of matter and motion—human action can and should be interpreted under these precepts of natural science. Sadly, though, such a viewpoint means to many that objective psychology sees the warm, throbbing human personality as an impersonal, cold machine. So it does. So does physics see the screeching, fire-belching locomotive, madly racing time to make its destination. The escape evidently is in artistic expression.

Human action is habit, builded upon reflexes or inherited nerve pathways. And habit is the outcome of stimulus and response. If you tickle us, do we not laugh? If you lash us, do we not wince? Stimulus and response—you have here in full simplicity the basic terminology of the objective school. Human action is reducible in every case to this formula.

The conditioned reflex, or conditioned habit, of which the objective school has made much, explains the complex reactions of the human organism. Conditioning is merely substituting one stimulus for another. To Pavlov, the Russian physiologist, we are indebted for the first experimental evidence of the conditioned reflex. His laboratory work on the salivary glands of dogs showed definitely how stimulus substitution works. The sight of food stimulates the salivary glands. If simultaneously with the presentation of food a gong is struck, it is found, after a few trials, that the sound of the gong alone will bring the same salivary response. A life situation will make this principle clearer. One day the teacher's loud scolding causes fear in the child. Next day the mere sight of the teacher brings about the reaction of fear. Following out this line of thought, we can interpret the most elaborate life situations in terms of stimulus and response.

Psychology owes its worthwhile accomplishments to the experimental method, without detriment of introspection. When we experiment under controlled conditions to find the effect of coffee or alcohol upon the human system, we need to measure performance time by the stop watch, and nervous reaction by the cardiometer or smoked drum. A sufficient number of records will permit reliable generalization. Here we work with the human machine before us. Our results are objective—visible, measurable, verifiable. It matters little that the subject says he felt groggy. Let the measure tell. His retrospective introspections (as all introspections must be) will needlessly complicate our scientific findings, if we take them for more than interesting reflections. Do we wish to test ability to learn poetry by heart by the "part" method or the "whole" method? Or the most desirable length of learning periods, and intervals between such periods? Then let us measure.

Baird has reported work on a city telephone directory. It was too bulky, and too much time was consumed in finding numbers. The results of experimentation showed that by using a four-column page instead of a three, and by better spacing, the bulk could be lessened by twenty per cent and telephone numbers could be found ten per cent more rapidly. It was not necessary to investigate the sensations of the directory users.

Objective psychology, to make a last point, considers learning as habit formation. It does not need satisfaction and dissatisfaction, pleasantness and unpleasantness. They are subjective, and so, confusing. Recency? Yes. Frequency? Yes. And a knowledge that the organism avoids, as a mechanical life process, harmful stimuli. The white rat may get an

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electric shock three times down a blind alley, and choose the direct path toward food but once. Yet the next time it chooses the direct path. Why? It has acquired a multiple habit, of which the whole previous situation is a stimulus—sending it down the direct path. We do not need satisfaction or consciousness or any other mystic attribute. Rather should we work to trace the nerve pathway of the stimuli involved. Max Meyer, in his "Psychology of the Other One," has given us such a theoretical explanation in terms of neural arcs.

The objective school offers psychology a simple consistent point of view for the study and interpretation of human action. It gives psychology rank with the physical sciences, which have made such splendid advances. Between subjective and objective psychology, both of which, broadly, seek to explain human conduct, scientific theory urges the latter for the reason that it is simpler. By objective methods and objective terminology, psychology has been building a body of exact knowledge that will carry us quicker toward the goal we have set—the prediction and control of human behavior.

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THE SECRETARIAL STUDIES—A UNIFIED PROGRAM OF CULTURAL, VOCATIONAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Report Prepared by a Special Committee of the Association of Chairmen of Departments of Secretarial Studies

INTRODUCTION

THIS report purposes to deal with the following topics bearing on the problem of articulation of the secretarial studies—the secretarial studies comprising stenography, typewriting, and secretarial training:

1. Fundamental Objective.
2. Specific Aims.
3. The Present Condition of the Secretarial Studies With Suggestions for Improvement.
4. Analysis of the Subject Matter of the Secretarial Studies.

The fundamental objective of the secretarial studies and the specific aims of each subject are of prime importance in determining the most satisfactory sequence of these studies and in providing for their adequate articulation.

FUNDAMENTAL OBJECTIVE

In its remote aspect it is the fundamental objective of the secretarial studies to contribute to the ultimate goal of all education in a democracy, which is the harmonious development of the individual as a citizen, or member of a social group; as a worker, or member of an economic organization; and as an independent personality.

In its more immediate aspect it is the fundamental objective of the secretarial studies to prepare the individual desirous of entering stenographic employment to realize this harmonious development through the work of his choice. To that end, these studies aim not only to equip the individual with the knowledges and skills which will enable him to earn a living at stenographic work, but also to develop those standards of performance and conduct and those mental traits which will enable him to serve society well through his work as a stenographer, to maintain the right relations toward his fellow-workers in the business organization of which he becomes a member, and to find in the stenographic field his own best development.

This fundamental objective is to be realized through the use of materials and methods (1) which shall provide scope for the exercise of initiative, resourcefulness and independent thinking, (2) which shall lead the pupils to develop desirable habits, ideals and attitudes, and (3) which shall build up in pupils the power to adapt themselves to the business office and to utilize, in the new situations encountered therein, the knowledges and skills acquired in school. Without minimizing the importance of developing skill in the technique of shorthand and typewriting, it is recognized that, if this power of adaptability is to be developed, the emphasis in the teaching of the secretarial studies must be on training the pupils to interpret and understand the meaning of the materials used.

SPECIFIC AIMS

Specific Aims in the Teaching of Typewriting

I. Of first importance is the development of an efficient operating technique; this is the basis of typing skill. Proficiency in the practical application of the operating technique in all the ordinary problems of the business office—which means the ability to copy accurately at a fair rate of speed—is the next step.

II. Practical instruction in, and a sufficient amount of practice on, laboratory problems in order to develop a correct knowledge of the form and arrangement of typewritten business papers is highly essential. The power to type such papers in attractive form from unarranged copy is of vital importance, since this kind of work in connection with the transcribing of shorthand notes is fundamental to typing success.

III. To aid the pupil, through the drill in mental alertness required in the learning process, in developing his powers to use good English, to spell correctly, to detect and correct errors—in other words, to turn in work that is commercially acceptable.

IV. In each grade a definite amount of work should be accomplished so that the teacher of the next

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grade on receiving pupils will know just what to do as far as the pupils are concerned.

V. All first-term classes should be held in one typewriting room; all second-term classes in another, so that pupils may learn how to operate more than one machine.

Specific Aims in the Teaching of Shorthand

1. To train the pupils in the ability to take verbatim dictation at a reasonable rate of speed.
2. To develop a fair degree of skill in transcribing on the typewriter shorthand notes taken in dictation.
3. To acquaint the pupil with details of business practice related to shorthand.

While a mastery of the technique of the subject is the controlling factor in shorthand instruction, it must be remembered that technical ability alone will not meet the requirements of business. The stenographer must combine his technical ability with general training and a knowledge of business practice if he is to qualify as an efficient office worker. The teaching purpose, particularly in the second year, will include, therefore, the correlation necessary to give the pupil this desired equipment.

Specific Aims in the Teaching of Secretarial Training

I. *Knowledge:* To build an informational background dealing with business practices and office procedures.

II. *Skills:* To develop secretarial skill through:
   1. Stenographic and typewriting practice;
   2. Office machine practice;
   3. Routine office practice;
   4. Projects definitely related to the secretary's work.

III. *Ideals:* To mould character and personality through the development of desirable traits and right attitudes.

IV. *Powers:* To provide adequate opportunities in the classroom and in the school at large for the application of these knowledges, skills, and ideals to genuine office situations. A complete training in this subject should result in the acquisition of knowledges, skills, and ideals which, when made to function properly, lead to secretarial efficiency. Finally, power for the solution of business situations will be attained through the proper integration of these three elements: content, skills, and traits.

Secretarial training is intended as a finishing course that will insure vocational competence in the field of stenographic employment and that will reveal to the pupil the opportunities for success through advancement in the secretarial field.

The technical stenographic skills are indispensable. However, the acquisition of these skills must be coupled with the development of specific intellectual, moral and personal qualities and traits that make for the right kind of personality.

Present Condition of the Secretarial Studies With Suggestions for Improvement

Present Sequence of the Secretarial Studies

The present sequence of the secretarial studies in the junior and senior high schools, according to the commercial course adopted by the Board of Superintendents in May, 1932, is as follows:

9th Year	*10th Year*
Jr. High Typewriting 1 & 2	Typewriting 3
11th Year	Shorthand 1 & 2
Typewriting 4 & 5	Shorthand 3 & 4
Shorthand	*12th Year*
	Secretarial Studies 1 & 2

Typewriting

Typewriting is required of all pupils in the junior high school who are taking the commercial course. To those pupils who drop out of school at the end of the 9th year it offers a means whereby to secure employment in junior occupations. To those pupils who continue the secretarial studies in the high school it becomes the foundation on which to build the higher stages of the skill, culminating ultimately in transcription skill. If this 9th-year work is to be valuable to both types of pupils mentioned, it is essential that the minimum requirements for the first year of typewriting, as laid down in the Typewriting Syllabus adopted for the use of high schools in February, 1931, be exacted of all pupils promoted into the 10th year. This is particularly important in the case of junior high school pupils who continue the study of typewriting in the senior high school. In a number of senior high schools pupils from some junior high schools have requested through their parents that they be demoted to a lower grade of typewriting, and in such cases the repetition of the work in the lower grade has been found to be to the pupils' best interests. The specific weaknesses in the training of such pupils seem almost invariably to have been inability to write by the touch method and inability to work out problems in arrangement of material from unarranged copy. Inasmuch as these skills are basic to the development of transcription skill, it is important that special attention be given to these in the 9th-year work.

As has been indicated in the introductory part of this report, the whole problem of articulation is contingent upon general objectives and specific aims, inasmuch as these determine the teaching materials and methods to be used. It is, therefore, recommended that in the 9th-year work of typewriting the junior high schools be guided by the same fundamental objective and the same specific aims as determine the direction of the work in the senior high schools, so that in the teachers' choice of material, in their method of presenting this material, and in their measurement of the pupils' achievement and fitness to continue the work of a higher grade, the

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same procedures and standards which govern the teaching of typewriting in the senior high schools may prevail.

To insure the realization of these common goals, it is suggested that the junior high schools consider adopting the Typewriting Syllabus of February, 1931, now used in the senior high schools. It is further recommended that the supervision of this work in the junior high schools be extended to the Director of Commercial Education, or that it be assigned to some other competent expert in the field, who may work with the Director toward bringing about the desired articulation.

Shorthand

Shorthand is begun in the 10th year of the senior high school, and the correlation of shorthand and typewriting is provided for in the 11th year, so that the pupil who is obliged to leave school without completing the 4th-year work is equipped to do transcription of shorthand dictation.

Some shorthand is still offered to the Commercial III, or drop-out group of pupils in the junior high school. It is recognized, of course, that shorthand cannot possibly function vocationally at this age level, particularly in the case of pupils who have been retarded in their school progress because somewhat below average in mental ability. Where pupils from this group, instead of dropping out of school, have chosen to enter the high school, it has been found impossible to build on what the pupils have acquired in this subject. If such pupils elect the commercial course, with secretarial studies as a major, they are now required to start the study of shorthand over again.

Secretarial Training

Secretarial training is offered in the 12th year of the senior high school as an elective for those pupils who have completed two years of work in shorthand and at least two years of work in typewriting. In view of the promotional possibilities in stenographic employment open to those young people who can bring to their office job a personality in which desirable attitudes and traits of character are integrated with secretarial skills and knowledges, it is highly desirable that pupils in the secretarial course round out their studies in stenography and typewriting with secretarial training. For this reason it is urged that the administration in each high school coöperate with the secretarial department to the end that the school may be turned into a field laboratory where pupils taking this finishing course may have the opportunity to have their characters moulded through practical experience in secretarial work, such experience to be obtained under appropriate guidance in accordance with whatever plan may be devised by the chairman of the secretarial department with the assistance of those coöperating.

College Entrance Credit for the Secretarial Studies

Pupils who enter high school with quite definite plans to go to college upon graduation are at present deterred from choosing the commercial course because of the failure of the colleges to give adequate recognition to the secretarial studies in evaluating the various studies which the high school graduate has to offer for college entrance. This is particularly unfortunate in the case of those pupils who, were it not for these restrictions, would elect the commercial course in the high school with a view to further specialization in commercial work in college.

Those pupils who enter high school with only a probability of going to college are for the same reason deterred from electing the commercial course; or, if they do elect it, they are virtually obliged to give up the prospect of going to college. Many of the pupils who elect the general course under these circumstances do not eventually go to college, but choose rather, or are obliged to choose, to enter a vocation. With no specialized training for business, such pupils, upon graduation from high school, find themselves at a disadvantage in seeking office employment.

A more liberal policy on the part of the colleges in crediting the secretarial studies toward the requirements for college entrance would mean a greater freedom of choice on the part of all pupils to elect the secretarial studies. This would probably result in a more able type of pupil being attracted into secretarial work. At the same time it would not bar from college those pupils of ability who, at the time of entrance into high school, did not plan definitely to go to college but who, in the course of their high school work, developed the desire or acquired the means to do so.

Analysis of Subject Matter of the Secretarial Studies

Typewriting

Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
1. Knowledge of the various parts of the typewriter and the uses of each part.	1. Skill in manipulating each part of the typewriter with precision, accuracy, and economy of effort.	1. Appreciation of the contribution to human progress resulting from the invention of the typewriter and from subsequent improvements of the mechanism.
2. Knowledge of the elements that constitute efficient operating technique.	2. Skill in coördinating the manipulation of the various parts of the machine so as to be able to operate the typewriter with facility, with a high degree of accuracy and with a fair degree of speed.	2. Appreciation of the usefulness of the ability to typewrite by touch. Desire to achieve a high degree of mastery in this skill.

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Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
3. Knowledge of the proper care of the typewriter to insure its best functioning at all times and to obviate the necessity of frequent repairs to the machine.	3. Skill in cleaning and oiling the typewriter and in replacing worn ribbons without disturbing the functioning of any working part.	3. Desire to conserve expensive equipment and to observe orderliness in its care. Desire to be coöperative.
4. Knowledge of the principles of form and arrangement as applied to typewritten material.	4. Skill in discriminating between good form and arrangement and poor form and arrangement in typewritten material.	4. Intelligent criticism of one's own work and that of others. Esthetic appreciation of what constitutes good taste in the form and arrangement of typewritten material. Exercise of judgment in the selection of the best forms.
5. Intelligent understanding of the content of business letters of various types and other business papers, together with a knowledge of how to apply the principles of good form and arrangement to the typing of such papers from unarranged copy.	5. Ability to set up from printed or handwritten unarranged copy, or from shorthand notes, business letters of various types, addresses on envelopes, messages on postcards, tabulations, invoices, financial statements, telegrams, and other business papers, such set-up to be in harmony with the principles of correct form and artistic arrangement.	5. Spirit of inquiry of intellectual curiosity with regard to the human relations underlying business transactions. Desire to achieve and maintain high standards of accuracy, neatness, and good taste in form and arrangement of typewritten work. Desire to exercise judgment and express individuality in the selection of correct forms.
6. Knowledge of the spelling, meaning and use of words comprising a business vocabulary, of the simple rules for dividing words, of commercial abbreviations, and of what constitutes good English in business forms.	6. Ability to produce accurate typewritten transcripts of printed or typewritten material which needs to be corrected, of material written in various styles of handwriting, or of shorthand notes.	6. Desire for accuracy and a high degree of efficiency in producing typewritten work that is commercially acceptable.
7. Understanding of the use of the dictionary as an aid in ascertaining the correct spelling, meaning and division of words, and the correct abbreviations of commercial terms.	7. Ability to use the dictionary expeditiously in cases of doubt concerning the spelling, meaning, or division of words, or the correct abbreviation of commercial terms.	7. Desire to apply ideals of accuracy, thoroughness and reliability in checking spelling and division of words and correctness of abbreviations, in order to avoid all possible errors in the typewritten product.
8. Knowledge of the proper use of carbon paper.	8. Skill in the care and handling of carbon paper and in the correct technique required to produce clean, legible copies of typewritten material.	8. Neatness in the production of carbon copies of typewritten material.

Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
9. Adequate conception of the standards which characterize the perfect typewritten product, combined with understanding of the procedure to be used in editing one's work and in correcting errors.	9. Skill in evaluating the typewritten product in terms of correctness of form and artistry of arrangement. Skill in discovering typographical errors in the course of editing, and in correcting such errors without defacing the typewritten product.	9. Intelligent and careful criticism of one's work. Thoroughness in checking one's work for accuracy. Neatness and reliability in making corrections. Responsibility in completing the job well and on time.
	SHORTHAND	
1. Knowledge of the elements that constitute correct writing habits.	1. Skill in writing shorthand forms with facility and a high degree of accuracy. Skill in the mechanical details of note-taking, such as writing in columns and turning the pages of the notebook.	1. Appreciation of the contribution to human progress resulting from the invention of shorthand and from the subsequent development of improved systems. Appreciation of the usefulness of the ability to write shorthand accurately and rapidly. Desire to achieve a high degree of mastery in this skill. Appreciation of shorthand technique as a fine art.
2. Understanding of the principles of the shorthand system.	2. Skill in applying the principles with facility to word-building.	2. Attitude of careful observation and critical analysis in studying the component elements of shorthand outlines and in building new outlines.
3. Understanding of the principles of phrasing.	3. Skill in applying the principles of phrasing with facility to phrase-building. Skill in reproducing common phrases with a high degree of automatization. Skill in initiating without mental hesitancy less common phrases under the stress of dictation.	3. Attitude of careful observations and critical analysis in studying the component elements of shorthand outlines and in building new outlines. Perseverance, industry and self-direction in doing the studying and practice work required to achieve a high degree of automatization in the writing of the shorthand forms.
4. Knowledge of the brief forms or word-signs.	4. Skill in reproducing the brief forms or word-signs with a high degree of automatization.	4. Perseverance, industry and self-direction in doing the studying and practice work required to achieve a high degree of automatization in the writing of these shorthand forms.

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Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
5. Acquisition of a large shorthand vocabulary comprising words common to many lines of business and those peculiar to special lines of business carried on in the local community.	5. Skill in reproducing instantly the shorthand outlines for many words in common use in business and those peculiar to special lines of business carried on in the local community. Skill in initiating without mental hesitancy the shorthand outlines for less common words under the stress of dictation.	5. Same as 4.
6. Intelligent understanding of the content of business letters dictated and of the grammatical construction of the language used.	6. Capacity to carry in the mind several consecutive words or groups of words when unable to keep up with the speed of the dictator in note-taking. Skill in "catching" errors of grammatical construction made by the dictator. Skill in correcting such errors.	6. Intellectual curiosity, and spirit of inquiry in seeking to understand the human relations underlying business correspondence. Esthetic appreciation of the qualities which characterize effective business correspondence. Alertness in noting errors of grammatical construction in the dictation, and helpfulness in correcting such errors unobtrusively. Desire to conserve human labor and material by obviating the necessity of having to do the work over again because of errors.
7. Acquisition of a large English vocabulary of business words and commercial terms in good usage today. Knowledge of the spelling, meaning and use of a wide range of synonyms, homonyms, words frequently confused and words commonly misspelled. Knowledge of the simple rules for dividing words.	7. Skill in reading notes fluently from shorthand plates in books and magazines, from one's own notes, from the notes of others, from "cold" notes. Skill in reading notes that are partly effaced or partly cut off. Skill in making accurate transcripts with a fair degree of speed.	7. Desire to further one's intellectual growth. Desire to enrich one's speaking and writing vocabulary. Desire to be competent and helpful in an unexpected situation requiring the transcription of someone else's notes. Desire to be highly efficient in producing commercially acceptable transcripts of dictated matter.
8. Understanding of the use of the dictionary as an aid in ascertaining the correct spelling, meaning and division of words, and the correct abbreviation of commercial terms.	8. Ability to use the dictionary expeditiously in cases of doubt concerning the spelling, meaning or division of words, or the correct abbreviation of commercial terms.	8. Application of ideals of accuracy, thoroughness and reliability in checking spelling and division of words, and correctness of abbreviations, in order to avoid all possible errors in the transcript.

Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
9. Knowledge of the elementary rules of English composition and punctuation. Knowledge of the elements comprising correct form and artistic arrangement of typewritten documents.	9. Skill in producing transcripts of dictated correspondence which conform to the standards of the "mailable" letter.	9. Resourcefulness in correlating knowledge and experience gained in various fields with one's shorthand skill. Dependability in being able to produce the "mailable" letter upon the first attempt.
10. Adequate conception of the standards which characterize the commercially acceptable transcript or the "mailable" letter, combined with understanding of the procedure to be used in editing one's work and correcting errors.	10. Skill in evaluating the transcript in terms of correctness of form and artistry of arrangement. Skill in discovering typographical errors in the course of editing. Skill in correcting such errors without defacing the transcript.	10. Intelligent and careful criticism of one's work. Appreciation of the importance of thoroughness in checking one's work for accuracy. Appreciation of the importance of neatness and reliability in making corrections. Responsibility in completing the job well and on time.

SECRETARIAL TRAINING

1. Greater depth and greater breadth of knowledge previously acquired in the typewriting and shorthand classes.	1. A greater degree of skill in producing typewritten work that expresses individuality, yet conforms to high standards of accuracy, correctness of form, and artistry of arrangement. A greater degree of skill in taking shorthand dictation, such dictation to include extemporaneous dictation and dictation of matter other than business correspondence, such as newspaper and magazine articles of current interest, selections from biographies and historical addresses, and articles dealing with business enterprise and success.	1. Accuracy, thoroughness, and dependability in producing transcripts that may be signed and mailed without having to be read by the dictator. Desire to enrich one's store of knowledge and refine one's skill so as to develop power to solve problems in new situations. Desire to continue one's growth through a judicious choice of reading material. Appreciation of the elements that constitute genuine success, and ambition to acquire the desirable traits of character possessed by those who have achieved such success.
2. Knowledge of the elements of secretarial routine embracing	2. Skill in the techniques associated with each element of secretarial routine.	2. Attitudes and appreciations concomitant to the development of the skills involved in secretarial office routine.

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Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
a. Elementary business office routine.	a. (1) Skill in opening, distributing, and collecting mail.	a. (1) Appreciation of the importance of establishing a systematic procedure in handling mail. Accuracy, thoroughness and dependability in following such procedure. Loyalty in handling mail confidentially in the absence of the employer.
	(2) Skill in filing and finding business papers quickly and accurately.	(2) Appreciation of the value of the details of the routine. Accuracy, thoroughness and dependability in following the routine.
	(3) Skill in caring for office equipment, including the employer s desk.	(3) Orderliness in arranging one's desk and work systematically, and in keeping one's typewriter clean. Thoughtfulness in watching ventilation, lights, etc., and in overseeing the equipment and condition of the employer's desk. Willingness in performing minor office jobs cheerfully, not regarding them as menial.
	(4) Skill in securing and caring for supplies.	(4) Orderliness in keeping adequate supplies at hand. Desire to conserve supplies and check waste.
	(5) Skill in meeting callers.	(5) Appreciation of the importance of personal appearance as an expression of the tone of the office. Courtesy in according the same treatment to all callers. Tact in pleasing the caller while conserving the employer's time and energy. Judgment in permitting or refusing an interview. Reliability in planning future appointments when the employer is not available.

Knowledges	*Skills*	*Attitudes and Appreciations*
	(6) Skill in telephone operation.	(6) Appreciation of the contributions to human progress resulting from the invention of the telephone and from its universal adoption. Accuracy and tactfulness in obtaining and in giving information. Desire to cultivate a cheerful, low, voice, with proper inflection and enunciation.
b. Preparation of a daily plan.	b. Skill in organizing the various duties comprising one's daily work.	b. Desire to be orderly, systematic, efficient in carrying on the day's work. Desire to conserve time, labor, materials.
c. Making and canceling appointments.	c. Skill in using the tickler and daily calendar. Skill in handling the correspondence involved in making and cancelling appointments.	c. Accuracy and thoroughness in recording appointments. Reliability and tact in writing letters of appointment and letters canceling appointments.
d. Answering routine correspondence.	d. Skill in composing effective business letters.	d. Desire to write letters which reflect the ethical standards of the organization. The "You" attitude in writing letters.
e. Proper disposition of incoming telephone messages.	e. Skill in obtaining information by telephone, in listing such information, and in seeing that it reaches the proper person.	e. Thoroughness, iniative and tact in obtaining all significant information. Reliability in listing such information accurately and in intelligible form. Responsibility in getting the information to the proper person promptly.
3. Knowledge of the procedure in planning a simple filing system.	3. Skill in organizing a simple filing system in the general office of high school, the filing system in the office of a chairman of department, the filing system of the G. O., the filing system of a small business office.	3. Appreciation of the service a secretary can render to his employer in the capacity of organizer. Desire to assume greater responsibilities than the immediate job calls for.

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Knowledges	Skills	Attitudes and Appreciations
4. Knowledge of the use of reference books.	4. Skill in obtaining information from commercial directories and journals, personal directories, financial directories, general directories.	4. Accuracy in securing exactly the kind of information required and correctly interpreting it. Thoroughness in sticking to the job until the information desired is obtained. Initiative in using supplementary sources when full information is not found in the original source; also in getting together data that will be needed without being told. Intellectual curiosity and spirit of inquiry in obtaining a knowledge of such sources of information. Judgment in selecting the proper source.
5. Knowledge of the services rendered by information service bureaus.	5. Skill in obtaining information on specific topics from newspapers, government bureaus, railroad travel bureaus, consolidated ticket agencies, the New York Public Library, the Better Business Bureau.	5. Same as 4.
6. Knowledge of how to keep a scrapbook.	6. Skill in obtaining material for the scrapbook, in organizing the material, in inserting it, in indexing and cross-indexing, and in arranging a table of contents.	6. Desire to be of service to the employer in connection with his intimate interests. Resourcefulness in obtaining material for the scrapbook and in choosing the right kind of book. Neatness, orderliness and painstaking care in arranging the material and inserting it. Accuracy and thoroughness in indexing and cross-indexing and in arranging a table of contents.
7. Knowledge of how to prepare printed documents.	7. Skill in proofreading. Skill in editing.	7. Accuracy and thoroughness in finding all errors. Painstaking care and reliability in making all necessary corrections. Dependability in making appropriate revisions in punctuation, grammar, sentence structure, and diction of material being edited.

Knowledges	Skills	Attitudes and Appreciations
8. Knowledge of how to get travel information and how to prepare an itinerary.	8. Skill in reading time tables. Skill in using traveler's guide books or the hotel red book. Skill in making reservations at hotels. Skill in making appointments. Skill in arranging all other necessary details.	8. Accuracy and thoroughness in getting all information necessary for planning the itinerary. Judgment in arranging the itinerary so as to provide for comfortable accommodations, avoid delays, etc. Thoughtfulness and initiative in devising means for obviating the petty annoyances incident to a trip.
9. Knowledge of secretarial machine operation.	9. Skill in operating the dictaphone or ediphone, the mimeograph, the addressograph.	9. Desire to be competent and coöperative when called upon to perform duties outside of one's regular routine.
10. Knowledge obtained through direct experience.	10. Adaptability — skill in making use of the knowledges, skills and attitudes acquired in the classroom. a. In the performance of secretarial duties in the offices of administrative heads, of chairmen of departments, of grade advisers, and of others who may coöperate. b. In reporting school assemblies, minutes of meetings, radio broadcasts.	10. Appreciation of the importance of cultivating personality. Appreciation of the importance of good appearance, nice manners, a willing and cheerful disposition and good health. Appreciation of the importance of developing character. Spirit of service in doing work for which one gets no financial return. Feeling of self-confidence resulting from the growth in power to use acquired skills, knowledges, and attitudes in solving problems in new situations.

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MENTAL HYGIENE SELF-ADMINISTERED

THE acceptance of mental hygiene as a social and individual beneficence has been attested by the number and the size of mental hygiene and behavior clinics which have developed like mushrooms within the past few years both here and abroad.

When a "naughty" child's inability to solve his problems rationally manifests itself in conspicuous maladjustments annoying to society, he is taken to a guidance clinic where attempt is made to bring about a better relationship between him and his environment through re-education of the former and alteration of the latter. But the "good" child, the withdrawing child, who compensates for felt inadequacies by substituting for satisfactions usually derived from toys and playmates, daydreams of admiration won by superlative heroism, or fancied adventures of equally superlative villainy or of "getting even," is permitted to continue his unwholesome conduct, and allowed to develop maladies which lead to mental hospitals, because outwardly rectitudinous, he does not thwart our purposes. Because a knowledge of themselves and an evaluation of the adjustments people make to their environment would give children a better insight into their own problems and an understanding of rational methods of solving them, and because this knowledge would go far toward preventing the establishment of behavior anomalies as fixed habits, the plea here made is for regular instruction in mental hygiene for all school children.

Aside from the so-called "enemies of society," the thieves, incendiaries, murderers, racketeers, and others, there are in the busy population on the streets, in the subways, in the stores, and in the restaurants, other extreme cases—young people who could contribute generously to society—with personalities so dilapidated that the energy they should be spending in achievement is passed in obtaining fancied satisfactions, or answering with self-inflicted punishment and reproach the imagined voices they hear thundering harsh names and threatening hell-fire and brimstone. The real tragedy is not so much the finis in hospital or suicide as the fact that an early understanding of themselves and their environment would have led to rational adjustment and useful, joyous living. These are the extreme cases, yet because of their greater incidence, the less severe are equally important. Grown women, showing by adoption of a lisp or "baby talk" their dissatisfaction with the present and their desire to be again coddled as an infant; men, uncertain of their manliness, evincing their lack of assurance by going about with a "chip on the shoulder"; wives howling for the things they cannot acquire peaceably; husbands compensating by bullying at home for felt inferiority at the office; henpecked employers "taking it out" on their subordinates—these and all kinds of unfortunate emotional outbursts and attitudes which prevent people from realizing their highest capacity in achievement and happiness are ways of meeting problems. These lower-level adjustments were *learned*, not through carefully prepared presentation by a teacher, and purposeful drill, but through the relief or satisfaction attained by accidentally hitting upon a way out, and habituation of the method by repeated application to similar situations.

Courses in psychology are regularly offered in the colleges, but by this time, conflicts unsolved, mostly conflicts with self dating back to early childhood, have too often left psychic scars of mental anguish and painful memories, of fears and worries, and vicious habits of temporarily wriggling out of dilemmas on childish levels which unfit for successful living. Besides, most pupils never enter college, and once having left the lower schools, they have neither the inclination nor the opportunity to learn those facts which would help them in making happy adjustments as sons and daughters, as employees, as citizens, and as parents.

The teaching of adequate intellectual reactions has been the traditional business of the schools. The principles of physical hygiene have been also incorporated in the curriculum; and, beginning in the elementary school, children are taught to care for their bodies, not only to obviate the necessity of medical aid, but to keep minor ailments and poor health habits from impairing their efficiency. Mental health, vastly more important, because without it the individual cannot care for even his physical well-being, is neglected until a definite abnormality develops. If no striking maladjustment appears, there still develop antagonism, disgruntled dispositions, fears of attack and defeat, self-defensive attitudes, and other unfortunate mental twists, some of which not one of us escapes, and which hinder maximum effective and happy living.

Just as regular periods are assigned to the teaching of sound intellectual and physical health habits, so should the principles of mental balance be incorporated in the curriculum. We owe it to children to make them as self-directive in this, the most important matter in the world, as we aim to make them in others. We permit them when thwarted blindly to find a way out through day-dreaming, through evasion, through self-deception, through rationalizing, through compensation, through "sour-graping," and through projecting upon others their own shortcomings, and the most we do, unless maladjustments have reached objectionable proportions, is to berate their weak solutions instead of teaching them to adjust on higher levels.

The drives that motivate mankind and their modification through social pressure; the mechanisms which lead to mental anomalies and the manner of their acquisition as habits; the importance of facing problems and themselves finding the solutions which preserve the greatest number of values,

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or seeking expert help; the necessity of correcting errors as soon as they are recognized; sportsmanship in disappointment; mental reservation despite necessary adherence to adult dicta; and, best of all, the function of their own efforts in speeding the time when they will be self-directive—these and many other facts could be explained in the classroom. Enough is known about childhood and adolescence to construct a course continuous through the elementary and high schools which would help children of these ages adequately to meet the problems they are experiencing, and to gradually gain power later to meet rationally more difficult situations. Such a syllabus could further embrace some of the topics usually included in the psychology of childhood, of adolescence, of adult life, of character, and in social psychology, which would give them an understanding of themselves and their environment. This does not mean that courses presented at the college level should be given in the lower schools. This, like all other subjects, must be adapted and graded.

Thus, the six-year-old lives in a world of fears. He is afraid of his parents, his elder brothers and sisters, the policeman, the dark, lightning, water, and everything he does not understand. We take great pains to teach him all about Santa Claus—how he looks, what he wears, where he lives, and how he travels, but we make no definite aim of unconditioning the fear habit which strangles his initiative and wrecks his happiness. Other situations, such as the displacement from the center of the universe by the advent of a new baby in the family, and the reactions with which children meet such situations—temper tantrums, negativism, pouting, and food fads—could be discussed, and the proper reactions could be inculcated, possibly in games set aside for mental health instruction at a definite time, so that those children who reserve these demonstrations for home consumption and whose psychotic tendencies are not detected by a discerning teacher, could profit by it also.

In the high school many children continue to be beset with fears—fear of recitations, of examinations, of failures, of parents, of meeting people, and of numberless other situations. "Oh God, let nothing happen!" was the devout prayer of one young girl as she entered a classroom. Sex worries and religious doubts are new problems, and only those who have worked with mental cases can know the extent to which these figures in aberrations. Though the psychology of sex is taught in the more advanced high schools, adolescents are not helped to meet concrete problems, and their trial-and-error solutions are fraught with much disintegrating conflict. The following exemplifies a case where help given, almost too simple to narrate, was definite and real. A. G., a girl about sixteen, showed considerable antagonism in her reactions, refused to join any school club, absented herself from parties, was unwilling, cynical, disgruntled, sarcastic, and generally unpleasant. Despite good intelligence, she was failing in several subjects. Discussion of her problem revealed a conflict between her ideals and demands that were being made on her friendship. She complained that life was ugly, and that if she wished to have the attentions every young girl craves, she must relinquish cherished ideals. After perusing suggested readings, and replacing "tête a tête" companionship with more inclusive functions, according to advice offered, she reported herself much happier, and is doing better school work. Many schools boast a dean to whom pupils can come with their problems, but the former is usually too busy with administrative work, and the latter too diffident to discuss really personal matters. An impersonal treatment of the situations which worry young people is needed. Through appropriate readings and discussions of anonymous statements of pupils' own problems, or through other methods to be discovered by experiment, revision, and further experiment, the lives of these older children could be made more tranquil and happy.

That a universal interest exists in matters dynamically psychological is attested by the curiosity people evince in each other's behavior. At the high school age, this interest has been demonstrated to the writer by the many requests received for topics to be read and used in English essays, by titles of books selected for leisure reading, and by the rapt attention given to explanations of their own behavior when opportunity offered.

The construction of a program such as is here advocated presents extraordinary difficulties; first, because a preventive approach to the problem lacks the wide empirical background supporting the therapeutic attack on adult attitudes initially responsible for children's symptoms, and secondly, because execution of such a highly technically program, if it should not deteriorate into mere well-intentioned meddling, not to say more unfortunate conditioning, demands a technically trained personnel. But "experiment is the only method in education," in this field as in any other, and eventually it must yield gratifying results.

Living conditions are becoming progressively more complex, and adjustment increasingly difficult. Guidance clinics draw only children whose abnormal conduct has become seriously manifest; behavior clinics draw only mothers who have enough intelligence to realize the value of preschool training for little children. University courses draw only a very small proportion of teachers; but all children attend school, and as all children are taught physical health, so should all children be taught the laws governing mental health. Whereas guidance as we now now have it is corrective, instruction would be preventive. The funds spent by municipalities in building larger and better prisons, penitentiaries, and mental hospitals might better be spent in education for self-direction by providing instruction at an early age for the self-administration of mental hygiene.

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HIGH POINTS

Early Days, a Pageant

"Early Days," a musical review and historical pageant written by George S. Dare and given in Curtis High School this year, brought out the mellow humor, the grace, the charm, and the dignity of the beginnings of American history.

After ushers in light blue brocade and powdered wigs bowed the audience to their seats, the five-part pageant, a good deal like "Green Pastures" in construction, was unfolded. Historical and poetical prologues, delivered by a boy and a girl, welded the parts together. There was no scenery, soft curtains or screen; costumes and changing lights were the setting for all the parts. Part I, Scene 1, disclosed squatting bronzed Indian chiefs smoking the pipe of peace. A wounded brave carried by his fellows introduced the Medicine Man ceremonies which, to the accompaniment of a quickened beat of the tom-tom and Herbert's "Dagger Dance," passed into an authentic American Indian dance, the Wolf Dance. Cadman's "From the Land of the Sky Blue Water," Lieurance's "By the Waters of Minnetonka," and the Maliseet Love Song, sung by an Indian brave in the moonlight to his silent girl lover, impressed the audience with the beauty and restraint of an Indian wooing.

In Part II the two side aisles of Feldman Hall were used to introduce the pioneers and settlers. Preceding the exchange of gifts between the Indians and Henry Hudson's crew, the orchestra played the Holland National Hymn. The curiosity of the Indians aroused by the costumes of Hudson's men gave way to awe as Father Marquette, holding a rude wooden cross, approached the stage. The "Te Deum Laudamus" of the Jesuits died away to Croft's "O God, Our Help" which led to the meeting between the Indians and John Smith's gayly dressed English ladies and gentlemen. A spotlight directed down the hall lit the bowed heads of a band of Puritans as they advanced to MacDowell's "A. D. 1620," "lining out" "Old Hundredth" when they reached the platform. Accompanied by MacDowell's "From an Indian Lodge," the Indians in pantomime closed their friendly dealings with Europeans by giving to William Penn and his followers the "land beyond the river."

Part III reflected the settled life in the colonies. In Scene 1, two Puritan women sang "Mear" as they did their kitchen tasks, once in a while gently rocking the rough cradle. Scene 2 depicted life among the slaves. Old "Grampa" quavered "Carry Me Back to Old Virginny" as he slowly crossed the stage strumming on his banjo. Two woolly headed pickanninies who had wiggled their way out from between the curtains vied with one another in contorting fingers, arms, and legs and later cautiously, to the tune of "Old Zip Coon," followed the loose jointed dance movements of two older slaves, the whole scene ending with the Negro spiritual, "Deep River." Scene 4 revealed the color and charm of a Southern gathering at Mount Vernon. The younger set danced the minuet while chaperons gossiped. Francis Hopkinson sang his "My Days Have Been So Wondrous Free"; Nellie Custis followed with "Nora, Dear Nora"; the scene broke up with a joyous Virginia reel to the tune of "Up and Down."

Part IV gave the audience the spirit of '76 with the beating of drums for recruits, the singing of "Yankee Doodle," the talking in hushed whispers on an almost darkened stage. The reading of the last lines of the Declaration of Independence came next, followed by the silent signing of grave gentlemen seated and standing about a table. The opening curtains then disclosed Lord Howe pacing back and forth in the Billop House and his fruitless conference with Franklin, Adams, and Rutledge. Scene 4 was opened by the night watchman's bell and his cry of "All's well" to groups who talked in whispers that rose to shouts when came the news of the battle of Yorktown. "The President's March" was a stirring close. "See The Conquering Hero Comes" accompanied the drawing of the curtains upon the next scene, George Washington repeating the oath of office in New York. "Old Glory Passes By" and two stanzas of "America," the latter sung by the audience, closed the pageant.

The high seriousness and the finish of this production were the result of the whole school's working as a unit. The art department was responsible for costumes; the English department for acting and lighting; (and not the least important were the actors behind the scenes, the "lights" boys); the music department for vocal and orchestral music; the physical education department for the dances. Many among the audience caught what the teacher of adolescents often experiences in serious class discussions: the sincerity and the idealism of the younger generation.

HELEN J. BURROWS.
Curtis High School.

Stenography and Typewriting As Cultural Tools

Has it occurred to teachers that stenography and typewriting are not only vocational and utilitarian occupations, but that they relate to a cultural economy and equipment and that they can be so treated? Do they know that teachers can appeal to the inherent curiosity of our young people, their interest in solving problems, their constructive and imaginative propensities in teaching these subjects?

We can relate these subjects to other subjects in the curriculum and make them useful in acquiring other subject matter. Just as good spoken English is a desideratum in all classes, we can find ways of using shorthand and typewriting in other subjects; also in extra-curricular activities, clubs, and home and community affairs.

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Educational experiments have demonstrated that pupils who typewrite their spelling words or arithmetic examples do more accurate work than the handwriters in these subjects. Undoubtedly, to require that English essays be typed will result in better essays; and to require history outlines and science observations to be typed, will result in better organization and understanding of the material. We may depart somewhat from the stereotyped procedure of copying letters, bills, tables, and the like, and allow our advanced pupils to do more typing of reports assigned to them in other school departments. Shorthand note-taking can be encouraged in the social science classes. In other words, the cultural and personal value of shorthand and typewriting can be more stressed than it has been in the past.

Before a general education was considered the birthright of every person, handwriting was a vocation; in Rome, the vocation of slaves; in the Middle Ages, the vocation of clerics. To a large extent, stenography and typewriting have occupied an analogous utilitarian position. I believe stenography and typewriting have passed the utilitarian milestone and can be considered a general educational accomplishment just as handwriting is and which they are in a high-speed machine age displacing in a large measure.

The foregoing suggestions for extending the scope of the work in shorthand and typewriting are by no means exhaustive. A larger study of the possibilities will have to be made both for general and local application.

H. J. NEWMAN.
Theodore Roosevelt High School.

Children's Questions in Biology

In an article entitled "Functional Biology" appearing in the February, 1932, issue of HIGH POINTS, the writer reported a number of "big-ideas" or major objectives in biology which were obtained from an analysis of the writings of specialists in the field. It was then suggested that an evaluation of these big-ideas ought to be made on the basis of the interests of children about to begin the study of biology, as evidenced by their questions. This has been done and the following is a report of the results.

The following questionnaire was submitted to 955 eighth-grade pupils, 455 boys and 500 girls:

BOYS AND GIRLS:

You are soon going to study biology, which deals with the activities, description and inter-relationship of living things. As you know, all living things are divided into two groups: *plants* which consist of roots, stems, leaves and flowers, and *animals* like insects, fishes, frogs, snakes, birds, fur-covered animals and *human beings*. You must have wondered a great deal about these different forms of life and undoubtedly have a number of questions about them that you have never been able to get answered. Your biology teacher would like to know these questions so that he might arrange to have them answered for you. Will you please write your questions on this sheet of paper.

Name .....
Age .....yrs. .....mos. Sex { Boy / Girl

In response to this questionnaire, 4,595 questions were obtained.

Range in the Number of Questions Asked

Boys	0 to 13
Girls	1 to 26

Average Number of Questions Asked

Boys	4.91
Girls	4.40

An analysis of these 4,595 questions showed that the children were much more interested in animal life than in plant life or in the human being. The following table lists the frequency with which questions were asked about the groups into which they may easily be classified:

Group	*No. of Questions*
Plants	991
Animals	2,368
Man	769
Miscellaneous	377
Non-biological	90

The miscellaneous group included questions about diseases without reference to any particular organism, evolution, investigations and discoveries of biologists, the history of biology, and so forth.

The group of questions asked about animals was further analyzed to determine the group of animals in which the children were most interested with the following results:

Group of Animals	*No. of Questions*	*Total*
Invertebrates	.....	448
Insects	365	.....
Worms	58	.....
Others	25	.....
Fish	489	489
Amphibians (Frog only)	78	78
Reptiles	.....	339
Snakes	319	.....
Others	20	.....
Birds	384	384
Mammals	391	391
Animals (Not specified)	239	239
	2,368	2,368

Conclusions: Children will ask questions about those situations and problems which have challenged them and are valuable in the evaluation of the big-ideas in biology, in that they come out of the direct everyday experiences of the children. To use these questions for this purpose is important, but to depend entirely on them is faulty, for an item ranked among the lowest ten may receive such a rank, not because of lack of interest in this item, but for one of two other possible reasons: (1) A limited experience which has not given the pupils a sufficient knowledge or background to enable them to ask questions, or (2) they may not feel the need to ask about certain things because of an enriched experience which has given the pupils a complete knowledge.

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The results of the tabulation of the frequencies of questions asked which could be answered through the development of the generalizations in biology point to some very definite conclusions:

A. There is a marked interest on the part of pupils in the following, in the order in which they are listed:

1. The difference in structure, function and habits of living things.
2. The adaptation of structure to function and function to habitat.
3. The struggle for existence and the devices for preserving and continuing the race.
4. The necessity for, the process, and the results of oxidation.
5. The methods of obtaining oxygen by living things.
6. The ability of the organisms to respond by growth, movement, or in some other way to external stimuli.
7. The process of assimilation and growth.
8. The methods of obtaining food and shelter by living things.
9. The methods of reproduction in the higher forms of life.
10. The contribution of scientists to the knowledge of the causes, prevention and treatment of diseases.

B. That there is either a lack of interest in, a complete knowledge of, or an insufficient background in the following:

1. Heredity in plants and animals and the study of eugenics and euthenics in the human being.
2. The fact that bacteria are vital to agricultural processes and beneficial to man in other ways.
3. The fact that reproduction may result in variation.
4. The fact that living things are dependent upon other living things directly or indirectly (symbiosis, parasitism and saprophytism).
5. The phylogenetic development of organisms and its significance to the evolution theory.
6. The psychological effect of worry and unpleasantness upon the activities of the human being.
7. The geographic distribution of organisms and the evidences which it brings forth in favor of evolution.
8. The definite relationship which exists among living things.
9. The value of muscular exercise upon the tone of the muscle in developing respiration, improving circulation and stimulating digestion.
10. In the vocational and avocational possibilities that are influenced by biology.

A large number of the questions were asked which showed that the pupils were influenced by superstition and prejudice or were in error concerning the true facts. The following list of questions are a few which led to this conclusion:

1. Is it true that cats have nine lives?
2. Why have spiders five lives?
3. Do worms remain worms throughout their lives?
4. Why is it that a she-rubber plant loses some of its leaves and a he-rubber plant does not?
5. Why does the evergreen die in the summer and live in the winter?
6. Why do dogs turn around before they lie down?
7. Why is it after a rain you will always notice snakes on the ground?
8. Do milk snakes suckle cows?
9. Why has the snake so many feet?
10. How does a plant breathe in carbon dioxide and breathe out oxygen?
11. Why is it that polar bears have fur and seals haven't?
12. Does a person get black when he is in his grave?
13. Is it true that the more strength a person has the more hair will be grown on his body?
14. Does a drowning person really come up three times?
15. Why do Chinese people eat less than white people?
16. Why do goldfish live longer when you don't feed them?
17. Has a shark little pilot fish in his eyes?
18. How long can a whale stay above water?
19. Why aren't dogs supposed to eat much meat?
20. When a horse breaks a leg, why can't it be mended?

A very great interest was evidenced by the large number of questions inquiring as to the ability of living things to speak to one another. Sample questions follow:

1. Why can't animals talk?
2. Do animals talk to each other in their language?
3. Why can't every person understand an animal?
4. Do fish use languages?
5. How is it that monkeys can talk?
6. Have animals any knowledge in their world?
7. Have animals any way of speaking?
8. Do animals understand each other?
9. Do plants have any way of communicating with each other?
10. Do bears have a language?

A number of questions were asked about the processes and mechanics of thinking and dreaming:

1. Have plants and trees the power of thinking?
2. What causes people to dream?
3. How does man think?
4. How do our minds work?
5. What controls our minds?
6. What is the mind made up of?
7. Why do we dream?
8. What part of the brain controls memory?
9. What are dreams?
10. Do other mammals dream?

The above analysis suggests two types of instruction: (1) for the purpose of answering the questions of the pupils, thereby satisfying their curiosity and giving them a back-

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ground for the purpose of further learning, and (2) remedial instruction for the purpose of correcting errors and reducing prejudices and superstitions.

The evaluation of the big-ideas on the basis of the questions asked by pupils is significant. However, there must be further evaluation on the basis of other valid criteria. It is suggested that an evaluation on the basis of the types of biological material that appear in the public press might prove valuable. It is hoped that this may be done.

BENJAMIN T. DIAMOND.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Secondary Education at the Cross-Roads

Discussions of secondary schools in our educational system have recently been in progress at Teachers College. A *New York Times* editorial states that "the secondary school is not even beginning to be what it might be in return for the public investment." The secondary schools must now either justify their existence or be remodeled. However, we must be careful as to our methods of evaluation, for some of the values are difficult to appraise. Far more important than the mastery of the specific subjects is the mere presence of the youth in the high school for four years, since here character is molded.

Two considerations are warranted. First, since we live in a capitalistic world we must pay for this instruction, which is expensive. No one cares to expend money without determining the full value to be derived, and although character molding is important, one must also determine the value of each subject of the curriculum and whether new subjects might not well be added or even substituted for many of the existing ones. No new idea is here conceived when it is suggested that we test our graduates of, say, one, five and ten years ago with the very Regents' examination they took when students in the high schools. The results obtained from these tests would tend to keep uppermost in our minds the great loss of content due to failure of memory. Also, we might test the value of the courses by the practical use made of this background, not alone in business, but in daily conversation and in articles read in newspapers and periodicals.

Secondly, one questions the value of this character training for use in later life. Do not our eminent educational authorities claim these schools to be secular cloisters in which the aim is to instill into the youth proper habits, thoughts, acts, morals, ethics and regard for his fellow-man? Is this practicable? Should we rather not teach the pupil to prepare for life according to the standards which exist in business, in fact, in life in general?

Should we not institute a course which would show the corruption in political life in our cities, states and Federal Government, not confined to the underling, but to include the official in high station? Should we not emblazon in the text-books the chicanery of financial houses, not only bucket shops, but the ones who are members of the most well-known exchanges? Should we not point to dishonesty in all forms, to the business transacted by the parents of the pupils being taught and ask these pupils to offer illustrations in tomorrow's lesson from their personal experiences? Should we not produce evidence of the dishonest statements rampant in social relationships, not confined to associates, but extending to friends and relatives, even to our own homes? Would it not be advantageous for our youth to point out the many ways our laws are circumvented? Also, should we not be more candid in the expression of our bigotry and in the rationalization of our prejudices and our intolerant dogma, not alone in religious, but in racial and political acts?

Such a course of study as outlined above might well include a subdivision on manners and mannerisms. In our present society it is necessary to acquire a suavity and polish so that one's motives be dissimulated.

The above paragraphs would seem to indicate that the author is whimsical, but he is all too serious. He believes that if this is life in its true colors, then our pupils should be properly equipped for it and should not be required to unlearn in a few years that which took four or more years to imbibe. Or, perhaps, the pupil has never learnt what we teach of character training, but merely mouths our "aphorisms," knowing full well that they are only for school consumption.

But possibly this course is too pessimistic. No chance for spiritual advancement is offered in such a decadent society. Is there no escape, no other path to pursue in the guidance of our new generation? The only other one available is to set our house in order. Let it be a proper model for our young ones to live in and build upon. In short, if we desire that our youth have confidence in us, we must not only institute in our schools a definite course in ethics and morals tending to cultivate a "responsive social outlook," but we must in our daily life live up to this program, play the game. Thus, only, can our civilization rise to an ever higher plane.

MILTON G. WOLF.

James Madison High School.

Free Composition in French

In my opinion, the most difficult topic to teach in French is composition writing. The problem is an entirely different one from writing compositions in English. Because of their superior knowledge of English, students can say much more in that language than in French. Most pupils have the tendency to translate their English thoughts into French. The result is that the compositions are full of mistakes and the French sentences are merely English sentences with French words. The problem is, therefore, a most difficult one unless we bear certain things in mind. The teacher must guide the pupil very carefully, so that he avoid pitfalls.

The teacher must realize that we cannot teach composition, idioms,

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translation, dictation and comprehension as separate topics, because they are not divorced from each other in any respect. Let us suppose, for instance, that we have to teach composition to a sixth-term class which has never written any free compositions. The pupils know nothing about writing compositions, of course. It is up to the teacher to teach how to write. The instructor picks out a topic that the pupils are to write upon. For example, at the beginning of the term, I listed a number of themes that the pupils were to write upon during the course of the semester. I picked out ten themes. The themes to be written upon must be alive, and must be connected with the daily life of the pupils; otherwise they are dull and uninteresting. At the beginning of this term, when the pupils were back from their summer vacations, I chose this theme: "Les grandes vacances." Two weeks later, when all the programs of the students were adjusted and the work of the term in full swing, another topic was chosen: "Les études à l'ecole." A week or so later another composition was chosen: "Une soirée à la maison." During October and November the students are greatly interested in winter sports. This fact suggested another theme: "Les sports d'automne et d'hiver." In short, I try to pick out a theme which at the time will interest the pupils. The fifth composition which I have in mind is an entirely different one from the others: "Mes amis et moi." For the rest of the term I have listed these topics: "Un livre que j'ai lu"; "Un spectacle intéressant"; "Les vacances de Noël"; "La ville où je demeure"; "La maison où je demeure"; "Ma dernière classe de français."

On mimeographed sheets prepared especially for them, the pupils are given all the material needed to write a good composition. Let us pick out one of the compositions and see just how to present it to the pupils. The theme chosen is "Mes amis et moi."

I arrange for five exercises. The first exercise is listed as "Etudes de mots." I list a number of words in this exercise such as *camarade, le signalement, nez aquilin, taille petite, moyenne, grande, drôle, brave, yeux bleus, cheveux blonds, cheveux châtains, cheveux coupés, ondulation permanente, cheveux frisés, sourcils noirs, chez moi, chez eux.* I shall not trouble to suggest more words. All are words which the students need. The student must have the tools to work with, otherwise they cannot write. The instructor must bear in mind the idioms that are required during the third year course in French and incorporate them in the composition. Of course the instructor must choose only those idioms which the student can use in the composition. Any idiom which does not naturally fit in with the composition should not be chosen. If an idiom is taken out of its milieu it means nothing. I therefore list in the next paragraph about twelve idioms, half of which the students are already familiar with, such as *faire la connaissance de, penser de, penser à, compter sur, avoir l'intention de, avoir envie, tenir à, tenir de, s'amuser bien, avoir les cheveux châtains, passer une soirée des plus agréables.* Naturally, it is essential to drill the students on those idioms with which he is not already familiar.

We are now ready for the next exercise—questions to be answered in French. It is understood that the instructor must bear in mind the ultimate objective of the exercises—the writing of the free composition. The questions are selected with care. The words of the "Etudes de mots" and the idioms in the next exercise are incorporated in the questions and in such an order that all the answers in order form a composition. There need be no more than twenty questions of this type: *Comment s'appelle votre meilleur ami? Quel âge a-t-il? Où avez-vous fait sa connaissance? Quel est le signalement de votre ami? Quand pensez-vous à vos amis? Sur qui comptez-vous quand vous avez une soirée chez vous? A-t-il envie de s'amuser bien chez vous? Avez-vous passé une soirée des plus agréables? Pourquoi aimez-vous vos amis? De qui tient votre ami?* The answers of the pupils will of course be different so that the compositions are not the same.

The next exercise may be omitted at the discretion of the instructor—the exercise from English to French. Even in this exercise the instructor must bear in mind that the ultimate objective is to write a composition. The sentences in this exercise in order will also form a composition. Repetition is very important in the process of learning. The next day assign the students the composition to be written at home. It will take them no more than fifteen minutes. Four pupils are sent to the board and their compositions corrected. Those who have not put their work on the board will be able to correct most of their own errors by looking carefully at the board. The mistakes that pupils make are of the same type and it is comparatively easy for them to make corrections. One or two days later the pupils are asked to write their compositions in class. They are allowed to consult nothing while writing. This last exercise takes no more than ten minutes. Of course when you collect this last exercise it must be corrected and handed back to the pupil.

I know that some will think that this work takes too much time. I have tried this method and found out that such is not the case. The first composition and perhaps the second will have many mistakes, but with each succeeding composition the pupils will make less and less mistakes. The exercises need not be given all for the same day. A little each day and we have a composition. As an additional exercise, read a well prepared dictée, which is just another composition under the same theme.

What is accomplished while teaching the pupils to write compositions in French? The students learn new words, the dictation gives oral and aural practice, idioms are learned in the proper way, and the translation from English to French gives grammar drill. Then when the pupils write the composition they must keep their

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eyes open to make sure that adjectives agree with nouns, that the subject of a verb and the verb are of the same number and person, and so forth. Of course the compositions are not all written in the same tense. This shows the pupils how to use tenses correctly.

The instructor is the guide of the students. Unless he shows them how to write they never will learn.

THOMAS J. DE LELLIS.

Evander Childs High School.

The Art of Reading

In placing reading first among the three R's, the framers of the immortal phrase intended, I am sure, to express at once their personal preference for the subject, and their belief in its value in the curriculum.

Here at Theodore Roosevelt High School, with the same patent partiality, four of the ten uniform lessons that open the term's work in English are devoted to the art of reading.

The first of these lessons is on the use of the library. Anticipating the needs of the pupils, the English teachers devote a period early in the first week of the term to an explanation of the arrangement of books, the use of the card catalogue, and the reference facilities of the library. Even though newcomers to the school will be given a lesson later on by the school librarian, teachers of the first grade feel they should themselves initiate first termers into the mysteries of a library. In the lower grades, the simpler facts about book arrangement are stressed, for these children seem to know but one answer to the problem of finding a book—"Ask the librarian!" In the upper grades, more difficult problems are discussed; some teachers hand out cards with questions requiring the use of reference material, and conduct the class to the library to explore until the answers are found.

The second of the lessons designed to encourage reading is the one on the idea and method of leisure reading. On the day for this lesson pupils receive their lists for the selection of the monthly book for outside reading—one book of fiction, one biography, one play, and one book of poems. Dates are assigned for the completion of each book. Once more, instructions may be given on how to find each type of book on the library shelves. A check on library cards is made, to be sure that the facilities of the library are really at the command of each pupil. On that day, too, I encourage the pupils to discuss freely their reading habits. When the bold confession is made," I don't like reading!" I recommend one of the easier, shorter books on the list, perhaps one that will lure the boy or girl with its humor to the field of reading. Another pupil may express a preference for the cheap novels that find no place on the list. At first, shocked by the audacity of one who ventures an opinion contrary to the one that teachers want, others in the class soon confess to a similar preference. Then I try to flatter these candid pupils into a state of willingness to try something better suited to their ability, and better worth their time.

From some other pupil, if possible, I try to obtain some statement of the differences between good and bad books, in character delineation, originality of plot, value of thought. One enthusiastic reader in the class can fire a dozen others with a desire to read books that are worth lingering over and remembering.

The third of the lessons is on magazine and newspaper reading. Some teachers have the pupils buy a particular one, and study it in class with the aid of the teacher. Others have a discussion of the favorite magazines and newspapers, with an attempt, of course, to win the pupils away from the poorer type of magazine or newspaper. Once more, the idea of worthwhile reading is stressed, and through flattery or example, the pupils are induced to read those preferred by educated adults.

The last of the lessons is on silent reading. The rules are given for reading without lip or finger movement, for speeding the rate of reading by occasional skipping of unimportant words and by constant anticipation of the writer's thoughts. A test is usually prepared on a passage from a book, magazine, or newspaper. In most cases, the mark received will show a definite correlation with other marks as the term's work progresses.

At the end of the first two weeks of the term, then, every pupil in every English class in the school has heard and participated in four discussions of reading and matters related to that art. All have been led to the fountain; during the remainder of the term some will drink deeply, others lightly, but at least all know of the existence of the fountain!

ETHEL K. HARTE.

Theodore Roosevelt High School.

Clio Visits Euterpe

Is history only the record of dynastic wars, political intrigues, and legislative enactments? The modern historian answers emphatically, "No!" Dynasties vanish, politicians fret, fume, and are gone; laws are forgotten on statute books. A Tanagra figurine survives to tell us of the grace, charm, and coquetry of the Greek woman. A line of Sappho's proves stronger than the Athenian navy. An ivory bed found in an Egyptian tomb discloses to us the state of the arts in a kingdom of long ago. Manhattan's towers may be shattered as a new world dances to a descendant of the "St. Louis Blues."

The newer historian realizes the value of cultural history, yet too often allocates to it a chapter or two, extraneous to the text, and possessing no vital connection with it. The average high school teacher, called upon by the new conception of history to teach about David and Ingres, Scarlatti and Haydn finds himself repeating names of artists or titles of creative works with which he is wholly unfamiliar. His carefully prepared training period has not included these highly specialized fields. He feels a bungler, and too often contents himself by passing out mimeographed sheets containing lists of names in cultural history, which may appear in the next series

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of State examinations. The magic names of Mozart and Monet are memorized like so many chemistry formulas, only to be forgotten the next day. The purpose of introducing to students great writers, artists, and musicians is to enrich their lives by familiarity with aesthetic beauty. How to achieve this purpose without throwing an impossible burden on the history teacher, is a grave problem. We have tried to solve it in the field of music by the experiment described in this article.

In New Utrecht High School modern European History is given in the fourth and fifth terms. During their third term at school students may elect as a half-unit, a half year of general history. The half-year covers, of course, not merely ancient history, but the story of western civilization to the French Revolution. We have always felt that the students would be better prepared for understanding the difficult problems of modern European society if they began the work with a firm grasp of the cultural background of the great European nations. A large part of History A, therefore, should be devoted to cultural rather than political history. To realize this, five correlating lessons were planned by the history and music departments of the school. These lessons were given in the weeks assigned to the class room study of the lesson units. The units were:

I. *The Church Era*

Ascendancy of the Church—Gothic Architecture—Literature of the Middle Ages—Music of the Early Church Era—Recorded Music of the Early Church Era—Luther and the Reformation—Bach and His Influence on Church Music—Records of Music by Bach.

II. *The Classical Period*

Ascendancy of Sovereign Power—Court Life—Literature of Eighteenth Century — Mansart and French Architecture—The Classical Period in Music—Recorded Music of Monteverde, Lully, Handel, Haydn, Mozart.

III. *The Romantic Period*

The Industrial Revolution and the Rise of the Middle Class—The French Revolution and the Triumph of the Bourgeoisie—Romantic Literature—Romanticism in Music—Recorded Music of Beethoven, Schubert, Schumann, Mendelsohn, Chopin.

IV. *Realism and Impressionism*

Literature and the Great Victorians—Zola and the Realists—French Impressionism—Nineteenth Century Music—Recorded Music of Strauss and Debussy.

V. *The Machine Age*

The Contemporary Scene in Newspapers and Periodicals—The Modern Theatre—Cubism—The Skyscraper—Dreiser, Lewis, Anderson—Recorded Music of Stravinsky and Gershwin.

Three classes were selected for the experiment. Two of these were History A classes and one was a class in first-term European History. These three classes reported to the music room instead of their regular history room, once each week, for the duration of the experiment. In preparation for the correlation lesson in the music room, class projects were carried on. I shall illustrate the method used from the "Church Era," since other units were similarly treated. The class divided itself into groups under leaders. One group worked on Gothic architecture, another on literature, another on the Reformation, and so on. The library coöperated by placing on reserve such books as Henry Adam's "Mont St. Michel to Chartres," "Aucassin and Nicolette," "The Little Flowers of St. Francis," "Tristan and Yseult," and Preserved Smith's "Martin Luther." The library also displayed prominently attractive colored posters of knights and tourneys and ladies gay, of flying buttresses and Gothic towers. Each group reported on a given day to the class, telling within a time limit of five minutes the naive and charming tale of the "Wolf of Gubbio," or sketching on the board the pointed arch, the trefoil and the rose window.

When the classes reported to the music room, they were familiar with the spirit of the cultural epoch as expressed in its architecture, its painting and sculpture, and its literature. Mr. Ehrlich, chairman of the music department, then integrated these with the music of the church, so that the unit became part of the mental background of the student. Music, art, architecture and literature were treated as the outward, physical manifestations of an inner working of the spirit which set this cultural epoch apart from all others.

If each cultural epoch in its transition from growth to maturity to decay is illumined by a soul-feeling peculiar to itself, which informs all its institutions, æsthetic, political and economic, just as the soul illumines the physiognomy and actions of an individual from youth to old age, then we can by a sympathetic attempt at apprehension of this soul-feeling understand more nearly through this unifying principle why one age paints madonnas and another simpering shepherdesses, or why serfdom was as natural to one period as the factory system to another.

To continue the illustration from the "Church Era" unit, Mr. Ehrlich began the lesson in the music room by placing on the board a quotation from Romain Rolland: "The political life of a nation is only a superficial part of its being; in order to learn its inner life, the source of its actions, it is necessary to penetrate to its very soul, by way of its philosophy, art, and its dreams." The method used mainly was the Socratic. The students commented on the above statement. Then the name of St. Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, was written on the board, to be followed by the recorded playing of an Ambrosian chant. The students identified Pope Gregory the Great, before listening to a Gregorian chant. The first attempt at harmony, the Organium Discant, followed. By now the students were ready to list adjectives descriptive of church music. We elicited "devo-

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tional," "austere," "formal," "dignified," and "spiritual."

The following hymn was on the board:

Ut queant Laxis, So that your servants

Resonare Fibris, May be able to sing

Mira Gestorum, With relaxed fibres

Famuli Tucrum, The wonder of your deeds

Salve Polluti, Remove the guilt

Labri Reatum, Of sullied lips

Sancte Johannes, Saint John.

The recorded hymn was played. The students accompanied the phonograph, and noted that each line began a tone higher than the preceding line. The name of Guido D'Arezzo was then introduced and the pupils saw how Guido, by adopting the first six syllables of the first six lines, gave us the names for the notes of the scale.

Mr. Ehrlich introduced the word "polyphonic" to the class. A classical student gave the translation, "many-voiced." Palestrina and Lassus records were then played, and as the students listened to these, they clearly perceived that these two men had brought the art of Catholic music to a high polyphonic development.

A few brief questions on the Reformation led up to Bach. The "Toccata and Fugue in D Minor" followed. The students listened for each new voice as it joined the "handicap race," that is, the fugue or flight. The students then discussed:

"It is only an accident that Bach was a Protestant. He belongs in the great tradition of Catholic music."

We found this first unit rather long and were forced to assign two lessons to it. It could easily, of course, be split into medieval and reformation units.

The day following the trip to the music room a short examination was given in the history room. This is the test on the Church era.

HISTORY 3

The Church Era

Informational Questions.

1. One of the chief characteristics of Gothic architecture was the ..... arch.
2. The religious phase of the Renaissance is known as the ....
3. The efforts of medieval architecture were directed chiefly toward the building of beautiful .....
4. The church played a .... (more—less) important part in Europe during the Middle Ages than today.
5. The first man who successfully challenged the authority of the Roman Catholic Church was .....
6. "By copying the manuscripts of classical authors, they preserved valuable books that would otherwise have been lost." This applies specifically to the..... .....
7. "It made use of vaulting domes and the round arch" is applied to the medieval architecture known as .....
8. A device used to make possible thin walls and many windows was the .....
9. One of the most important weapons of the Church was a "coercive measure which cut off the offender from Christian fellowship." This was known as .....
10. The Church entered into every phase of the individual's life by enforcing observation of the .....
11. The music of the medieval period was primarily secular or sacred, vocal or instrumental. (Underline.)
12. .... originated the Ambrosian chant, while Pope Gregory is credited with the ..... chant.
13. ..... was the greatest musical voice for the Roman Catholic Church.
14. ....., the great religious reformer, was also a
15. composer of .....
16. The art of combining different melodies so that they produce harmony, commonly called ...., became the vogue among composers of the age.
17. The greatest exponent of that type of musical composition was .....
18. Complete the following statement: "What Palestrina did for the Roman Catholic Church ....."
19. The sacrament performed by Roman Catholic Church..... ....."
19. The sacrament performed by the Roman Catholic Church at death is known as .....
20. The man who sang stories during the Middle Ages was known as a .....

Appreciation

I. "The copying of all chants was in the hands of monks, who not only preserved the music of the Middle Ages for us, but also invented our present system of notation."..... From your knowledge of our present staff and clef signs, substantiate the statement crediting the Church with the invention of musical notation.

II. The statement has been made that the Middle Ages contributed nothing of permanent value in the field of literature..... Prove or disprove this statement by referring to the merits or faults of one specific piece of medieval literature talked about this term.

This test was useful since it prevented the period in the music room from degenerating into an "off" period. Instead of being an interruption of the regular work of the classroom, it formed part of the term's work, to be assimilated and checked up as such. The students, however, had the benefit of being instructed by an expert in the subject, in those fields which were outside the province of the history teacher.

If ever the cultural features which we are today seeking to incorporate in our history teaching are to constitute more than lists of names, memorized but to be forgotten, some such

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correlation as here outlined between the various departments of the high school will have to be arranged. In European history, we list leading scientists and their achievements. surely the physics and chemistry men could help us here. Cézanne, Renoir, Matisse are to most history teachers alien names. We are not competent to do more than categorically list great musicians, novelists, and artists. Yet within the building, artificially separated by departmental and administrative walls, are trained people, competent to help us present a learning unit, as a living whole. Only then can the rattling skeleton of dry facts be clothed with flesh and imbued with spirit, and the study of history become a guide-post to the living of a full life. We submit our experiment in the correlation of history and music as at least an attempt in the right direction.

M. HERSCHKOWITZ.

New Utrecht High School.

Teachers' Conferences at Abraham Lincoln High School

Teachers' conferences with the principal are usually of the most ordinary nature where general routine and administration notices are read.

In order to avoid this monotonous and uninteresting situation, the conferences at the Abraham Lincoln High School have been made alive and educational. A committee was selected to draw up topics for discussion at three meetings this term. These topics are discussed by two chairmen at the Chairmen's Conferences and papers are read by two teachers and the topic discussed at the General Conferences. All teachers are notified in advance of the question under consideration.

The three topics selected for this term are the following:

1. How can we, as teachers in the classroom, develop the personality and power of our pupils through the formation of good habits, the stimulation of interests, the cultivation of tastes and the development of a sense of responsibility?
2. How can the administration and the teachers make full provision for individual differences among the students?
3. To what extent should athletics be encouraged in our school?

In this manner teachers are awakened to the large, broad problems of education encountered by the administration, and are made to feel that they are invited to offer ideas on the solution of the respective problems. Teachers realize that there is something besides ordinary classroom work in the broad features of education.

HENRY H. SHANHOLT,
MARGARET FAY,
In charge of Conference Programs.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Clinton Character Cards

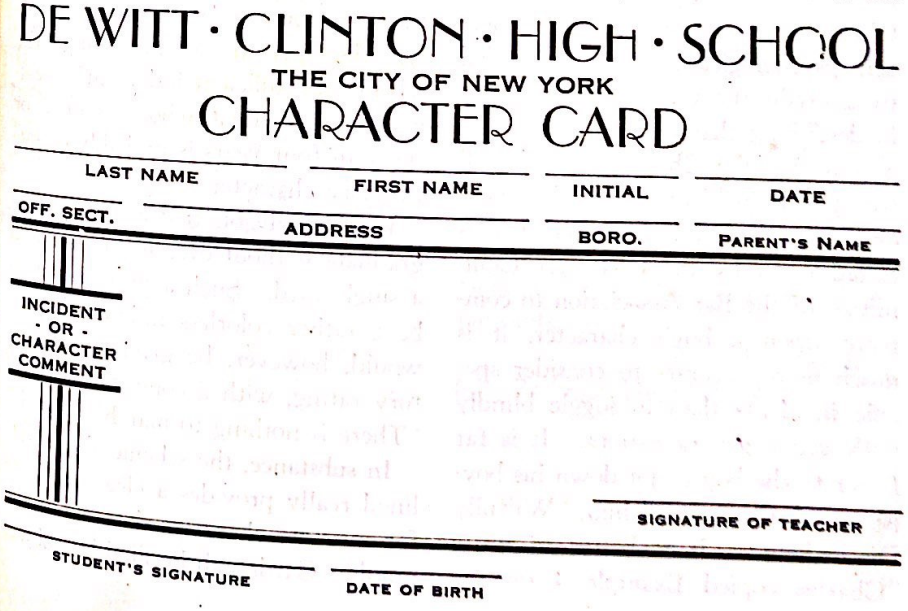
DeWitt Clinton High School has instituted this term a new system for the rating of character. It is the purpose of this article to describe that system in the hope that it may prove of use elsewhere.

Prior to the present term the so-called "Citizenship Rating Plan" was in use. When a teacher entered his final marks on the term sheets he appended an exponent—E for Excellent, S for Satisfactory, and U for Unsatisfactory. These were transcribed to the student's record card.

In the hope of improving upon this scheme, work was begun by a teacher committee known as the Character Development Committee. This committee was appointed by Mr. Clark, the principal, and was under the chairmanship of Mr. Jack Ballas. After a term of deliberation a plan was drawn up by Dr. Joseph Loretan and presented to the faculty. Although Dr. Loretan's scheme was not adopted, the lively discussion which followed brought forth the suggestion that individual cards be used with items to be checked. From this suggestion came the present concept of the character card described below.

A facsimile of the card is presented herewith. The top of the 3″ x 5″ card contains various items to insure identification of the student: Name, Address, Class, etc. The body of the card has space for description of an incident. There are no items to be checked. At the bottom there is a space for the teacher's and the student's signatures. The date of birth is added to make identification certain.

Whenever a teacher observes an incident which throws light upon a student's character or personality, he may fill out a character card. Only a brief description is necessary. The incident may be commendatory; it may be disciplinary; it may be of a general nature. The cards are kept by the chairman of the department until the end of the term. At that time they are returned to the teachers for reconsideration—cards may be destroyed or new ones added. Those that the teachers finally hand in are sent to the


DE WITT · CLINTON · HIGH · SCHOOL
THE CITY OF NEW YORK
CHARACTER CARD
LAST NAME
FIRST NAME
INITIAL
DATE
OFF. SECT.
ADDRESS
BORO.
PARENT'S NAME
INCIDENT - OR - CHARACTER COMMENT
SIGNATURE OF TEACHER
STUDENT'S SIGNATURE
DATE OF BIRTH

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general office where they are filed in alphabetical order. When a boy graduates the cards that pertain to him are permanently placed in a dead file and stamped with a number which is placed on his record card. This facilitates use for future reference purposes.

Those students accumulating a number of favorable cards are commended. Conferences are held with pupils receiving a number of disciplinary cards and an attempt is made to "cure" the condition before the student gets himself into a more serious predicament. It should be noted that not all students receive cards. In fact, it is anticipated that teachers will probably comment on only five per cent of their pupils.

There is intense activity in educational circles at the present time in the field of Character Education. A great number of problems still remain to be solved. The very nature of Character is one such problem. Recent psychological studies have tended to discredit the use of general terms in describing character. It is for that reason that the Character Cards call for specific incidents rather than general remarks. When the Principal is called upon by the Character Committee of the Bar Association to comment upon a boy's character, it is much more accurate to consider specific incidents than to juggle blindly with vague generalizations. It is far fairer to the boy to jot down his boyish prank than to call him, "Wilfully Disobedient." It is better to write "Charles copied Example 4 on the mid-term," than to say "Gross Dishonesty." It is more accurate to note, "John returned a purse containing $20," than to gush, "Very excellent character."

In order to inform the boy of what is said about him space is provided on the card for his signature. It is possible that in some cases of adverse comment a student may refuse to sign a card. In that event, the teacher is asked to hand in the card without such signature but with a notation as to the refusal.

At first thought it might seem that should a student once secure an unfavorable card it would tend to seriously prejudice his future standing, inasmuch as the card is permanently filed against him. First, it should be noted that the card is not filed by the teacher until the end of the term; both the pupil and teacher have a long cooling-off period. Secondly, the boy has his entire school career before him to secure commendatory cards. Thirdly, the person administering the scheme has sufficient judgment to realize that a student who errs once or twice in four years is probably of satisfactory character.

It is conceivable that a student may graduate without ever having secured a single card. Such a pupil is apt to be a rather colorless individual. He would, however, be given a satisfactory rating, with a comment such as, "There is nothing to mar his record."

In substance, the scheme above outlined really provides a clearing house for intimate character data about the pupils. Cards will be filed by subject teachers, section officers, disciplinarians, the psychologist, the nurse, directors of clubs, directors of the service league, etc. Not only will favorable and unfavorable comments be made but also those of a general nature having some bearing on the personality of the student—home conditions, psychological observations, and the like.

The scheme, it is hoped, will have all the advantages of a clearing house. It will make possible accurate recommendations to the Bar, Arista, and employers. It will be useful in the discipline of the school. Above all, it is believed that it will be more than a mere recording machine: it is designed to serve as an incentive to the good citizen and as a remedial device for the non-conformist.

As the above system is used it will probably evolve and change. Non-essentials will be eliminated and the substantial elements will remain. The writer realizes that schemes comparable to his may be in use elsewhere. To help hasten the process of evolution, he would be grateful if readers acquainted with similar systems would communicate with him.

EDWARD J. BERNATH.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

Small Shorthand Outlines

Teachers of shorthand who believe that the size of stenographic notes has a bearing on the speed of writing will find the use of quarter-inch graph paper an invaluable help in establishing the ability to write small outlines. Insistence on "one outline to a box" insures not only the writing of small outlines, but a regular, fluid movement, with more words on a line and a consequent increase of speed, not only through the writing of shorter strokes, but through reduction of the number of times the hand must be drawn from the end of one line to the beginning of the next.

Further, explicit instructions concerning the arrangement of homework results in uniformity in the appearance of the assignment which facilitates the location of any part, and the checking of the quantity.

Pupils have a tendency unconsciously to frustrate the purpose of this paper by beginning outlines in the middle of the box and running over into the next one, but a word of caution when the paper is first introduced will inhibit the establishment of this practice.

The Coöperative Store at the Julia Richman High School is obviating the difficulty pupils seem to have in procuring the quarter-inch size box by purchasing quantities of twenty-sheet packs and re-selling to the pupils at five cents.

ELSA RICHARDS.
Julia Richman High School.

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

A Communication That Was Sent to President-Elect Roosevelt *

We come before you as educators deeply disturbed over the situation that confronts us. The children of this land and the ideals of our country—objects of concern for which we have a special responsibility—stand in serious jeopardy. We cannot in conscience remain silent. But critical as the immediate situation is, the causes of our trouble lie much deeper than the present crisis; rather are they to be found in the basic trends of our economic development. The time, we believe, has now come for all to recognize the crucial need and to coöperate in behalf of our common welfare.

I. *The Threat to Our Children.*

The present situation imperils much that we, as a people, hold most dear.

Our children and youth, as never before, face irreparable injury. In the wealthiest city of the land, nearly one-fourth of the school children are, according to official figures, suffering from malnutrition. Sixty-two thousand are fed daily by a teachers' relief fund, and the numbers are increasing a thousand a week. Throughout our land innumerable homes are, by unemployment or the fear of unemployment, severely strained. The moral and mental effects are no less serious. Losses of life-time savings from bank failures and investments add uncertainty and discouragement. The widespread confusion and conflict of thought and moral outlook increase the disrupting strain. Amid such surroundings our young people are growing to maturity seriously shaken in morale. Many, as they look forward upon life, feel genuine fear of a social order so capricious and so remorseless in its action. City slums increasingly breed youthful criminals. For the first time in our history hordes of youth, thousands upon thousands, wander over the country, living as best they can, cut off from the stable supports of society. At the same time, graduates of schools and colleges in immense numbers search vainly for employment. Though highly trained they wait vacantly in dangerous idleness, feeling that society has no place for them and seemingly does not want them. Such in grim outline are the difficulties and dangers which beset the growing generation.

But there is more. The child cannot be considered apart either from parents or society. As educators, then, strictly so considered, we are led inevitably by regard for the child to regard for his surroundings. We must be concerned for the homes of our pupils as we face the widespread paralysis of industry and agriculture. With 12,000,000 people out of work, one-fourth of the total population is directly affected; and 20,000,000 persons, we are told, are in actual physical want, dependent on charity or community relief. Our farmers, the largest single economic group, are in a most serious condition. With years of poverty prices, with unjust tax burdens, with mortgage foreclosures ever mounting—a peasant class is threatened. Under such conditions, for the educator to remain silent is not a proper neutrality but assent to a wrong. Conscience and intelligence alike drive us to a new vision of duty. The profession of education must accept its share of responsibility in collective effort with the American people to remedy these conditions.

II. *The Threat to Our American Ideals.*

The threat of existing conditions extends beyond the child to our most cherished historic ideals. As a people, we have desired every child to have full opportunity to achieve the highest and best that in him lies. The conviction has been reluctantly forced upon us that American life now makes impossible for a great majority of the children the realization of this hope. The present conflict of ideals, and the confusion and uncertainty of moral and social outlook work too strongly against it. A child growing up under existing conditions is denied a fair chance of the needed moral and spiritual development. Conscious education, even by its utmost endeavor, cannot withstand the mis-educative effects of our ill-adjusted institutions. Nor is this all. Our free public education is all but openly attacked. Reckless budget-cutting is rampant. Many schools face increasing enrollments with decreased staffs. High school tuition fees are proposed, while the elementary school is asked to return to the three R's and to give up important new functions such as health service, which has demonstrably contributed to the decrease of the death rate. These proposals are discriminations against the poor. As teachers and school officials, we willingly accept our fair share of reduced income, but we cannot consent to economies made at the expense of the children. That would be an irreparable damage, not to be considered even as a last resort.

Yet other American ideals are endangered. In normal times there are marked inequalities of wealth and income. Even in 1927, at the height of "prosperity," the standard of living for over half the population was below recognized standards of comfort. In even the best times, many are denied the chance to work, while a much larger proportion never attain reasonable economic security. Such conditions, even apart from their present aggravation, clearly preclude equality of opportunity which has been the cornerstone of American idealism. We have always cherished the democratic ideal, but it becomes increasingly clear that our institutions do not work impartially for the benefit of all.

The American people demand that

* This material was received from Mr. Clyde R. Miller of Teachers College, Columbia University, and was released to newspapers February 20. It bore the signatures of about 200 educators from schools and colleges located in different parts of the country. The signers represented only themselves.

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these, the historic ideals of our democracy, be taught in the schools. And we have accepted the task. But the conditions increasingly deny success to our effort. Can we then conscientiously teach these ideals unless we work also for such conditions as make possible their attainment? Any other course is insincerity, a moral outrage upon those committed to our care.

III. *Must These Disintegrating Tendencies Continue?*

As we ask whether the present situation must continue, three answers present themselves:

First is the answer that says: We suffer simply a temporary depression; if we but wait, the "good old days" will return. This is a survival from the earlier faith in "manifest destiny." Social progress is assumed to be inevitable. The correlative policy is one of drift—laissez faire: Don't interfere in the natural working of events; something will eventually happen to pull us out—possibly a new invention or perchance a war. At any rate there is nothing we can do.

A second answer is more sophisticated: Democracy arose among us as the accidental product of a virgin continent, rich resources, and virile settlers. These conditions have now passed and with them our democratic vision. America, then, like all mature nations, must be stabilized with an elite at the top and the mass at the bottom. Such an answer is Fascism in fact, whatever it be called. Some proponents of this position proclaim their "realism" and plan accordingly. They know that competition in the basic industries is dead, and they would bury it for their own benefit. Their plan is not to bring plenty to all, but to continue profits for the few. These few, then, with their descendants and the capable ones whom they hire, will rule. The rest must submit and accept lower standards of living.

The third answer looks deeper. It recognizes that our machine industry has radically changed the conditions of American life, but holds our democratic purposes to be as valid as ever. It would use the rich resources of our country and the marvelous possibilities of modern industry to secure plenty for all, now attainable as never before. It holds further that our present trouble arises not from the operation of inexorable natural laws, but rather from certain man-made institutions—once good but now out-moded. The correlative policy would rather then be that of intelligently devising appropriate institutions, revising where needed, contriving new ones if necessary—everything ultimately managed democratically and consciously done for the good of all.

As educators sensitive to our public trust, we cannot be neutral in this conflict of answers. Where childhood and essential values are at stake, morality exacts of us appropriate action. Anything less is to empty our profession of resolute character and intelligent service, and render us unfit to serve the young. It is just as true that we already have bases for

choice. Our just faith in intelligence and the sincere acceptance of our American ideals carry us already toward as decision. The facts in the case, intelligently considered, must do the rest.

IV. *The Underlying Conflict.*

The key factor in the situation is an essential conflict at the heart of our social-economic life. Modern industry has made life corporate: the economic welfare of all now depends upon the balanced functioning of our interdependent industrial society—the present acute distress in the midst of potential abundance is proof of the fact. Were our new resources properly organized there would be work for all and food for all. We still cling, however, to ideas and methods brought over from the past which now prevent the needed coöperative efforts. Serious consequences other than economic also result from this conflict. Men are torn morally: the new conditions demand that they act together; old ideas and persisting standards, adapted to a simpler social order, require that they act separately. Thus do our chief evils, both economic and moral, flow from this bottom conflict in our social life. Except as we deal with this underlying cause, we cannot hope to remedy the evils.

Can we, as educators and citizens, hesitate then in our decision? With our cherished values at stake, with reason pointing the way, our regard both for our country and for those committed peculiarly to our care compels us to the third choice: we must seek the good of all. We must then modify the self-regulating way of our pioneer period and devise instead coöperative measures fitted to deal with modern industrial conditions. At many specific points we have already made this change, but not yet consciously as a comprehensive program of action. The time has now come to make the fact of *interdependence* the foundation base of American thought and action. To develop the needed social arrangements will of course take time, but the direction is clear. Consciously devised arrangements must supplant mere drift and selfish opportunism. Our social and economic life must be directed primarily for the good of all.

V. *Functions That Must Be Cared For.*

We submit that certain essential functions of the needed coördination are not provided either by industry or by government as now organized:

1. The continuous gathering and interpretation of data for the intelligent organization and direction of basic industrial processes, as one integrated whole.
2. The determination in some effectual shared fashion of the social objectives which we set up from time to time for guiding the common aspects of American life.
3. The coördination of various parts of the entire economic mechanism: production and consumption, agriculture and industry, industry and industry, region and region.

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4. An intelligent apportioning of national income between investment for further productive equipment and purchasing power for consumers' goods.
5. The equitable distribution of occupational opportunities and appropriate insurance to care for unavoidable maladjustments.
6. Effective provision for those services which are essential to all, such as health, education, and recreation.
7. Provision for the intelligent coördination of our national economy with that of other nations.

The urgency of the situation, the magnitude of the task, and the necessity for continuous and inclusive study and consistent action point unmistakably to the need of a national council fully representative of our total social life. The economic aspects of the problem are so essential that agriculture, labor, and industrial management must all be included. But it is also of the utmost importance that other social interests—medicine, engineering, education, law, and welfare—be represented in order that everything that is done may be directed with an intelligent understanding of the larger social issues involved.

Certain existing laws and agencies will doubtless have to be modified in order to permit the degree of coördination control necessary to make the new arrangements effective. We believe, however, that determined leadership dominated by democratic ideals will quickly call forth a response in support of this positive program from the great mass of the people, many of whom have lost faith in temporizing measures and are now ready for definite action. Such a fundamental approach to existing problems will do much to restore our national morale. It is unthinkable that we should continue to drift into social disintegration when the intelligent organization of actual and potential resources could introduce a new era of unprecedented social progress.

Considering the inevitable effect of a maladjusted society upon our youth, the serious threat to our historic ideals, and in view of the urgent press of the matter, we the undersigned respectfully petition you as the incoming President to take such steps in coöperation with the Congress as shall at the earliest feasible time result in the organization of a National Coördinating Council empowered to devise policies and to recommend appropriate institutional machinery to care for these vital public needs.

A Million and a Half Books! All Sold and More to Come

The common idea that the book-buying public is comparatively small has been quite disproven by the recent announcement of the National Home Library Foundation of Washington, D. C., that it had disposed of one million and a half of its Jacket Library books, twelve of which have been issued, and is now preparing to offer a dozen more titles, this time stimulating an interest in good drama by including the works of playwrights.

The books are of standard size, and as the Foundation is a non-profit making institution, are distributed at 15 cents apiece. Fabrikoid, in attractive colors and designs, durable and moistureproof, is used for the bindings.

Among distinguished members who have recently been added to its Advisory Board are George Pierce Baker, the teacher; Eugene O'Neill, playwright; Eva Le Gallienne, actress, and Ludwig Lewisohn, critic.

Others on the Advisory Board are such leaders of contemporary thought as James Truslow Adams, Mary Austin, Dorothy Canfield, John Lewey, Abbé Dimnet, Havelock Ellis, Robert Hunt Lyman, George Russell (AE), William Allen White, John Haynes Holmes, Henry Pratt Fairchild, Will Durant, Arthur Capper, Everett Dean Martin, Levering Tyson and Kathryn McHale.

The first 12 books were: Treasure Island, The New Testament, Green Mansions, Alice in Wonderland, Pere Goriot, Emerson's Essays, The Merchant of Venice, Adventures of Tom Sawyer, Tales of Sherlock Holmes, The Way of All Flesh, Under the Greenwood Tree, and Palgrave's Golden Treasury. A second edition has been issued with a foreword by Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Activities of the Division of Intellectual Coöperation of the Pan-American Union During the Year 1931-1932

As year by year the Pan-American Union becomes better known as a center for information concerning the twenty-one American republics, the most varied requests are received from governments, schools, commercial and industrial concerns, scientific and cultural societies, and individuals. The following requests are typical of the scope of the inquiries received in this Division during the past year: a comprehensive report on curricula and teaching methods used in the United States, in all branches of instruction; technical education in the United States; schools of soap-making and of ceramics; opportunities for art study in Mexico; commercial education in the United States and Latin America; medical schools in various Latin-American countries; education of the Indian in countries having a large aboriginal population; texts used in the various Latin American Countries for the study of history and civics; home life in Latin America; important Latin American criminologists; child welfare work in the United States; the practice of professions in Latin American countries; institutes in the United States for the study of social problems in industry; a list of inter-American treaties dealing with the interchange of professors and the practice of liberal professions; journalism in Latin America; Catholic poets of Latin America; publications on the art of printing and schools of printing. The services of the Division were requested by two Latin American governments in securing an expert in primary education and a psychologist, respectively. It coöperated with a committee of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish in planning a series of radio programs on Spain and Latin America to be broad-

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cast as soon as circumstances permit. It received and attended to as fully as possible requests for special publications from two libraries in Latin America and from several in the United States. It served, in coöperation with the Library, as an intermediary for the distribution of various special reports, which were sent to lists of names carefully selected for each case, and for the exchange of publications between associations in various countries.

A great number of inquiries were received from students and special investigators in the various countries, members of the Pan American Union, as to the facilities to be obtained in one or another nation, and the Division supplied the detailed information needed in each case. Special assistance was given to several persons going to Latin American countries for the purpose of carrying on some investigation, and a number of well prepared Latin American students were aided in applying for the scholarships of varying amounts offered by many universities in the United States. In this connection it is a pleasure to state that St. Petersburg Junior College, St. Petersburg, Florida, last year offered a tuition scholarship for each Latin American country. This brings the total number of institutions in the United States offering free tuition to forty-two, while about 35 more provide scholarship covering all or part of the living expenses; in addition, there are some given by certain educational and cultural organizations.

Among the visitors received during the year under review were university professors, teachers in elementary and high schools, students, scientists, writers, and representatives of various cultural organizations. Special plans were made for receiving certain large groups of educators holding meetings in Washington and two foreign student groups.

Aside from rendering various services in response to direct requests, the Division undertook certain activities intended to acquaint the peoples of the Americas with each other's cultural attainments. Lectures by two scholars were arranged for and correspondence was carried on concerning other lectures, while members of the staff of the Division spoke at two universities and two conferences. The Division arranged for showing in Washington a small collection of paintings by pupils in the open-air schools of Mexico and a set of lithographs by a Mexican artist, the latter having been shown also in New York and many other cities. Certain significant occasions were utilized for the dissemination of specially prepared informative material. The first of these was the bicentenary of the birth of George Washington, in connection with which data regarding Washington was translated into Spanish and Portuguese and distributed to schools in the Latin American countries through the ministries of education. A portrait of Washington, accompanied by a friendly letter from a public school in the capital of the United States, was also sent to a public school in each of the Latin American republics, eliciting a warm response from the school receiving the gift. The centenary of the birth of Juan Montalvo likewise received recognition. A lecture on the great writer by the Minister of Ecuador was arranged. The centennial was also brought to the attention of professors of Latin American literature throughout the United States.

The second Pan-American Day was more widely observed than the first, and several thousand schools used material provided by the Division. Those in the United States were supplied with suggestions for pageants, projects, study outlines, bibliographies and sources of printed matter, and a few sets of posters and other display material were loaned to schools having special Pan American Day exhibits. For distribution among Latin American schools, an attempt was made to secure illustrated publications from the governments and tourist agencies of the twenty-one republics. As a result several thousand pamphlets originating in four different countries were received and sent to the ministries of education for the use of schools. The Government of Mexico generously sent the seven paintings by art pupils, referred to above, which were later transmitted to schools bearing the name of Mexico in Bolivia, Peru, the Dominican Republic, Brazil, Costa Rica, and Uruguay, and to a school in Washington, D. C.

The publication of the Education Series in Spanish and Portuguese was continued as in previous years. These articles included various phases of educational progress in the United States, Colombia, Ecuador, and Uruguay. Data relative to intellectual coöperation in the Americas was prepared for two official reports to be submitted to the Seventh International Conference of American States. Both in response to the increasing demand from clubs and individual students in the United States for material on Latin America, and as a means of further stimulating that interest, the Division prepared very extensive annotated bibliographies on art, literature and education in Latin America, and shorter ones on Latin American home life and recreation, government, means of communication, great men, cultural life, the student movement, the social and educational condition of the Indian, Pan-Americanism, and similar topics of interest to students. Additions were made to the material available for lending, including several attractive posters and illustrated publications.

While the teaching of Spanish is very general in colleges and universities of the United States, the Portuguese language receives far less attention. During the past year the Division brought this matter to the attention of some of the larger universities, at the same time sending publications of interest to students of Portuguese and of Brazilian affairs. It was also enabled, through the generosity of a Portuguese gentleman, to arrange for lectures by a Portuguese scholar at four universities, continuing those inaugurated the previous year.

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The Division has coöperated very closely with many organizations and individuals that are working along the lines mentioned above. It is a source of gratification that the joint efforts put forth are bearing fruit, as shown not only by the increasing number of inquiries received in the Pan American Union, but by the greater interest and activity displayed by other organizations and the formation of new ones devoted to some phase of inter-American cultural relations.

—Release of the Pan American Union.

Per Capita Cost of Public Education Drops 22 Per Cent

How schools are coöperating in reducing costs of public education is disclosed in reports reaching the Office of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior.

Estimates based on data supplied for a special 1932-33 study indicate that the cost of education per child per day in school has been cut 14 cents since 1929-30. This means a decrease in per capita cost of 22 per cent in three years.

In 1930 the average cost per child per day of educating a child in the public elementary and high schools was 62.8 cents. In 1933 it is estimated the figure will be 48.7 cents. Federal Office of Education statisticians have reason to believe that when final data are in, the resultant average may be even less than 48.7 cents.

Of the 62.8 cents spent daily in 1930 on each child, 12.6 cents went into new buildings and equipment and other improvements. Only 50.2 cents went into current expense, that is, teachers' salaries, books, coal, repairs, etc.

Of the 48.7 cents being spent each day this year, 4 cents go into buildings and improvements; 44.7 cents into salaries, supplies and other current expense.

Comparison of data for other years shows that the decrease in 1933 is carrying per capita costs for public education to a level lower than any year since 1922. The average daily cost of educating a child in 1922 was 51.1; in 1920 it was 38.9 cents per child.

The comparative figures do not disclose the full extent of public education's reduction in costs. The figures do not take into consideration the increased proportion of high school pupils in the public school population. Since high school pupils cost about twice as much to educate as elementary school children, any change in the proportion has a profound effect on the expense of the school's undertaking.

In 1920, when the average per capita cost of public education was 38.9 cents, only 10 per cent of the school enrollments were high school pupils. In 1930 this proportion had risen to 17 per cent, and it is undoubtedly higher now—perhaps twice as high as it was in 1920.

This means that while the per capita cost for 1933 (48.7 cents) is 10 cents more than for 1920 (38.9) part of this increase is due to the greater percentage of high school pupils in the schools.

Cost in Cents Per Day in School Per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance
(For Public Elementary and Secondary Education)

Item	1920	1930	Estimate 1933
Current expense...	33.0	50.2	44.7
Capital outlay.....	5.9	12.6	4.0
Total	38.9	62.8	48.7

—Release of the U. S. Office of Education.

Study on Project in Science Education Made by The American Institute

Book on Children's Science Fair Announced

A detailed account of the Children's Science Fair has recently been published by The American Institute. The Fair, held each year by The American Institute at the American Museum of Natural History, for school children of New York City, has become a leading project in progressive science education.

"Each year," says Mr. L. W. Hutchins, Director of the Institute, "educators from all the surrounding colleges come to the Museum to study this undertaking. Representatives from different Museums over the country, such as the new Museum of Science and Industry in Chicago, the Buffalo Museum of Science and many others have spent several days with us going over each detail of procedure with a view to establishing similar Fairs in their cities.

"Requests from every major country in the world have come to us for information," Mr. Hutchins states. "This tremendous interest in science education has led us to present our project in a detailed treatise.

"The book, 'The Children's Science Fair — a Project in Science Education,' by Dr. Morris Meister, head of the Science Department of New York Teacher Training College and Chairman of the Plan Committee for the Fair, is written especially for science teachers and those museums and institutions which are interested in advancing the educational methods of their communities.

"Our publication," says Mr. Hutchins, "gives every step in the business of planning and actually handling a Science Fair, even to details of coöperating groups to be approached, reproductions of booklets of directions to go to the children, from letters which must go to all concerned, prize cards, identification cards and all the multiple arrangements which must be made. We feel that there is enough material here to make it possible for any other organization to prepare a similar Fair with only this book as a guide.

"In addition to the actual details, the book makes clear the underlying principles which must be kept in mind every step of the way.

"This year, in New York City, we had 478 exhibits representing the work of some 7,000 or more school children. The projects were displays of innumerable scientific principles and scientific observations. They were entirely the work of the child

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exhibitors. The recognition of this amazing interest of children in science leads us to believe that the Science Fairs are a leading factor in the advancement of educational methods."

The Seminar in Mexico

The Committee on Cultural Relations With Latin America (of which John Dewey is Honorary Chairman, Stuart Chase is Chairman and Walter Frank is Treasurer) announces the eighth annual session of the Seminar in Mexico for the summer of 1933. The first half, from July 8 to July 17, will be held in Cuernavaca; the second half, July 17 to July 28, will take place in Mexico City. In both parts of the session lectures, round tables and discussions will be included. Field trips will be made to points of interest. From July 28 to August 18 a supplemental program of trips is offered.

Membership in the Seminar is open to those interested in international relations and whose educational and professional qualifications enable them to make the best use of the privileges offered. The program is not meant to appeal to those who prefer merely a tourist's approach to Mexico.

For full program of the activities of the Seminar and costs of the trip under various plans, address the Committee at 112 East 19th Street, New York City.

REVIEWS

A Charter for the Social Studies

By Charles A. Beard. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The dynamic state of our institutions and even our ideas makes it especially necessary for teachers of the social sciences to be ever on the alert in order that their work may adequately serve the highest purpose of a changing society. Neither would we be true to our creed if we did not realize that future progress must necessarily be built on an understanding of the progressive steps already undertaken or proposed.

It was these two generalizations which led the American Historical Association to appoint a commission to begin the work of writing a summary of the best thought to date on the place of the social sciences in our educational system. A sub-committee, consisting of such eminent educators and leaders in this field as Beard, Counts, Ford, Krey, Merriam, Bobbitt, Bode, and Rugg, began the work with a consideration of objectives. For nearly two years these scholars examined the views on various phases of their problem of men from many walks of life, historians, educators in charge of administrative policies, classrooms teachers, as well as men in public or business life. These views were then submitted to the cleansing and healthful fires of research and discussion, and, as a result, there has emerged this tentative "charter for the social sciences," which, to quote Professor Krey, "attempts to weave into a coherent whole all the essential contributions." To Professor Beard was given the task of putting this charter into writing.

It is more than coincidence that during the last two years teachers of the social sciences in the New York City high schools have been searching their hearts more than ever before. They, too, have been examining objectives and putting them to the test of research and discussion. While it is doubtless true that vital differences still exist, that complete accord on many thories and practices can be found neither among teachers in our high schools nor among the esoteric, responsible for this charter, it is nevertheless significant that certain essential principles of civic instruction have emerged as a result of the work of both groups—principles which have been largely accepted by those, both inside and outside our city system, who have glimpsed the futility of the factual, recitation and provincial type of civic instruction in the preparation of our children for living in a world that has become "urbanized, mechanized, and interlocked in its social, economic, political, and cultural interests." How do the basic objectives developed in this "charter" compare with those upon which we, in the city schools, have been building in the last few years? If we assume that the objectives set up by these eminent scholars are valid, we are furnished with a yardstick by which we can determine whether we have been building on the proper foundations. Are we on the right road, or must we revise our notions of the goals of the social studies and strike out in a new direction? The publication of this preliminary study on objectives inevitably raises this question.

In approaching his problem, Professor Beard begins by establishing a certain point of departure—certain "declaration of fact" or "material assumption" which must be taken into reckoning in framing a program of social studies. To quote: "Speaking generally . . . we may say at the outset that instruction in social studies in the schools is conditioned by the spirit and letters of scholarship, by the realities and ideas of the society in which it is carried on, and by the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process at the various grade levels across which it is distributed. They seem to set a certain inevitable framework for determining the content and applications of civic instruction."

In discussing the "necessities of scholarship," the author stresses the ideal of "truth" as the goal toward which scholarship must always strive, and this, even though truth is a relative matter, is not easy to discover, and often seems to fail rather than prevail. The historian of this century has also made it clear that truth must be sought "under the wide dome of universality." From these premises, the author reaches the conclusion that nothing that mankind has done on the face of the earth is foreign to the social sciences; that the spirit and method must be scientific. The scholar and teacher must, however, be aware of the limitations of this

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method. They must guard against case-hardened dogmas. Thus, paradoxically, the scientific method, "which applies the Socratic elenchus to accepted maxims, shrinks from attempting to devise a new maxim for every vacuum created by research."

Another "necessity of scholarship" is that we penetrate as far as possible into the nature of social science itself. What is it? According to the writer, social science is manufactured out of a vast complex of ideas, observations and experiences, supplemented by personal inquiries and experience. The individuals or groups who frame programs and methods are not infallible, but are themselves part of the drift they seek to describe. Also, under the stress of modern specialization, they cause social science to break up into the various separate disciplines.

But programs or methods can only be potent "when they fit, with some mysterious exactness, into the actuality of things in the process of development"; when they slowly alter great intellectual patterns by steady accumulation; when they affect fateful decisions in time of a crisis; when a little push here and there may appear to give a new course to human affairs. To be effective, therefore, a program of social studies must consider the realities of the prosaic world. What are some of these realities? They can be summed up in a series of words or phrases, familiar to all students of the social studies—the changing nature of society; industrialism; a technological, dynamic, rational and scientific civilization; the system of government under which pupils live in the United States in its "functional" aspects. It is also significant that, while the author decries evasion or omission of controversial questions as a basis for a scheme of civic instruction, he nevertheless warns us to be on our guard against the hasty opinion that the public schools can solve the problems of democracy, or even prepare the way for easy solutions by a presentation and discussion of current issues. It is, therefore, best to say that one of the chief functions of the social studies is to furnish the pupil with a "discipline in thinking." In passing, it is worthy to note that teachers and supervisors, now engaged in the work of drawing up new syllabi in American History, will find much food for thought in Professor Beard's list of specific realities or ideas in American life today—realities or ideas, which must of necessity influence determination of objectives in this phase of our work. These realities the writer presents in tabular form.

Professor Beard avoids a detailed discussion of the more unfamiliar ground, dealing with his third conditioning factor, "the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process." There is nothing startling in his declaration that even the best-laid plans of civic instruction may be turned to dust in the hands of the untrained and timid teacher. Nor are we particularly aided in our everyday work by the elementary generalizations that we must grade our work according to the age and intelligence of our pupils; that we must proceed by realistic stages from the concrete to the abstract. We can only hope that later studies will amplify or make more definite these oft-repeated suggestions.

But what is of far greater significance to the teacher of the social sciences is the general conclusion regarding "the supreme purpose in civic instruction." This purpose is the creation of a *rich and many-sided personality.* The implications which follow from this are many. Thus, instruction must be *individualized;* it must develop *powers;* it must furnish *practical* knowledges; it must build *ideals, character;* it must develop *skills,* the instruments of power; it must create *useful habits;* it must develop *necessary and proper attitudes;* it must foster *will-power* and *courage;* it must build *constructive imagination and esthetic appreciation;* it must discover and train for *leadership.* These constitute the elements of the rich and many-sided personality.

To teachers in the New York City high schools these conclusions have a familiar ring. Examine the objectives listed in the "new" European History syllabus. Review the list of objectives set down by a committee of department heads for the teaching of the "gifted" child. Recall the many discussions about the reorganization of syllabus and method in order to develop in our children qualities, attitudes and skills. Remember also the recent study directed to the end that there be developed in our children an "inquisitive mind." These, and many other studies, experiments or discussions bear ample witness to the fact that the conclusions contained in this little volume have been substantially accepted by the rank and file of our teachers, who are now attempting to follow them with uncertain and faultering steps in their daily classroom work.

Whether or not we believe in the efficacy of the objectives underlying these programs or experiments, whether or not we feel that these objectives are attainable, we all know that they are there, and that we are attempting to progress along those channels in our efforts to make the social sciences function more vitally in the lives of our children and in our community. It is because this work of Professor Beard and his associates supports us in our groping for the light that we retain, as a result of its perusal, if nothing more, the comforting thought that, with whatever authority or prestige these men may speak, they support the present progressive trends in social science teaching in our high schools. A reading of this little volume will therefore be helpful in convincing some who are more skeptical that, in spite of possible mistakes in matters of detail, we have adopted aims or objectives to govern our work which, in broad outline, are valid, necessary and eminently worth-while.

The teacher who expects to find in this book definite or concrete suggestions on how these objectives may be attained *in the classroom* will be greatly disappointed. Perhaps it is unfair to level this criticism at a work

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which is meant to be nothing more than an introductory study. As such, it serves the purpose admirably. May we not hope that further studies of this commission, when published, will help more definitely to solve many of the problems which classroom teachers must face in attempting to organize social science syllabi and teaching procedure for the attainment of these objectives.

JACOB L. BERNSTEIN.

Franklin K. Lane High School.

Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Sciences

By Edgar Bruce Wesley. McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1932.

It is patently impossible to become more than merely familiar with all the works in even one branch of the social sciences. To teach any one of the social sciences effectively it is of paramount importance to have a rich background. This background is the result only of wide, critical, organized and purposeful reading. Professor Wesley offers a reading program for the teachers in the various branches of the social sciences. Since the number of books listed is necessarily limited, the choice among a host of valuable works is of vital importance. Therein lies the value of the author's work.

The social science bibliographies are divided into eight parts, half of which are devoted to the different periods of history (Ancient, Medieval, Modern European, American) and the other half of government, economics, sociology and geography. These eight parts are in turn subdivided into three sections. The first section contains a brief discussion of the bibliography of the entire field and also suggestions to teachers desirous of making their courses of instruction well rounded, interesting, and vital. The second section merely names the outstanding authorities in the field. The third section consists of the bibliography proper. It is of particular significance that the bibliography does not consist merely of the names of books, authors and publishers, but also of a valuable criticism of all the works listed.

A list of stupendous proportions would probably discourage even the most earnest of teachers. The author wisely limits the number of works in each field to make of it a practical program. Furthermore, the books chosen are not necessarily those reputed for their scholarly character, but those of greatest use to the teacher of the social sciences.

HERBERT GROSS.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

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IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11" in size. They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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TEACHERS who have contributed some three millions of dollars to a fund for the furnishing of food supplies to children whose parents are out of work and have had added to this splendid contribution a cut in their salaries and still remain loyally at work, firmly convinced that no child should be made unnecessarily to suffer from conditions, are deserving of a large place in history. I am quite sure that this reward will be given to the teachers of New York City. But I cannot say when it will be given. I suspect, however, that the time for relief will be extended beyond what has been normal and beyond what we have been led to expect.

However that may be, I desire to say some things about the course of study that teachers and other members of the staff of the schools of New York may be thinking about them. I am quite sure there will be no letting up to this depression until we have shortened the working week to not more than thirty hours. This will involve new agreements between capital and labor. These will have to be worked out, which will take some time. Such agreements should be followed by understandings, at least with Germany and England, that similar understandings should be arrived at in those countries. When this has been done it means an amount of leisure time on the hands of the ordinary rank and file of the population which prior to this time has had no counterpart. For there is a vast difference between a forty-four hour week which we had until quite recently and a thirty hour week. How are we to prepare our children to spend this extra time which they are going to have at least in 1940 and 1950? I believe that we must reorganize our courses of study, and that we must give attention to music, the fine arts, and modern literature, preparatory to the proper spending of this time.

WM. JOHN COOPER
United States Commissioner of Education
In his article "The Course of Study in 1950," in **School** *for February 16, 1933.*

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STUDENT REACTIONS TO ECONOMICS

I.

PROGRESSIVE secondary school teachers have frequently found student reactions to various teaching procedures adequate judgment as to the value of these procedures. This writer utilized a thirty minute pre-Christmas period to call for written observations on various phases about the subject of Economics.

This was the procedure. A half-sheet of regulation yellow foolscap paper was distributed to each of 101 pupils present in three Economics classes. They were advised that there was no necessity for signing their names to their papers, unless they believed that the presence of a name might make the opinion more valuable. Nobody was required to hand in his paper. However, handing in a paper would be appreciated by the teacher in helping him understand the students' viewpoints. It is interesting here to note that 70 papers were turned in, and 15 of these contained the names of the students; these latter ranging considerably in ability and capacity, as judged by past Economics marks.

The students were asked to divide their papers in such a manner as to provide room for answering these four problems in sequence.

1. Evaluate the present course in Economics.
2. What suggestions have you for improving the course?
3. Evaluate the teaching methods and procedures.
4. What suggestions have you for improving the teaching?

The objection may be offered that high school seniors are unable to answer, without advance thought, questions 1 and 2, and totally unfitted for answering the other problems. This objection will be conceded as correct, if we expect discussions couched in pedagogical terminology. However, if we expect natural, youthful, student-like reactions, no student who has spent three and one-half months in a course with a particular instructor is unable or unfitted for expressing distinct likes and dislikes.

II.

Apparently the students did experience a certain amount of difficulty in answering. Only two-thirds chose to hand in papers. Nor did all papers contain answers to all four problems. Six students failed to answer the first problem; nine omitted problem No. 2, while two others stated they could make no suggestions. As might be anticipated, 20 of the papers contained no allusion to the third problem, while 38 in all were unable to reply to the fourth problem, although six students here naively said they felt no suggestions were either necessary or possible.

The answers to each of the problems are very illuminating on student reactions to a number of matters that

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have long vexed teachers and supervisors of Economics. Unfortunately, objective scoring and tabulation of the answers are not possible because of the very nature of the questionnaire. Still, the students themselves repeatedly commented upon the length and content of the course, interest in and value of Economics, examinations, text-books and the sequence of topics in their discussions for questions 1 and 2. The frequency of comments upon particular aspects of Economics as part of the curriculum may reasonably be regarded as a representative sample of general student opinion on many moot questions.

In the evaluation of the course, we encounter a wide range of judgment. Two students frankly found Economics "very boring and uninteresting," five others called it "rather interesting," while thirteen enthusiastically labelled it "very interesting and valuable." Among this latter group we find such encomiums as these, in reference to the subject matter of Economics: "An education in itself"; "Absolutely essential"; "Like course better than any in a long time." The two commentators on the other end of the scale were less extreme in their expressions, and contented themselves merely by denying that Economics would be as valuable in later life as other subjects in the curriculum. Moderates in the group alleged repeatedly that Economics "helps one think for himself."

Some of the papers here offer significant expressions of evaluation. Three observers venture that they liked the course better than students of previous terms had caused them to anticipate. Surely much missionary work can be done in this respect. All teachers of Economics have regularly found that many students come to the first session of the class pre-advised of gloomy days. Many are frequently in dread of the future. For successful, happy teaching this attitude must be disarmed and dispelled. Until this is done, classroom activity is encumbered. How much more fortunate might we all be, if we could generate a tradition of happiness, of practicality, of vital importance about Economics to students as they pass through the terms before eligibility to the course! Students eager to learn, confident of the future, assured of the acquisition of practical knowledge make better students in Economics.

III.

All papers were most prolific in answering the second question, "What suggestions have you for improving the course?" However, the distribution of the answers prohibits any quantitative scoring of great significance. It can be said generally that a variety of suggestions appear of both destructive and constructive nature. Destructive criticism referred to such items as the bulging content of the course, the proportionate emphasis on various topics within the course, the sequence of the calendar of topics, the departmental requirement for projects, and the Regents' examination.

Teachers of Economics will be interested most in what students suggest regarding the content of the semester's work. Complaint was made against the inclusion in the course of such non-practical material as the opening definitions and laws of consumption. Ten students singled out "subjects like hedging" for their displeasure. Instead they pleaded for more emphasis upon such topics as stocks and bonds, banking and credit, business cycles and their causes, and wars. The entire trend of student opinion here is for more practical, more useful, and more intimate topics in Economics.

Only three students definitely stated a belief that one term of Economics was adequate. Twelve others urged a two-term course for all students for the sake of thoroughness in teaching and learning. One youngster would rank Economics with English, but will be content if Economics is given for at least two years. One other student, of great capability but lacking in diligence, amazingly urged that the subject be carried by all students in each term of high school. Will wonders never cease? However, by the silence of the majority of the group, it has been assumed that the one-semester course is generally suitable.

Miscellaneous suggestions for improving the present course included: (1) Eliminate over-reliance on the text-book; (2) Get a better text-book; (3) Abolish Regents' tests (four votes); (4) Avoid too much detail; (5) Eliminate projects other than book reports; (6) Secure greater student participation; (7) Begin the course with more practical things than economic laws.

More constructive criticism containing suggestions valued by this teacher touched upon the study of current events, the use of the newspaper, the technique of daily review.

Considerable approval was expressed for the maintenance of the present newspaper work in teaching Economics at Abraham Lincoln High School. The practice has long been to devote one day a week, the "unprepared" day, to the study of the daily newspaper for its economic aspects. Five students suggested replacing this procedure by spending one-quarter of each period on the public events of the preceding day. Unqualified approval was indicated for the very existence of a newspaper study habit.

One valuable suggestion pertained to the daily review. "Why not start each day's work by asking for questions on the previous day's work?", one pupil queries. This procedure will definitely be adopted. It will permit of many economies in reviewing previous work. It will serve as an effective weapon for impressing students with the continuity of the teacher's calendar for the term. Thus students will acquire a valuable study habit, that of beginning all new work with a review of the pertinent work immediately preceding it. Furthermore, the obvious nature of a relationship between two units of work will ease the transitions, and will frequently serve as adequate motivation.

IV.

How did the teacher fare at the pens of these commentators? In answering the third problem, references were made to the teacher's classroom

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attitude, to his use of the board, the examinations and marks, and to the use of illustrative material.

The students appreciated what they termed variously (in eleven papers) the informal, friendly, "unteacherish" attitude of the instructor. Six other students specifically referred to a happy combination of "work and humor." Here at least are six converts who will deny that Economics is a dismal science.

Particular points in the teaching process were chosen for representative comment. A daily topical outline on the board found favor with the students. One student clearly declared himself when he said, "All lessons should be like the one on credit instruments." Like similar lessons elsewhere, this lesson was taught with the aid of objective materials (a check, a promissory note, and a domestic draft), with the use of prepared forms on the board, and by the direct exchange of the instruments among pretended merchants in the classroom. Five other comments lauded the use of local illustrations familiar and dear to the majority of the student body.

Unfavorable criticism struck at the hard examinations and low marks given by the teacher. Too much repetition of some topics, excessive speed with other topics, and the teacher's adamant stand on disputable subjects were censured. Strangely enough, three persons complained that the teacher made the work childishly simple, as if the students could not be credited with adult intelligence.

It is interesting here to observe that two students admitted the homework given was not excessive. This is a considerable admission for students to make. Certainly the increasing trend of progressive education is in the direction of more "doing" in the classroom, with less reliance on homework. On the other hand, many educators still maintain that homework carefully planned and assigned yields many fine fruits, what with our short school days and many holidays.

V.

As already indicated, the last question, "What suggestions have you for improving the teaching?" presented the greatest difficulty to the students. Accordingly, only 50% of the papers contained answers to the question, and these answers are far less significant than those to the preceding questions.

A miscellany of suggestions occurs. Somehow, a number of these are on the side of tightening classroom administration. For example: (1) Give written homework more often; (2) Give marks for daily recitations; (3) Review and mark homework more frequently.

Two valuable suggestions touch upon the important topic of visual aids in education. One urged a greater "economic atmosphere" in the room. This was to be secured by the use of more charts and posters than the seven already displayed. The second student, in his suggestion, wondered whether stereoptican slides or motion pictures were not available for studying various topics in the term's work. And why didn't we make more trips to the

Custom House when studying the tariff, to the Federal Reserve Bank, and so on?

Certainly here is an accidental hint for the further extension of visual education work. Visual materials have already been adopted bodily in such subjects as Economic Geography. Much remains to be done in applying them to Economics. It is more than likely they will prove efficacious in particular topics.

WILLIAM FRIEDMAN,
Abraham Lincoln High School.

THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION BENDS THE TWIG

No thinking man can escape, at some time or other, a feeling of disgust at the conditions of politics—especially municipal politics—in this country. No thinking man can compare our present degradation with the glowing hopes of the eighteenth century democrats and not feel a sinking of the heart. The failure of democracy is becoming a widespread conviction. Some eminent minds see no hope for us except in some form of benevolent and intelligent tyranny like Fascism.

But this despair is as illogical as was the earlier Utopian optimism. Admitting the present shortcomings of democracy, we need not admit them as hopeless or beyond repair. Quite conceivably, they are not inherent in the system, but merely the temporary results of temporary conditions—conditions, perhaps, of our own careless making. In any case, we have not given democracy a fair trial. It must be admitted that democracy, to function well, requires a peculiarly alert, intelligent, and high-minded citizenship. Now, such citizenship does not make itself. There is nothing in man that makes him naturally and instinctively a good citizen, any more than there is anything in him that gives him an instinctive mastery of the multiplication table. If we want our people to know multiplication, we teach it to them. We don't throw up our hands in despair because they do not achieve a mastery of it without instruction. Similarly, if we want the sort of citizenship required for effective democracy, we must teach, train, educate. Any virtue, whether it be good citizenship, or truth telling, or tolerance, comes only as the prize of long and patient discipline. Only after we have employed such discipline in worthwhile and sensibly planned ways, for, let us say, half a century, only then shall we have a right to despair of democracy if conditions do not improve.

In this matter we do not act sensibly. We would not think much of an industrial engineer who, after inventing a marvelously intricate machine, set in control of it an untrained workman with no understanding of that machine. Yet, that is just what

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we do. Our boys and girls automatically assume the suffrage at twenty-one. What specific political training have they had? Our courses in civics and history, as everybody knows, are laughably unsuited to this end. In fact, we can go further. We can argue that our schools, so far from training for good citizenship, are directly contributory to bad. Certain conditions in our schools develop these very traits of character that work out into corruption and inefficiency in our political life. We complain of "bossism"? Of the low-minded selfishness of our leaders? Of the inertia, the callousness, and the credulity of our voters? We have no right to complain. These are the plants we breed in school. We teachers help to make the "boss," and we help to make the "heeler," just as certainly as if we followed a syllabus and a daily time schedule in their production.

I am not now referring to the fact that our whole system of instruction viciously prevents the pupil from learning the one lesson that every future citizen of a democracy should learn above all else—how to bear responsibility. To change this condition would require a revolutionary upheaval of our whole pedagogy. What I refer to now is one certain narrow procedure which is at present a tremendous power for evil, and which may easily be changed into an equally important power for good. I mean the present conduct of the General Organization, especially as it exists in the high school.

Consider how the General Organization is run. Consider first the nominations. Usually the word goes out that by a certain day candidates must be nominated either in a caucus of room delegates or by petition. In either case no one is much interested, except a few little cliques whose concern is not the school's welfare, but the quite selfish desire to hold office. Except for these few self-seekers, the great mass of students is grandly and colossally indifferent. Now this indifference and passivity are precisely the conditions which make possible the graft and incompetence of adult politics.

Look now at the campaigning. This is generally done by way of blotters, posters, bills, and perhaps a rally or two in the auditorium. The issues mentioned (if it is thought worth while to mention any) are felt to be purely imaginary, or at least trifling and unimportant. The G. O. is known to have so little power, its effect on the school and on the students is so little felt, that the issues raised must seem fictitious, unreal, manufactured for the occasion. Perhaps the parties and candidates may make all sorts of extravagant commitments which the G. O.'s utter powerlessness must make extravagant and impossible to fulfill. Again how like adult politics! Or the electioneering may consist of lauding the athletic and social powers of the candidates, with only the remotest reference to their fitness for government. Why, indeed, mention fitness to govern, when the G. O. doesn't govern?

When election day arrives, the pupil voters feel—how? Empty issues, impossible promises, meaningless parties, candidates nominated by little cliques and lauded for virtues irrelevant to a political representative—in this structure of sham and make-believe, how can anybody in his right mind be expected to take a serious interest? Where is there room here for reasonable choice, for the development of political judgment? How can the pupils vote other than for the silliest of reasons — because they like Leona's smile, or are won by Alexander's back-slapping affability, or admired Rupert's plunging at football! And this is the political conditioning, this is the heroic political discipline we give to those who, five years hence, will be deciding the destinies of our country!

The elections over, the G. O. and the successful candidates are heard of no more for the rest of the term. Doubtless, the officials hold periodic meetings which no one else hears of, pass routine resolutions about routine trifles which no one else cares or knows about, and, in effect, so far as the school is concerned, cease to exist till the same old merry-go-round begins again next term. Here we have an absolutely accurate replica of government in the American city; indifference and ignorance on the part of the voter; self-seeking and irresponsibility on the part of the politician; vulgarly low standards of public morality on the part of both. Now if an ingenious man deliberately set himself to create a school condition that would degrade the next generation into a readiness for political skullduggery, could he think of a better device than such management of the G. O.?

Rather than permit the General Organization to exert such an influence, we had better abolish it. We may not be able to remove those influences in life which make for bad politics; but surely we should not permit such influences in our schools. However, to abolish the G. O. would be a pity. If properly instituted and properly conducted, it is a very effective instrument in training for good citizenship—better than all the courses in civics ever planned by the most sanguine educator. That it is capable of being such an instrument—of arousing keen and lifelong interest in public questions, of training in habits of sound political judgment, of forming lofty standards of public morality—is attested by the experience of a small number of high schools in this country. The only thing needed is a principal possessing a little enthusiasm, some prudence, some power of leadership, and a willingness to wait and be patient. Now, what conditions make a healthy milieu for the G. O.?

First of all, the G. O. must be cleared of that atmosphere of sham, of unreality, of unimportance. If we expect our students to feel keenly about politics, they must first feel that politics matters tremendously. To expect them to feel keenly over a puppet organization with the shallowest pretences to any sort of power, or usefulness, or even existence, is preposterous. The first condition must be to give the G. O. real power, genuine control of the school. It must be al-

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lowed to take over every aspect of school life except the strictly pedagogical. It should take charge of discipline; police the corridors and study-halls; run the lunch room (subject to the financial check of the faculty auditor and the hygienic check of the faculty dietician); regulate the yards and the athletic field; organize athletic, social, and club schedules; manage absence and lateness (subject to legal provisions); try offenses and administer punishment; control traffic — legislate directly, in short, for the health, comfort, efficiency, and safety of the pupils. The G. O. need not be, as it generally is today, a silly shadow, a foolish sham, a laughable make-believe. A school of a thousand pupils is a real community, and presents problems that may be as pressing and as monumentally important to the pupils as foreign debts and the depression are to the White House. The handling of such problems, if entrusted to the pupils, will develop the habit of political responsibility, of keen concern, of active interest and participation. It should counter-act admirably the indifference and apathy that usually mark the American voter.

Our first step, then, is to create a genuine political situation by giving the G. O. control of the school. We must also combat the tendency for the voters to become political-minded only at elections or during infrequent crises. School politics must not be permitted to sink out of sight immediately after election. Instead, the school must remain in a continuous low fever of political activity the year round. The G. O. must hold its meetings in open forum. All students are invited to attend, to join the discussion, to present petitions, to initiate legislation. No law should be enacted without public hearings. The officials should feel free to ascertain public opinion by frequent referendums. No week, in short, should go by, or should be permitted to go by, without some reminder to the voter that he, and he only, is the ultimate source of authority and responsibility, and that the business of government goes on, not only at stated periods, but throughout the year.

Nor is this all. Not only must the pupils be continuously engaged in school government; they must be actively engaged. They must not learn to be satisfied with the passive rôle of the mere watcher. They must not learn to be satisfied with leaving the naming of the candidates, the framing of platforms, the deciding of policies, in the hands of a few. They must be compelled to do as much of this political thinking as possible. Our goal should be, not the purely representative form of democracy made necessary by enormous numbers, but a sort of modified New England town meeting, where the voter coöperates actively with his representatives in the work of government. The G. O. must be so constituted that all movements begin from below. Every home room must have local autonomy; it must be the pupil's permanent little fatherland to which he has a chance to develop a strong loyalty in the four years of his high school course. Every home room must have its own organization; so must every grade. Candidates to office in the G. O. as well as in the grade organizations must be presented, not by a little clique of "higher-ups", but by the voters themselves in the home rooms. Issues and platforms must be first presented and debated in the same local democracies. In every case, the source of every movement and the first unit of discussion is the home room, where the individual voter is most conscious of his individuality and his influence. Every precaution must be taken to prevent the complete delegation of power, responsibility and activity to the representatives. Now, a pupil graduating from four years of such schooling will, we may be sure, cause some restless nights to the leader of the local political club he will inevitably join.

The plan to ensure continuous training in clean, healthy politics through the G. O. is open to objection on several grounds. First, it may be considered imprudent to trust immature youngsters with such power over the school community. The reassuring answer to this doubt lies in the few schools where such a system obtains. The experience of these schools teaches us that nothing sobers into prudence and caution like real responsibility. We learn that such real pupil-government works safely with pupils of only average age and average mentality. Besides, let us remember that we can effectively prevent hasty and unconsidered legislation. To this end, as well as in the interests of real democracy, we can set such an interval between the first proposal of a measure and its final enactment into law as to compel ample time for discussion at open hearings. If a proposal is imprudent, the faculty has the right and the duty to make itself heard in emphatic warning. The faculty may even be vested with the veto in certain extreme cases. But experience has frequently proved that pupils who really govern themselves do not disregard the opinion of the faculty; they are, in fact, more conservative than the faculty. We assume, of course, that this reform in the General Organization will be made step by step. To make it an overnight revolution is to ensure disaster.

A much graver objection lies in the fact that no political or social machinery is any good in itself. It is only as good as the people using it. "Reformers" frequently forget this. They are so much concerned with repairing organizations that they overlook what is much more important—the spirit, the soul, the character of the people which will express itself through these organizations. No institutional changes for preventing "bossism" will avail so long as the attitude of the voters remains unchanged. One generation splits a great party in order to establish direct primaries—why? As a check on "bossism." The next generation abolishes direct primaries — why? As a check on "bossism." True, our regenerated G. O. will ensure political activity—but of what sort? Will this activity be honest, upright, intelligent; or will it be of the kind we know too well? In fact, can the pupil

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be expected to avoid bringing to school with him the ignoble ideas that lie all about him in the community, that are shared probably by his own family, that are in the air he breathes?

We cannot, therefore, and should not, rest content with merely reorganizing the G. O. We must accompany this reorganization with a systematic, school-wide and permanent campaign of education in practical civics. In fact, we must regard the G. O. simply as a practical extension of our classroom work in civics, or (to reverse the arrangement) we must regard our civics syllabus as a preparation for membership in the G. O.

Such a plan will, of course, require changes in our civics and history courses. It will involve a shift from theory to practice; from the abstract to the concrete; from government on paper to government as it actually works; from enumerations of forms, duties and departments to discussions of problems, short comings, causes and remedies; from a coldly intellectual memorizing of facts to heatedly emotional debates that form ideals, repudiations of what is, yearnings for what may be. The emphasis will be not intellectual, but emotional and moral. The object will be, not to know, but to feel so strongly as to be compelled to do. The mode of approach will be not the reading and reciting of generalizations, but the debating of the personal problems involving the relation between the individual and his government.

We must go further; we must dovetail intimately our class work with the running of the G. O. Every political function the pupils perform must be preceded by classroom training and discussion. Must G. O. candidates be names? A period, or several, should be devoted in English or civics to such questions: "What qualities should a suitable candidate possess? Whom do we know that meets these requirements?" Is the campaign under way? Some time in English or civics should be given to comparing candidates, reporting interviews with them, and so forth. Must a platform be formed, or some point of policy decided? What more suitable material for oral and written work in English and civics? And so on, through the complete round of the year.

Does this sound Utopian? It need not. Nothing in this proposal is forbiddingly difficult. The one thing needed is that the principal possess a little enthusiasm, a little foresight, and much patience. Such a General Organization in every junior and senior high school in the country would regenerate American politics in twenty years. The Jesuits were right: "Give us the child (was it for the first six years?) of his life and you may have him for the rest." We have the child —every child—for a large part of his waking hours over a period of eight to twelve years during the most plastic period of his life. To what can we not mould his mind—his character? But we must have a vision—a purpose —a plan. We must set up our clear goal, and strike out for it with boldness and intelligence, instead of drifting aimlessly down the muddy current of our political life.

H. C. Bricker.

THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN RECONSTRUCTING SOCIETY

I.

The young men and women in our high schools look out on a confused world. Their candid eyes are not to be blinded by evasions. In the troubled faces of their parents they see only confusion. If their homes are ravaged by unemployment and want, they suffer inwardly with the acute sensitiveness of the young.

The economic blows which we have felt until now only to a limited degree, will deal cruelly with them when, in a few years' time, they emerge from the protecting environment of the school. Has their education equipped them with the knowledge and the will to deal intelligently with the economic issues which, to a greater and greater extent, will demand solution by the electorate of the United States?

Education has—once more—reached a turning point. The accepted aims and achievements of our high schools have evidently been inadequate to meet the needs of the present situation. While social and economic conditions change rapidly, education lags behind, content to preserve its traditions and its established ways. The accepted aims — individual development, social adjustment, inculcation of habits—have their important values, but fall short of the demands of modern economic society. It is the purpose of this paper to indicate the new direction that we must take.

II.

The salient economic problem of the contemporary world is the mastery of the machine. We are all familiar with the terms of this problem. The current fad of Technocracy has dramatized the truism that the major cause of the depression is the phenomenal growth of technology. Machines have displaced men, and this process will undoubtedly be intensified in the future. At least five million, possibly ten million, workers in the United States have been displaced from industry—permanently, unless society is able to gain control over the machine.

How can this control be effected? By rejecting the nineteenth-century belief in "laissez-faire," which involved individual enterprise and competitive business. This doctrine was undoubtedly of value in a century of expanding markets at home and abroad. Even then the uncontrolled economic system broke down periodically. But on the whole it worked well enough. It stimulated invention and enterprise; it opened up the resources of our country; it made possible the improved conditions of our life. In general, education subscribed to this doctrine by making its aim the development of efficient and industrious individuals.

Several schemes of economic planning have been worked out in recent years by leaders of American industry and thought. For periods of depres-

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sion, unemployment insurance, such as exists in England, has been suggested; the leading advocate of such a plan is Gerard Swope, of General Electric. President Roosevelt's economic counselor, Professor Tugwell of Columbia, favors, at a time like this, an elastic program of government construction of bridges and highways and the eradication of the slums. A more comprehensive form of economic control is that of long-range economic planning, suggested by George Soule, economist. This involves a central Federal board, established under a Constitutional Amendment, with more or less complete control over the major industries of the nation. Its functions will be similar to, but more complete than, those of the Interstate Commerce Commission. This economic board will be empowered to assign quotas of production to each industry, including agriculture, fix wage scales and working hours, limit profits, and control credit. By this means it is hoped the economic life of the nation will be stabilized. It is impossible to do more here than suggest the barest outline of these schemes, but a detailed treatment is available in an excellent booklet, "Long Range Planning" by George Soule, and in a comprehensive volume, "America Faces the Future," by Charles A. Beard.

However we may feel individually about the advisability of economic control, this much is certain: that tentative measures are already being taken by the government in this direction. The electorate of the country will be required to decide, in the near future, whether such measures are to be extended. The schools must provide the citizens of the country with a basis for intelligent interpretation of events and intelligent decisions. The problem invites our best intellectual efforts. It challenges us as individuals; it demands the most serious consideration from us as teachers.

III.

Pragmatically, the value of the idea of economic control can be tested by observing its results in practice. The one nation in the world in which economic control is absolute is Soviet Russia. We should therefore study, with scientific skepticism and yet with sympathetic understanding, the practical working of the Soviet system. Especially valuable to us will be a knowledge of the technique by which the government has integrated the school and society and has made use of educational methods to further its aims. The achievements of Soviet education will give us a renewed sense of the power that lies within our grasp to influence the destiny of our nation.

Observers in Russia, among them recently Will Durant, agree that living conditions for the mass of people are far from ideal. Some have concluded from this that the planned economic system in Russia is a failure. Certain considerations, however, would indicate that this judgment is unfounded. In the first place, when Russia emerged about ten years ago from years of devastating civil wars and foreign invasions, her economic life was paralyzed; the effects of this

dreadful period are still felt. Secondly, the Five Year Plan concentrated on developing the basic industries—fuel, metals, machinery, railroads—and neglected the production of consumable foods, clothing and household articles. Thirdly, in order to finance the Plan, Russia exported every available unit of her produce—wheat, lumber, and oil—and deprived her own people of all but the barest necessities.

There are, moreover, certain indices of future improvement for Russia. First, there has been a remarkable increase in industrial output, from a basic index-figure of 100 in 1922 to approximately 250 in 1932. Furthermore, the second Five Year Plan is devoted to the production of consumer's goods. As technological gains are made, the working day—it is now seven hours—will be decreased progressively, thus providing the population with leisure sufficient for a cultured life. Incidentally, such a reduction in the number of hours of labor in the United States is being suggested under the plans discussed above. Moreover, there is no unemployment in Russia: several American workers, with whom I traveled to Russia the past summer were immediately snatched up by the employment bureaus. With the ecenomic system under the complete control of the State, life will be secure.

To us as teachers, the important aspect of the Russian experiment is the social rôle of education. Education plays a vital part in the Soviet scheme—more so than with us. Education for them means more than schooling or technical training, though these are important. It uses every possible instrument for affecting people's attitudes—the cinema, the newspapers, the schools, the workers' clubs, museums, and so on. Education means the "engineering of human consent," the creation of intelligent acceptance and an active participation in the socialist state. John Dewey, on his visit to Russia, was particularly impressed with the way in which the masses were given a knowledge of the economic basis of their life and an impetus to coöperate in its manifold activities. I remember waiting half an hour in a laundry in Leningrad while the entire staff was engaged in listening to a lecture on the political situation in Germany. Such meetings take place frequently in all the places of work.

Important media of education are the arts and the theatre. The aesthetic theory under which the Soviet operates is that art is propaganda, or, more broadly, that all forms of art reflect economic and social conditions. Western Europe and the United States are loath to accept this formula. In the Hermitage Museum at Leningrad —one of the world's greatest art museums—I was interested to hear the guide interpret paintings in terms of contemporary social conditions. For example, pointing to Leonardo da Vinci's "Madonna and Child," she explained that this was an instance of ecclesiastical propaganda. A representation of succulent fish and viands, she said, had hung in a nobleman's dining room to stimulate his appetite. A painting by Tiepolo, "The Feast of

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Cleopatra," we were told, depicted the might and splendor of the feudal aristocracy, and the guide remarked that this luxury was founded on the exploitation and impoverishment of the lower classes. Literally hordes of people, workers, peasants, soldiers, children, visited the museum while we were there.

The theatre, especially the cinema, is used as an educational instrument. Anyone who has seen a Russian film in New York at one of the intimate theatres knows the theme of almost every Soviet picture, namely, the transition from the old ways to the new. For example, "The Road to Life" depicts the successful efforts of educators to rehabilitate the groups of wandering children who were made homeless by the civil wars. "China Express" depicts the revolt of Chinese coolies against their oppressors. It is interesting to contrast with this the American picture "Shanghai Express," which borrowed its setting and structure from the Soviet film, but which deals with the conventional romantic theme. The cinema is a powerful means of influencing mass opinion.

The schools have received a tremendous impetus under the Soviet regime. The entire nation is at school. Illiteracy has been reduced from 60% in 1913 to about 15% in 1932. Elementary education is free and universal, and to a large extent serves the same functions as our own, that is, in teaching the fundamental skills of literacy. But its chief aim is to bring into being the "new man" of the future, a supporter of socialist policies, an active, militant, healthy, socially conscious, politically minded individual. The curriculum at the ten to twelve years level emphasizes the social sciences, history, economics, and sociology. Classroom studies are supplemented by regular visits to factories and collective farms. The pupils at the fourteen to eighteen age level do not passively observe; they actually participate in the life of the community or village; they work as "shock brigades" to sow and harvest crops, to bring books to the peasantry, to carry to the "dark areas" enlightened ideas on sanitation, and so forth.

At the present time the school work centers about the problems of collectivization and the Five Year Plan. A typical project for a term in a rural school is a study of the Village. This project includes the following topics: a study of crops and agricultural methods, old and new; the relation between the farm and the city; social life and education in the village; plans for coöperating in the improvement of conditions. One of the text-books used at the 10-12 age, "The New Russia's Primer," by M. Ilin, has been translated and gives a vivid idea of the type of social studies with which Russian children are grappling. An excellent presentation of the actual operation of the Russian educational system is contained in a book published this year, "New Minds: New Men?" by Thomas Woody.

IV.

Can our schools, too, play a part in creating a social intelligence in our population? Yes, decidedly. Once we have convinced ourselves of the desirability of economic control, we can expand the curriculum in the social sciences to include a study of its principles. High school pupils are quite capable of understanding these ideas; in fact, are quite alive to the economic problems of the present day. Already, in the history course, they study the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century; the new curriculum would shift the emphasis from the past to the present and the future. In the Civics course, a greater stress would be placed on how the socially-minded citizen can use his power to effect progressive reform in government.

The Economics course would be enlarged to one year at least, and the central project, from which the specific content of the course would radiate, would be the plans for economic control. Furthermore, we must make our own pupils realize that the most vital problems of their generation will be economic and political in nature; they must not graduate without an awakened consciousness of these problems and an adequate basis of knowledge for their solution.

V.

In this critical period of our national life, we, the body of teachers, must assume our rightful position as the intellectual leaders of society. We must not drift in the currents of indecision in which our political leaders and business prophets have been floundering. We are aware of their failure to anticipate and prevent the disastrous events of the past two years. In our hands, more than in those of any other professional group, lies the duty of building a next generation of intelligent men and women, who will order the national life more wisely than their fathers. The opportunity is ours, the road is open to us if we choose to follow it. Will we accept the challenge?

ALFRED VOGEL.
Boys High School.

THE INAUGURATION OF A DEPARTMENT OF INDIVIDUAL CORRECTIVE ACTIVITIES IN THE TEXTILE HIGH SCHOOL

LONG before our new building was completed, the staff of the Department of Health Education had discussed in conference and informally all the problems and phases of the Individual Corrective work. We felt that there was a need for it. We felt that only through proper physical and personal professional preparation could this work be inaugurated under the proper auspices. With this in mind, we felt that every case was to receive individual, careful and detailed attention. And so we began the details of preparation for service which would be restricted, individual, corrective,

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medical, hygienic and social in its effect.

Mr. H. Herman, a teacher in this department, specially trained in this type of work, was appointed chairman of a committee to inaugurate the details. Through his efforts, a syllabus was prepared and several other teachers in the department were trained in the routine for this special activity. Many of the details of certain pupil cases and further case summaries are taken from groups reporting in the first, third, fourth and fifth periods. He has been of great assistance in the preparation for this special corrective service, and especially in the preparation of this report.

The details of our activities from February, 1932, to June, 1932, will be noted briefly, under certain definite headings. As a matter of fact, we discovered that our preliminary layout worked out very nicely in practice.

Equipment

We have a very nice room, well-equipped with standard apparatus for our Individual Corrective work. Many pieces of apparatus and equipment were improved by the boys to meet their individual needs. These added materials bid fair to make our service more individual in nature. In the Fall, we propose to add, through school funds, a complete photographic outfit to record the findings of each boy in pictorial form, so as to show to the boy his progress or lack of progress.

Examinations

At the very beginning of the term, during one of the regular class periods when the boys were in their places on the floor, the teacher of Individual Corrective work, with the assistance of the teacher on the floor, assigned boys to the Corrective Room in the following manner: The boys were asked to strip to the waist, and the teachers would hastily examine, one at a time, each boy in the line for such patent defects as could be determined by a hasty examination. Position of the shoulders, head and neck, displacement of the scapulae, alignment of the superior posterior spines of the pelvis, and curvatures of the spine which could be noticed without detailed methods, were the items examined. When the class was examined, those boys who thought they had flat feet were asked to present their names to the teacher. The boys examined in the class were noted and their defects marked. Other boys who were excused from Health Education because of medical requests, were placed on the Individual Corrective list, as were those who were excused because of lameness or other evident physical defects. These boys were asked to report to the Corrective Room during their regular Physical Training period.

At the first regular meeting of the class, pupils were given a thorough physical examination. The boys were asked to undress when their turn came for this examination. The examination was performed behind a screen, eliminating the embarrassment which always results when boys have to strip in a crowd. The pupil feels that something is being done to better his condition. With the boy stripped, a skin pencil marking of the posterior spinous processes to determine lateral curvature is made. Shoulders, head and neck, scapulae, chest and abdomen are carefully noted, position of the pelvis, length of the legs, condition of the arches, and any other visual defects are noted. The previous history is taken and the conditions at home are recorded. Under hygiene, cleanliness of body, nails and hair, conditions of the teeth and eyes are recorded and a diagnosis of the condition is then given from the summary of the recording. If necessary, a pedographic print is taken. In all cases photographic pictures are taken with the skin pencil markings in the anterior posterior aspect and in the lateral aspect. These prints are compared with prints taken as progress in the case is noted.

Additional examinations and follow-up were made.

The silhouettograph charts, although not accurate because of the varying position of the subject while taking this graph, and because of the possible unsteadiness of the person drawing, gives to the pupil evidence of his condition and visually shows him that he has a goal to strive for.

The pedograph, for recording conditions of the feet, have shown in a period of two months, in most cases, differences of recording enough to make the pupil understand that corrective gymnastics have had a large part in correcting his condition.

Then we have the forms upon which every pupil is recorded during the process of a thorough visual, pedographic and silhouettographic examination. On these cards are recorded the defects found in the interior posterior views, the lateral position, feet, nutrition, and other physical defects observed. On the reverse side, we write the exercises prescribed for the final diagnosis of the examination. Space is left for the daily hygiene inspection of the pupil, his previous history, home conditions, follow-up and a summary of the entire chart on the drawings of manikins in various poses, for a quick reading of the subject's condition.

Letters, each one personal and pertaining to the individual case, are sent to the pupil's family physician, asking permission or rather his approval for the pupil to take this type of work. In only two cases have we received refusals from doctors, one being a developing cardiac situation, and the other a case in which the boy was able to be operated upon and required absolute rest to prepare him for the operation.

Personal letters are sent to the parents of the pupils, telling them of the work the boy is receiving and asking their coöperation with the homework prescribed.

Syllabus

A syllabus was prepared, to standardize treatment and to provide a basis for the instructional phases of

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the work. This was necessary, too, so that the pupils might be supplied with printed or mimeographed "Home Exercises."

From the diagnosis, specific exercises are given to correct conditions, with the following acknowledged formula:

1. Exercises to develop flexibility.
2. Exercises to develop correction.
3. Exercises to maintain correction.

It is with this in mind that the syllabus, containing a prescription of exercises, was compiled for each possible condition. We realize that each case is different, and that each case presents its own situation and is further modified by age, sex, temperament and home conditions. These exercises have to be further modified by the available equipment, space and numbers in the class. As a result, the prescription of exercises cannot be used as written, but individual movements must be taken out of the syllabus and presented to the subject to meet his specific demand. More exercises are used as the subject progresses in his correction and this continues until the pupil is discharged as corrected or, in the opinion of the instructor, can be improved no further through this department.

Routine

Assuming that all the pupils assigned to the Individual Corrective Room have been examined, we begin the regular class procedure of exercises. In this department, as the boy is examined he is immediately given his prescription of exercises. In order to take care of the remaining boys who have not as yet been examined, one or possibly two of these exercises are explained to the pupil and he immediately sets out to do them as instructed by the teacher. When all the pupils assigned to this class are examined and one or two immediate simple and general exercises are explained, the teacher begins with the first boy and instructs him in the proper procedure of the next two or three exercises, and so on down the class list until all the boys have been given eight to ten exercises. If during the examination a boy is found to have a very slight condition that would not warrant the individual corrective work, he is sent back to his regular class work. In this way, only the severe cases are given attention. Exercises of a harder nature, and exercises to continue improvement of the specific defect are added only as the teacher may see fit and not because two months or ten weeks have elapsed. This work is highly individualized and restricted and must be prescribed for carefully, keeping in mind the strength of the patient, number of times exercise is to be done, pace of exercise, when to rest, the mental attitude of the pupil, and his reaction to the treatment. Examination of the pupil is held daily in a casual way, and is recorded on the card whenever, in the opinion of the instructor, the patient appears to be ready for such examination and further exercises. In the above method of examination and exercise prescriptions, a cycle system is used. New pupils are admitted, when room is made for him by the promotion of a pupil to regular class work, when, as our department understands, the defect can be corrected no further.

As discharges from the Individual Corrective Room are made, the pupil is sent back to his regular health education work. Other pupils are assigned to take these places by the teacher on the floor. Many of the boys have voluntarily come to the instructor and asked for the privilege of becoming a member of the restricted individual corrective group. The class is easily kept filled and the attendance of twenty is easily maintained. We have found from actual experience that with the individual attention required by each pupil in a class of this kind it is impossible to assist personally every boy during one period or even during the course of three days. Because this personal attention and advice is most important in this work of individual correction, we propose to limit these groups to registers of fifteen.

The department is able to care for lateral curvatures of the spine, "S" curves, structural and specific, lateral tilting of the head and rotation of the head and neck; anterior posterior curves, such as lordosis, kyphosis, a combination of both, and flat back; chest conditions, such as flaring ribs, Harrison's Groove, depressed chest, chicken chest, and flat chest. Flabby, prominent, and weak abdominal walls, strengthening of the ligaments and muscles holding the internal viscera, to prevent and aid in ptosis; correction of the pelvic angle, bowed knees, knocked knees; arch corrections, longitudinal and anterior, bunions, callouses, corns and the various toe defects; correction of many physical defects, visible to the eye, caused by operations, or paralysis, or congenital; correction of mental defects, such as embarrassment, shyness, timidity, in which very fine results have been noted in the correction of nervous stability, through rhythms, proper hygiene, and social contacts with the class and with the teacher. There is a better understanding of the personal hygiene of the pupil's personal ailment, because the teacher can explain the condition of the case to the individual, making the explanation personal, and applying correction to that condition.

In most cases, when a pupil is promoted or discharged we have a protest from him. Every boy is anxious to remain and continue. Outside calls for admission are many. To summarize our project, the results noted and obtained in four months have been remarkable and the attached summary will bear out the value of this service, not only for the mechanical correction and the hygienic and social effect on the pupils, but also for the "carry through" value it has on the pupil in his later life.

Summary of Cases

1. Cardiacs.
   a. Mild functional cases assigned to special duties, involving rest, clerical assistance, infirmary duty, locker room supervision and other duties of this passive type.

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b. Severe and organic cases are assigned to cots where they spend the entire period resting, asleep or dozing.

2. Personal Hygiene.
   a. Many dental cases completed.
   b. Many cases of new glasses and revision of refractions.
   c. Cleanliness the rule—finger nails, clothes, general neatness, and confident poise.

3. Foot Conditions.

Boy No.	Admitted	Condition	Results
1.	3/17	Second degree right longitudinal arch—dropped anterior arch.	Loss of callousses and arch raised.
2.	3/14	Weak arches, both feet, pain in both feet.	Wears corrected shoes. Pain relieved.
3.	3/2	Second degree long arch.	First degree. No pain.
4.	3/24	Long and anterior arch dropped, caused by weight of boy.	Boy has lost 12 lbs.; pain relieved.
5.	3/2	Long arch.	Absentee.
6.	3/4	Anterior arch, second degree.	Discharged corrected, 5/12.
7.	4/2	R long flat foot.	Discharged corrected, 4/9.
8.	3/6	Long arches, both feet.	Discharged corrected, 4/9.

Summary: 5 improved
3 discharged as corrected
1 no result

4. Anterior Posterior Deviations.
Kyphosis, No. treated, 17; No. improved, 14; partly improved, 2; not improved, 1.
Lordosis, No. treated, 19; No. improved, 13; partly improved, 1; not improved, 7.

5. Summary of Forward Shoulders. No. treated, 29; No. improved, 19; No. partly improved, 1; No. not improved, 7; No. discharged, 2.

6. Obesity.
No. treated, 21. Total weight, 3/15, 2,651. Total weight, 5/10, 2,512. Total weight reduction, 149.
Two boys were discharged, one losing 10 lbs. and the other 8 lbs. Average loss per patient, 8 lbs.

7. Malnutrition.
1. 3/10, 121; 5/10, 124.
2. 4/32, 115; 5/10, 117. Is on a mild diet and tonic.
3. 3/1, 119; 5/10, 123.
4. 3/2, 126, 5/10, 130.
5. 3/2, 96; 5/10, 99.
6. 3/2, 85; 5/10, 87. Bashful and timidity improved.
7. 3/2, 112; 5/10, 115.
8. 3/2, 100; 5/10, 105.
9. 3/2, 95; 5/10, 100. Discharged to class.
10. 3/7, 97; 5/10, 104. Discharged to class.

Total weight, 1,065. Total weight, 5/10, 1,114; gain of 49 lbs. Average gain per patient, 4 lbs.

8. Summary of Lateral Deviations of Spine.
Total number under treatment, 20.
Types of Curves: Dorsal, lumbar, cervical, curves which combine more than one of these regions; many of these curves in a slightly structural state.
Results: Only in one case is the improvement very noticeable. In one other case there is an improvement. The time required to observe improvements in lateral curvatures is considerably greater than in any other type of defect. Therefore the report is nothing more than progress.
NOTE: The reason for the slow progress in this type of defect is the fact that the cartilages between the spinal bodies have undergone a change in shape, and in many cases the bodies of the bone have begun to develop in a wedge shape. It takes a very long time to change bone and cartilage structure, if it can be done at all. Correction can come about by the development of the opposing muscles and the relaxation of the muscles on the side of the curve. If the curve is structural in the second and third degree, plaster casts and operation will be the only cure, although better flexibility and muscle control can be effected with exercise.

9. Summary of Special Cases.
Case A.
Condition noted 4/6. Paralysis of lower forearm and hand. No control of fingers in flexion and extension. Slight limp in walking; stutters. Has had condition 17 years, is 22 years old. Advised by medical profession that because of age nothing could be done for him.
Condition noted 5/17. Complete although not fully controlled flexion and extension of fingers; speech more controlled and an air of confidence and happiness because of possibility of complete use of his arm for future work in life.
Case B.
Condition noted 3/2. Paralyzed for 15 years in entire right side and extremities. Hand is thin, cold, and has absolutely no control of entire organ.
Condition noted 5/16. By applying exercise and massage, the following change has been effected: More weight in arm, arm warmer, now has ability to carry books, because of flexors of fingers. Arm can be raised to right angles. Development of muscles

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of thorax. A remarkable improvement in three months.

Case C.

Condition noted 4/7. Compound fracture of first and second finger and splintering of metatarsal bones. Fingers healed in a flexed position due to calcification of broken joint and shortening of torn ligaments. Continued pain experienced, especially upon touching finger.

Condition noted 5/17. With passive movements at first, and later massage, and now both passive and active exercises applied, pupil is able to flex first finger and has been relieved of all pain in both fingers. His personal physician recommends that he continue with this form of treatment.

Case D.

Condition noted 4/7. Paralysis of left arm fourteen years ago.

Condition noted 5/5. Improved mobility and strength is evident. Boy is now able to carry greater weights with paralyzed arm.

Case E.

Condition noted 4/7. Walked with shuffling and scraping of feet. No motion in lower part of spine; stuttering; very little motion in ankle joints and stiffness in hip joint. A left total curvature in spine.

Condition noted 5/17. Is able to walk without shuffling feet, gait more natural, better kinaesthetic sense, improved nervous control, shyness disappearing. Decided improvement in flexibility and mobility of spine, hip and ankles. Improvement in general hygiene.

Case F.

Condition noted 3/10. Poor nutrition, nervousness, and especially mental shyness, bashfulness and timidity.

Condition noted 5/10. Social atmosphere and environment and encouragement have made him lose practically all these symptoms of nervous shyness. He mingles with boys in class and answers all questions with assuredness and without hesitating. An excellent example of the value of this work in the promotion of confidence.

SOME GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

1. This type of work is necessary and important.
2. Many pupils can be aided, either partially or completely.
3. Hope, confidence and poise can be restored to many pupils whose entire outlook on life is clouded and dimmed because of a partial or complete physical disability.
4. Many nervous and "mental case" pupils can be helped.
5. Provision must be made for small groups (10 to 15 pupils in a class).
6. Special teachers should be provided for this work.
   a. Those specially licensed for Individual Corrective work; men and women with clinical experience.
   b. Regular teachers of Health Education to be assigned to clinics for training and experience. In my opinion, this phase constitutes the greatest and most important problem. Pupils are here in plenty, a room and some apparatus can be provided; specially trained teachers are not here. The results are so interesting and gratifying that it would be of great advantage to arrange for this teacher training

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THE CURRENT CONCEPTION OF INTEREST

I.

THERE are at least ten elements implied under the term interest. Some of these are constitutive, some are only partly connected. One finds spontaneity and enthusiasm, or the propelling force, the internal motor that makes us do things, the magnetic traits of an object that attract us despite ourselves. Interest is that which makes us pay attention and make an effort. The interesting object permits a facile reaction, one without strain or pain. Still others make interest equivalent to instinct and attention. The current conception of interest is muddled.

And sometimes no definition is attempted; the matter is considered settled. Some treat it implicitly. As one prominent educator said: "Any teacher knows when his pupils are interested."

The term is important. It has implications for the pathologist and the educator. Dr. Max McConn of Lehigh University suggested for adoption, at a conference on student interests, "the idea of the absolute primacy of the doctrine of interest as the fundamental principle which should everywhere be decisive in the process of building a curriculum in the liberal arts and sciences." If such be the aim, do we not need a far more explicit treatment of interest? A theory of interest must likewise be applicable to the vast realm of ennui and of the morosities, to the Hamlets who find this world "weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable."

II.

INTEREST AND ACTIVITY

Dewey has suggestively considered interest in intimate connection with action. He has adopted a broadly behavioristic view. Perhaps one of the causes of the confusion in this subject is the "feeling" view taken by some educational psychologists. It is true that one aspect of interest is a "feeling" tone. But to consider it from this angle is to complicate matters. The sentimental aspect of interest is a later accretion.

Practically, any of the actions above the reflex stage can either be interested ones or uninterested ones. Interest is thus not a trait of any specific act. Rather is it a superstition. Can

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we not look upon it as a particular way of performing any higher act whatsoever? It thus approaches the rôle of a regulatory act without the clearly marked specificity of stimulus and behavior that the reactions of effort and fatigue present. Then approximating it to these sentimental reactions we can say that interest is not a primary action in response to the external world, but a reaction to that primary action. In other words, its source, its origin, its stimulus is within the act and personality of the actor.

Modifying it by these characteristics, we can accept Dewey's definition, that an interested activity is a unified one, as a working basis. It gives us a valuable hint as to the important rôle of the personality in interested activities.

III.

Interest and Attention

Pillsbury (in "Education as the Psychologist Sees It") says: ". . . it [interest] designates a condition of attention . . . In this sense we may say that interest is a popular name for attention from instinct, education, and mental attitude . . . Interest also designates the feeling of pleasure that results from attending . . . It is truer to say that interest is a word which is applied popularly to different phases of attention, the form that is induced by instinct, education, or attitude and is accompanied by a feeling of pleasure. This is usually designated by the psychologist as the non-voluntary form of attention since it is the type that requires no voluntary effort and at the same time is accepted."

From this I gather that attention is connected with interest, that it is the same as interest in the popular mind. But I can achieve no clear picture of their functional relationship.

Thorndike (in "Elements of Psychology") says, "the original tendencies to attend may be called instinctive interests."

Are attention and interest always concomitant? Are they the same phenomenon? Educational psychologists have not differentiated clearly between them.

Invariably in the discussion of interest and attention involuntary attention is brought up. The interesting things are those which evoke "spontaneous attention." This unfortunate term, for whose popularization Ribot was responsible, is, once the term attention is more rigidly used, of little significance.

The clearest use of the term attention, one which attacks the problem from the "behavioristic" view, is that which considers it a suspension, because of a given aim, of the activation of a tendency. Janet gives the example of a fox who is waiting immobile at the burrow of a concealed rabbit. The fox does not jump because its jaws would close upon the air. The fox suspends the act of bounding upon the rabbit. In active inhibition of the act effort plays its rôle. Secondary acts intervene. The field of awareness is limited. This is the primitive act of "le guet." In a higher form we have the act of research. In the above example the animal would not be content to await the appearance of the rabbit, but would try to hasten its appearance by other secondary acts such as prowling, clawing the ground, and sniffing. I call them secondary acts because they take their origin in the primary act itself, that of pouncing on the prey. The act of attention is of a similar nature. It is an arrest of the complete activation, having as its most prominent secondary action the limitation of the field of consciousness. The tests of attention illustrate the similarity. The subject is asked to strike out a letter. He does not pounce upon any letter whatsoever, but waits for his particular victim to appear. To sum up, attention is the suspension of an activity in its lower phases in order to permit its successful consummation at a later propitious time.

The so-called involuntary attention is no attention at all. It is the simple consummation of a heavily charged activity. The child eating a sweet is not necessarily an example of involuntary attention.

As illustrated in the quotation from Pillsbury, interest is commonly supposed to be the accompaniment or the cause of involuntary attention. We should prefer calling it, in the examples usually given, the accompaniment of the primary activation of a heavily charged tendency. There is no suspension in these acts.

Does interest always accompany attention, as is implicit in most discussions on this subject? This is hardly tenable. We have only to reflect on those necessary but annoying acts whose complete activation we suspend so as to consummate them more effectively at a later date, and which are performed without interest.

On the other hand the converse must be true: attention is the constant and inevitable accompaniment of interest. Perhaps an exception should be made of those impulsions which, under rare conditions, find the object of their activity so situated that their consummation is immediately effected. Are these acts, however, interested ones?

IV.

Interest, Effort, Fatigue and Triumph

The popular mind has long contrasted effort with interest. In his discussion ("Interest and Effort in Education"), Dewey conclusively showed that there was no antagonism. Rather, by numerous examples he indicates how effort goes hand in hand with true interest.

However we find this: "The theory of effort means a virtual division of attention and the corresponding disintegration of character, intellectually and morally" ("Interest and Effort in Education"). I cannot see how Dewey could have reconciled this with his other view. It flows from a misconception of the most important phenomenon of effort.

There is a suggestion, in nearly all books on educational psychology, of disdain for effort. When we have attained a perfect methodology, they seem to say, then the necessity for effort will have disappeared. Some of

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the difficulty arises from the assumption of different viewpoints. Even Dewey, who assumed throughout a behavioristic view, considers effort as a *feeling* of strain, as something inherently disagreeable.

Primitively, effort can and should be defined in terms of behavior. (Behavior in the sense of the total reaction of the organism.) I am here presenting the theory of effort expounded by Pierre Janet in his epochal work, "De l'Angoisse à l'Extase," especially the second volume, "Les Sentiments Fondamentaux."

Effort is an acceleration of an action. Not that we are talking loudly, but that we are talking more loudly: not that we are running fast, but that we are running still faster—it is this addition to the primary action which constitutes the secondary reaction of effort. Considering effort in this light permits us to view it as a phenomenon subject to various stages of evolution. When this reaction attains the level of conscious behavior, we have the sentiment of effort. To the primitive reaction of effort we add a more clearly defined goal, desires, hopes, and the like. Effort is not in itself painful, as is implied in most treatments of the subject. Its alternation with fatigue gives it sometimes a painful aspect. But have we not the joyful effort of the successful artist?

What gives rise to the reaction of effort? Primitively, it is the inadequacy of the primary action which arose as a reaction to a stimulus from the external world. The dog which does not reach the meat held out to it by its master jumps still higher and invents the reaction of effort.

To sum up: the external world, through a stimulus, evokes a primary action. In some situations this action is not enough to reach a satisfying culmination. To render the act more efficient, a secondary reaction to the primary action is employed; the reaction of effort.

From this brief sketch of effort two facts relevant to interest emerge. An act performed with effort can also be a unified act; an act performed with effort invokes that effort temporarily. These facts necessitate the revision of the definition proposed before, so as to make it specific for interest alone. An interested activity becomes one that is a unified permanent one which we have accepted as part of our personality.

The causal relation between interest and effort is postponed to a later section. But it can be said here that interest is a later stage, coming after the stage of effort. It appears when certain conditions are met. Chief among these is the reaction of triumph.

In contrast with the positive correlation of effort and interest we have the negative one of fatigue and interest. The appearance of a fatigue is the signal, unless replaced by the reaction of effort, for a diminution of interest. The interesting object loses its significance. It is to be noted that such variations of interest are difficult to understand as a mere reflection of a change of the external world. This has an important bearing on the causal function of interest.

The sub-normal has few interested activities; the patients who are victims of the "sentiment du vide" are bored. No special means are required to attract the intelligent pupils to the abstract work of the classroom. The range of interested activities of a Goethe is wide. The contrast between his activities and the narrow field of consciousness of a hysteric is significant.

The "Interesting" Aspects of Some Objects

An object is interesting in so far as we perform certain acts in connection with it. To some objects we may not react at all. To others we react but without interest, and to still others, probably fewer, we react with interest. As indicated in the last paragraph, the able have a large number of such reactions; the deficient, a small number.

The activation of congenital tendencies is usually accompanied by interest; it is to be noted that they are heavily charged, and that they are for the most part triumphant ones.

The objects of such instinctive, interested activity are pre-determined. We therefore objectify our interest, and consider its bearers, through a poetic fallacy, as possessing a magnetic power which accounts for the efforts we are ready to make in their behalf. By extension we have the doctrine (at least implied) of inherent interest. The man in the street says "this thing interests me" when he ought to say "I interest myself in this thing." The pedagogue commits the same error when he says "let us make this work interesting for the pupil."

The interesting quality of objects is a human creation. Because of instinctive activities common to all, similar objects appear of interest to everyone. This is objectified on to the thing itself and we say, "it is interesting." The analytical effect of disease in the morosities and the experimental studies of fatigue show the fluctuation of interest with the variations in the disease and demonstrate conclusively that interest is no direct reflection of the external object. It is rather an objectification of a behavior, an investing of an object with the qualities of a subjective behavior.

Interest, Interests, Causality and Pedagogical Applications

There has been an attempt to involve instincts in the educational process so as to make school material interesting. For example, we endeavor to teach through an appeal to the play tendency. Children are always interested in playing (at least the normal ones). Why can we not "tap" this interest for the purposes of education? Averill says ("Elements of Educational Psychology"): "Even James and Henry, whom I very well knew to be notorious idlers in the schoolroom, were transformed under the influence of the sport into personified eagerness itself . . . and this same James failed of promotion last June." Referring to a similar incident the author asks: "Can we harness this energy?" And

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later: "Surely it is no more difficult to follow out a project in arithmetic or in hygiene for an hour than it is to spring after a football or to dig in the garden." . . . "Is it, then, not possible to introduce in our school life motivation of a nature similar to that which operates on the ball field, or in the back yard, or on the playground? To answer these questions is to call to witness Nature's great driving forces: the instincts."

To answer Mr. Averill's questions (restricting ourselves to this trend), is rather to ask ourselves what play is.

This psychology started that epidemic of play schools, that enormous emphasis on dancing that was to express the children's soul, that stress on building "rabbit hutches." Old Aristotle and his reply to Alexander, "there is no royal road to learning," were forgotten. In this imperfect world there is no play to learning.

Play is not serious. That is perhaps its most striking aspect. The aims of most actions are the modification of the external world. But the player does not attempt to do this. This is so true that we reprove him who takes the game too seriously; we have amateur organizations to prevent the game from becoming too grave.

If the player does not attempt to modify seriously the external world, what does he endeavor to do? He attempts to be successful. Play is a method for the false exploitation of triumph. If we lose at a game, the penalties for the loss are not the serious losses of a grave life situation. That is why people are objecting to inter-collegiate football; it is too serious, the stakes are too great. It is no longer a game.

As indicated in the previous section, it is the reaction of triumph which permits the appearance of interest. A tendency like play, whose essential aim is the evocation of facile triumph, cannot but be interesting. We can play at being mothers, firemen, cowboys; we can play at being in love, we have the pathological play of the artistic dreamer. All these activities are absorbing, interesting. We can have all the triumphs of the cowboy without any other danger. Does Mr. Averill want his students to play at their studies?

The enthusiastic French teacher opens his lesson with the much touted *realia* such as the pair of Breton sabots which he has collected on his last trip abroad. The class is enthusiastic, even the dull ones. But alas, he has to return to the reading lesson, or to the grammar, and the dull ones relapse into fathomless boredom.

The preceding discussion on play could be repeated for the attempt to involve primitive tendencies in the scheme of education. The hormic psychology of MacDougall has conquered the educational world. The picture of a little dynamo within us creating energy which only needs to be "tapped" (magical word) has proved too fascinating to be applied cautiously.

This brings us to a consideration of an *Interest*. So far we have been talking only of interesting activities. One of the main aims of a modern

education is the establishment of permanent interests. An interest is a matter of objectification. The interesting activity has an aim, an object. It is the announcement that a particular object seems to possess magnetic qualities which draws us on. It is these magnetic qualities that the objects of instinctive activity spontaneously possess.

Throughout books on educational psychology it is implied that interest is causative of attention and effort. In the case of certain activities this is immediately true; for example, the objects of instinctive activity (although it is necessary to make exception for pathological cases where disease has apparently diminished the charge of the instinctive tendency). In these cases disease shows us the human creation in the constitution of interest.

But the objects of higher intellectual activity are not immediately interesting. Interest is not an initial phenomenon. The teacher cannot start with it. It is an end product. These objects require the application of the reaction of effort. They require the intervention of the personal tendency. This seems to me the preliminary phase in the establishment of an interest. But effort is a temporary affair. At a certain stage there may occur the establishment of interest. It is an announcement that this particular activity is incorporated into the permanent activities of the personality. What permits the establishment of this epochal announcement? It is the result of a period of fumbling and groping; the possibility of triumph becomes evident, the reaction of interest appears and an Interest is attained. From this point on the interest plays a causal rôle; for its sake, we are willing to make all the efforts, pay all the attention that its successful consumption requires. But primitively the reaction of effort must precede interest. A period of incubation is required.

Case material from the realm of those suffering from what Janet terms the "sentiment du vide" (the sentiment of the absence of all sentiments) is particularly instructive. These people have lost all interests. Nothing is worth while, everything is tedious. They have reduced their life activities to an ascetic minimum. At the same time they never present the reaction of effort.

Henry, who came to me because he disliked German because it was uninteresting, was given permission to drop the subject or to continue and do all the work, regardless of its boring quality. He has done this work with a moderate degree of success. He naively remarks now that German has become more interesting. Little Fred with an I. Q. of 85 says: "Maybe if I could become more interested I could pass my subjects." But Fred with his mentality can never attain the reaction of triumph and can never become interested. Roland tells me that the first week of any subject is interesting, but not after that. Investigation shows in him a widespread tendency to that premature reaction of fatigue, in all life activities.

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The implications for the school are considerable. Let us realize that the establishment of permanent interests is a complicated matter. The naive idea of "tapping" the easily evocable energies of the primitive tendencies has received incautious extension. In these tendencies we have congenitally transmitted interest in whose name all the energies of the personality may be mobilized. But the objects of these interests are comparatively definite and no magic aid can transmute them into scholastic objects. The attempt has already been made. The endeavor to teach through play is an example of this. But the child will not accept as play the instructional games of the adult and soon deserts them for the old rag doll.

Certain objectives are laid down. How they are chosen need not be here discussed. The child, in order to attain them, must attend, must occasionally react with effort. The objective is mastered. In some of our pupils (a select minority) a permanent interest will have been attained. The other members of the class will have acquired a certain amount of information, a certain attitude. But they have not attained a permanent interest. They are not capable of doing so. And no amount of *realia*, of special methods will create this interest. Because interest cannot be created by a teacher, the individual pupil has to produce it for himself.

This conception of interest does not absolve the teacher from an active share in the process. He is there to present the subject in a clear light. He can show the material in a novel manner. He can employ any device to attract attention. Then there must enter upon the scene the reaction of effort to maintain this suspension of activity. In some cases this process will be crowned by interest.

There remains the question of the selection of the curriculum. It has been maintained by Dewey that with the proper curriculum there would be no necessity to have recourse to "artificial" means of making a subject interesting. The subjects would be intrinsically interesting. This is true if we can define the word "proper." Is the proper curriculum the one whose subjects permit the reaction of triumph to all (and of attachment of that activity to the personality of the student)? The adoption of such a curriculum would solve the problem of the creation of interests. But are there not some subjects with which the well educated person should be acquainted regardless of his ability to attach such a subject to his personality?

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THE HUMANIZATION OF AND BIOGRAPHICAL APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF CHEMISTRY

IN the search of means to stimulate interest in the study of chemistry, the biographical aspect and the humanization of the subject loom up as vitally important. The oversight of these factors too often leaves a wide gap between the teacher's presentation and the student's mastery.

Logical methodology in the development of a scientific concept necessitates an exposition of its evolution from its inception. It is in this direction that sufficient emphasis on the lives, personalities and contributions of the great scientists becomes a *sine qua non* of inherent interest on the student's part. Such treatment of chemistry will bring nearer home and render familiar what are only too often detached abstractions.

The human beings known as chemists are men possessed of supreme technique and guided by patient experimentation to subjugate matter to their powers of analysis. The application of their methods and their labor evolved the basis for what we now call chemistry. Matter would still be dust but for their lives and works.

It is they who through hundreds of years have gradually enriched scientific thought and widened the chasm that separates man from his animal relations; have given him a more intelligent understanding of life and a more universal appreciation of life's ramifications. Without them chemistry would never have come into existence. Narrating the part played by them is a most important aid to the student's ability to cope with and grasp the subject. We must understand before we can control.

Francis Bacon said, "The history of the world without the story of man's education is like a figure of the mighty giant Polyphemus with his single great eye left out." The subject matter, robbed of its source and the story of its sponsors, leaves it like a water color drenched by rain. The human appeal of chemistry is left obscure by its barren presentation. If scientific knowledge is to reach a fair proportion of the students and the scientific mood is to be widely cultivated, we must have a historical background of the subject.

So noble a chemist as the late Dr. Wilhelm Ostwald, in his "Klassiker der Exakten Wissenchaften," prefaces his treatise with the following significant statement: "While by the present methods of teaching, a knowledge of science in its present state of advancement is important, very successfully eminent and far-sighted men have repeatedly been obliged to point out a defect which too often attaches to the present scientific education of youth. It is the absence of the historical sense and want of knowledge of

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the great researches upon which the edifice rests."

These lives and their works should form the foundation stone of the study of matter and life itself. The fundamental importance of this contention has gained ever-increasing recognition by leading educators. This interest has manifested itself in the ever-increasing space allotted to it particularly in the high school text-books. The space and time devoted to the lives, works and accomplishments of these pioneers is fully compensated by the constructive purpose they service. There can be no substitute for the many fruitful usages to which knowledge of the lives, pursuits, and achievements of Lavoisier, Mendelejeff, Dalton, Arrhenius, Berzelius, Langmuir and many others can be put. These men made chemistry; it was not part of them but all of them. Chemistry without them becomes lifeless and static.

In as much as chemistry is considered a most vital factor of life, there is no justification for omitting this purpose in so fundamental a subject. And yet with all this understanding and effort in that direction, it seems paradoxical that so few teachers avail themselves of so urgent a portion of their program. These pedagogues have lost sight of a very noble precedent which the very fathers of chemistry pursued. In the accomplished work of these very leaders, it is well observed that the first step in their pursuits was to scrutinize the lives and undertakings of their predecessors.

Many attempts on the part of leaders in chemistry have been made, particularly in recent years, to satisfy the lay mind in its demand for chemical knowledge. An obstinate barrier was the lack of humanization of scientific writings. Another was the lack of adventure that surrounds the subject—an adventure which so readily incites the mind to strive for further knowledge. The successful obviation of these obstacles has manifested itself in the innumerable followers of chemical thought and the many popular chemical books which have found a vast appeal among the great mass of people. Leading newspapers and magazines devote more space to chemical matters, and the tendency to generalize abstractions by biographical and humanizing aid has been so widespread that even to the layman chemistry has become universal and replete with interest.

The student in his quest for knowledge seeks delivery from ignorance. For this accomplishment the humanization of knowledge is of vital importance. Perhaps the greatest illustration of the noble and humanistic aspects is portrayed by the examples of the lives and deeds of the chemists themselves. Where else would one find such combination of heroism, disinterested devotion to truth, methodical determination, coöperative endeavor and delivery from ignorance?

Subject matter in chemistry, considered by itself, is void of human approach. The attention and interest must be enlisted. The human mind is very susceptible to narration. This very congenial form is a most applicable means for approach and development. This method of historical and evolutionary approach, having weathered the storms of tests, is of fundamental significance as an aid in the humanization of chemistry. It may appear as a far fetched generalization. But to dismiss this erroneous concept we must not permit ourselves to be victims of an outlived promise. For it has been an accepted fact that scientists seem to prefer to forget that a general idea is by no means necessarily a superficial idea. No, indeed; it is long since we have, with resentment, rebuked this unwarranted accusation, for we have long proved in other fields of endeavor that in a general idea there may indeed be a very fundamental idea. It is only through such adaptation that we may dismiss any tendency from the student to have formed lifeless notions of chemistry, and his failure to see the way of weaving them into the scheme of things.

"In order to accomplish this, or at least to advance towards its accomplishment, our knowledge of man and his world must be reordered and restated; it must be put together anew with full regard to the ways in which the average person assimilates new knowledge. It must be synthesized. Thus the student will understand the conditions essential to develop such abilities, inclinations and ideals as may qualify him to an intelligent and effective grasp on the subject matter."

"When one has gone through a text-book and safely weathered the examination, he rarely has any further use for it. This is not because he has really absorbed it and so need not refer to it again. On the contrary it is associated with a process alien to his deeper and more permanent interests."

"The 'principles' or 'elements' of a branch of science are really the ultimate outcome of a knowledge of it, not the thin edge of the wedge which insinuates it into our minds."*

Instead of the tendency for the subject to be looked upon as "cut" and "dry," the described modifications to each lesson that permits of same will bring a richness and flavor for deeper interest.

Presentation of these vital factors of instruction in chemistry will enrich the many purposes of the subject. The student will derive profit by learning the mind, the method, the enterprise and the energy of the great fathers of chemistry. He will be stimulated by these examples to become a faithful guardian of his inheritance from the past, and himself a zealous worker for its advancement in the future.

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*James Harvey Robinson: "The Humanization of Knowledge." George H. Doran Company, New York City, 1923; pages 74-84.

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HIGH POINTS

The Teaching of Types of Municipal Governments

For the past year or so there has been a revival and a stimulation of interest in forms of municipal organization and management.

This interest has been nourished by frequent editorial comment, the Seabury recommendations, and public addresses, such as the one delivered by the City Manager of Cincinnati at the Town Hall. It has been a rare opportunity for the Civics teacher, and many have made pedagogical capital of it. I am sure that many felt, as I did, that it was a civic obligation on the teachers thoroughly to familiarize their classes with alternative forms of city governments, and to work up interest in this subject among their students to a plane that would be consonant with and appreciative of the attention the subject was receiving in the press and on the platform.*

Very often the teaching of the various types of municipal administration becomes for the child a theoretical discussion of governments said to exist in vaguely distant places. The class discusses the characteristics, advantages, and weaknesses of each of the forms — Commission and City Manager governments—but it seldom displays any sense of genuine intimacy or sympathy with the subject. It was this absence of intimacy and the apathetic attitude that it almost always engenders that I sought to correct.

I divided the work into two periods, devoting the first to a short, preliminary discussion on the Mayor-Council form, typified by New York City, and to a more thorough discussion of the Commission type. The second period was given entirely to the City Manager type, more time being devoted to it because it is for teaching purposes clear-cut, more interesting, a form growing in favor, and because it was recommended in one of its forms by Judge Seabury in his report to the State Legislature. There were obvious limitations. I had neither the time nor the facilities for any elaborate experiment. In a limited way the city and its functionaries were simulated in the classroom, but this was only incidental.

A description of the second lesson will explain the plan and the procedure:

The background for this lesson lay in the discussions of the day before. For motivation I read the class the first advertisement for a City Manager ever to appear in the columns of American newspapers. The advertisement, issued by Sumter, South Carolina, in 1912, is short, interesting, dramatic and contains the essence of the whole municipal experiment. Textbooks are opened, and from it the class can get by a quick reading all the factual material about City Managership condensed in a paragraph. Five students nominated to act as Commissioners are asked to list the qualities they will demand in the Manager they will hire. The class (citizens) offer their suggestions to the Commissioners. Objections are voiced which must be dismissed by a cogent argument, or accepted and incorporated in the Commission's policy. The problem then is to decide how much power is to be invested in the Manager. Opinions vary widely on this point, and almost every angle of the question is argued so heatedly that even the most stolid "citizen" is constrained to rise and tell the Commissioners exactly what he thinks of them and their policies. Often he presents a telling argument and defends it with more good sense and enthusiasm than he has displayed before. The advantages and disadvantages of City Managership are debated along the same lines.

What is the teacher doing during all this? In this case he is an encyclopedia of interesting information on the subject of City Managers. He knows the details of the careers of several City Managers. He knows their salaries, their duties, the work they have done, where they have failed, and where they have been successful. While the class is discussing what should be under this system (theory), the teacher is interpolating at every turn in the discussion what actually happened and is happening (practice). Small but significant details, names and places are mentioned glibly and profusely, not as information to be learned, but rather to lend reality and attractiveness to the lesson and divorce it from the purely hypothetical. If the debate comes to an impasse, the teacher can explain that in Forest Park, Illinois, or in Dayton, Ohio, such a plan is followed; or, that in Cincinnati, Ohio, and in Rochester, New York, slight variations have been introduced to make the plan meet a particular condition. The actual practice carries much weight with the class and is often the determining argument in the debate.

The acquisition of this fund of information demands some effort on the part of the teacher, of course, but not so much as to render the procedure impracticable. A great deal of it can be found in standard books on municipal government. There is some fine, monographic material available on both Commission and City Manager plans. The best sources, however, are the monthly issues of the *National Municipal Review*, *American Cities*, and *American Municipalities*. A casual reading of these periodicals from time to time will acquaint the teacher with all the newer developments in American local government and will offer him the basis for a very engrossing, instructive and lively lesson.

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* "The City Manager Plan for New York City," by R. S. Childs (Pamphlet, City Club of New York).
"Is the City Manager Plan Suitable for New York City?" by McGoldrick and "The City Manager Plan Is Suitable for New York City" by Schieffelin (*The National Municipal Review*, May, 1932).
New York Times, October 31, 1931; January 25, January 31, February 27, March 4, 6, 10, 11, May 10, July 10, 1932.

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The Use of the Thought Question in Economic Geography

A fact often ignored by high school teachers is that adolescent students as a group are strongly attracted by an instructor who makes them think. It is the teacher who neglects to provide his class with frequent opportunities to employ their reason who finds his pupils listless, dull and unresponsive.

Undoubtedly the most obvious means of inducing thought in the classroom is the use of that frequently discussed topic of faculty conferences, but in many cases rarely employed teaching device, namely, the thought question.

But adequate thought questions unfortunately do not rise spontaneously in every teacher's mind, but presuppose careful reflection and preparation on his part. Probably this is the principal reason why many of our economic geography classes are mere exercises of memory.

Since man is a rational animal, he yearns for questions which will require him to use his distinctive faculty, the intellect. Is it any wonder, then, that the large mass of high school students actually welcome thought-provoking questions, and strongly resent a never-ending barrage of dry, tiring, ever-popping memory quizzes?

Professor Monroe of the University of Illinois has made a classification of twenty different types of thought questions. Seventeen of these types are directly applicable to the social sciences. Several years ago Eugene B. Riley, of Thomas Jefferson High School, in an issue of HIGH POINTS, showed their use in courses in Economics. It is my purpose to point out their applicability to courses in economic geography.

Any teacher who has observed restless students in the classroom can not fail to remark their amazing energy and vitality. That type of thought question which utilizes this remarkable fund of youthful aggressiveness is the one given the name "Decision for or Against." For example, "The Central Region of the United States will supplant within a century the Northeastern Region as the leading manufacturing region. Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Give reasons." In this question there is a striking personal appeal. "Do *you* agree or disagree" John has been asked. He feels a certain gratification for having been granted the opportunity to tell his classmates *his own* view of the matter.

The teacher may then call upon others to criticize John's answer, or certain features of his answer. To this type of question Professor Monroe gives the name "Criticism." Examples of this kind are: "The manufactures of Germany reveal the artistic temperament of the German people, while the manufactures of France reflect the scientific character of the French. Criticize." "The Philippines are more important economically to the United States than Cuba is. Criticize."

By such questioning the recitation is socialized, topical recitations are secured and the experiences and interests of the pupils are utilized. During the course of the discussion, such desirable traits as initiative, tolerance, and suspended judgment might readily be developed by judicious questioning. Thus it is that the teacher is no mere hearer of the text-book, but is in a very true sense "the director of the teaching process." Moreover, since each pupil is required to substantiate his judgment by the facts of economic geography, the essential elements of review and drill have not been overlooked.

Third type, "Selective Recall": "Name the agricultural products which are common to both California and Florida." "Mention the industries of the United States which would most likely gain by the independence of the Philippine Islands."

Fourth type, "Evaluating Recall": "Name the countries of Europe which depend on the tourist trade as an *important factor* in their economic life." The evaluating factor in this question is the degree of importance which the various European countries attach to their respective tourist trades.

Fifth type, "Comparison of Two Things on a Single Designative Basis": "Compare New England and the Southern Region with regard to their relative advantages and disadvantages for manufacturing cotton."

Sixth type, "Comparison of Two Things in General." "Show that St. Louis and Chicago are similar in their principal industries."

Seventh type, "Explanation": "The construction of the Panama Canal has increased the commercial importance of the Philippines to the United States. Explain." "The Hawaiian Islands are called a racial hodge-podge. Explain." This type is rather commonly used. The class may be asked to explain an entire statement, or a single phrase or clause of the statement.

Eighth type, "Summary": "Show that France is more self-sufficient economically than England." Such a question involves recall and comparison of the chief products of each country, organization, judgment and conclusion.

Ninth type, "Analysis": "Account for the commercial backwardness of China."

Tenth type, "Relationships": "Show the connection between the American automobile industry and the topography of the Central Region."

Eleventh type, "Illustrations or Examples": "Give two examples of the reclamation of arid soil by means of irrigation schemes."

Twelfth type, "Classification": "List five different reasons why Paris is the fashion center of the world."

Thirteenth type, "Discussion": "The champions and opponents of the proposed St. Lawrence Waterway are largely moved by their own economic interests. Discuss."

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Fourteenth type, "Outlining": "Trace the different steps required after the planting of the cottonseed in order to produce a piece of finished cotton goods."

Fifteenth type, "Reorganization of Facts": "Beginning with the mining of the iron ore, recite the autobiography of a high grade steel pocket knife." This type of question is an attractive and effective device in review work.

Sixteenth type, "Causes and Effects": "In the beginning motion picture production was localized in New York State. Why has the industry shifted to California?"

Seventeenth type, "Formulation of New Questions on the Part of the Pupils". This is a most valuable type of question for it is a realiable indication of thoughtfulness on the part of the pupil presenting the question. For instance, in dealing with the relative self-sufficiency of France and England, students usually raise the question: "Why does not England raise her own foodstuffs instead of depending on her possessions?"

In retrospect, therefore, let it be repeated that there can be no brief for the teacher who, in spite of the multiform possibilities for stimulating thought, nevertheless regards economic geography as nothing more than a congeries of memorizable facts.

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A Report on Experiment in Memory Work in German: The Learning of Prose and Poetry and Its Retention

In performing this experiment, care was taken to keep the situation as free as possible from any factor which would tend to invalidate it. The selections of prose and poetry for each grade were as equal as possible in the number of words and the degree of difficulty in vocabulary and thought content. The material was presented to all classes on the same day without previous announcement. All learning was done in class, one period each being devoted to teaching poetry and prose. Only those pupils who succeeded in learning the material within that period are included in the successive counts to obviate the possibility of any "studying up" later. Pupils were not told that they would be tested for retention and each test was given unannounced, again to obviate the possibility of previous preparation in order to make a good showing. Retention in each case means complete retention, partial knowledge is not accounted for. The poetry test was completed before the prose was begun. The time intervals between the tests were the same in both cases.

Below is shown the tabulation by terms:

POETRY Grade	No. of Pupils	No. Who Knew Passage at End of 40 Min.	No. Who Had Retained on 3rd Day	No. Who Retained on 6th Day	No. Who Retained on 11th Day	No. Retained on 20th Day	% of Class Who Learned in 40 Min.	% of Learners Who Retained 21 Days
1	112	95	89	87	78	71	84.8	74.7
2	111	81	78	71	66	62	72.9	76.5
3	173	143	119	108	103	94	82.6	65.7
4	146	114	108	106	105	102	78	89.4
5	101	93	68	67	65	65	92	64.3
6	89	78	65	62	61	60	87.6	76.9
TOTALS	732	604	527	501	478	454	82.5	75.1
PROSE								
1	112	100	87	82	75	59	89.2	59
2	111	85	76	71	64	60	76.5	70.5
3	173	160	121	109	100	93	92.4	58.1
4	146	81	74	69	67	61	55.4	75.3
5	101	90	67	65	63	60	89.1	66.6
6	78	77	64	61	60	59	98.7	76.6
TOTALS	732	593	489	457	429	392	81	66.1

Results. The results would tend to the conclusion that in general it makes no appreciable difference in learning whether the material presented is prose or poetry. There were several instances in which a given group did better with prose than with poetry. The average percentage is only 1.5 in favor of poetry. In retention, however, only one group made a better showing with prose than with poetry, a difference of 2.3. In general, poetry was retained better than prose, with an average of 9% in favor of poetry.

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Stuyvesant High School.

A Contract Reading Plan For First Term American History

The following plan is an attempt to develop new techniques in the matter of reading habits and to develop permanent reading interests. The old system of asking the student to read books which he finds upon the book list and to keep a set of study notes still furnishes practice in such habits as retaining facts read, finding supporting details, comparing, evaluating and organizing. Pupils now, however, show more independence and ability in individual reading for class reports, in debates and discussions. Hence the plan attempts to give direction and open up a wider horizon to the read-

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ing habits which may already be formed.

Stress is placed upon phases of American Life which are ignored in the text-book (e.g., Women in American History). Emphasis is placed upon the life of a man in contra-distinction to the old political-military approach.

Individual differences are provided for by the presentation of a list of different topics, each having a wide range of reading references.

In fact, a capacity course for every degree of ability is furnished as follows. A list of 17 topics in American History is submitted to the student. A bibliography is included. Each book referred to may be procured in the Boys High School library. Often definite page references are made to the works mentioned. Consequently the student knows what to find and where to find it. Three topics must be completed by the end of the term. Limits are put on the dates for handing in the results of their reading.

A list of instructions for writing a term paper is posted in the classroom and one in the school library.

Instructions

1. Below are 17 suggested units of work. You are required to complete any three units.
   The first is due October 21.
   The second is due November 25.
   The third is due January 14.
2. The requirements for a grade of "A" are:
   a. Three topics finished.
   b. Five two-minute speeches in class.
   c. Draw a map.
   d. Five-page report on each topic.
   e. An additional activity, such as a one-act play, an original poem, clay models, collection of illustrative material.
3. The requirements for a grade of "B" are:
   a. Three topics finished.
   b. Three speeches in class.
   c. Five-page report on each topic.
   d. Map, chart or diagram.
4. The requirements for a grade of "C" are:
   a. Three topics finished.
   b. Three speeches.
   c. Five-page report on each topic.
5. The requirements for a grade of "D" are:
   a. Three topics finished.
   b. Five-page report on each topic.
6. Each report must consist of:
   a. Title page.
   b. A table of contents.
   c. Content of essay.
   d. Bibliography (list of books used).
7. Practice intellectual honesty. When you quote or copy a passage from a book, state at the bottom of the page the author's name, the title of the book and the page number.

8. You must present evidence of having used three different works in each report.

Topics

1. *The American Indian.*
   Chronicles of America, Vol. I. The Red Man's Continent.
   Farrand: Basis of American History (Chapter 5).
   Fiske: Discovery of America, Vol. I.
   Fisher: The Colonel Era, Chapter 2.
   Hart: Source Book, Nos. 23-26.
   Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. 1.
2. *Social and Educational Conditions in Colonial America.*
   Bogart: Economic History, pages 49-96.
   Channing: History of the United States, Vol. 2, Chapter 14.
   Chronicles of America: Vol. 9, Colonial Folkways.
   Doyle: English Colonies in America, Chapters 1-5.
   Fisher: The Colonial Era, Chapters 12-20.
   Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. 1 and Vol. 2.
   Thwaites: American Colonies, Chapters 5-8-10.
   Earle: Child Life in Colonial Days.
   Spears: Story of New England Whalers.
3. *Colonies Conflict with Great Britain.*
   Bancroft: History of the United States, pages 238-266.
   Andrews: Colonial Self-Government.
   Cambridge Modern History, Vol. VII.
   Channing: United States, Vol. II, Chapters 1, 6, 8, 10.
   Doyle: English Colonies in America, Chapter 2.
   Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. II, Chapter 6.
   MacDonald: Source Book, Nos. 55, 59, 72-74, 78, 79, 90-105.
   Priestly: Coming of the White Man.
4. *American Revolution.*
   Cambridge Modern History, Vol. VII.
   Chronicles of America, Vol. 11. Eve of the Revolution. Vol. 12, Conquest of the Revolution.
   Belcher: First American Civil War.
   Hart: Source Book, Nos. 105-194.
   Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. 11, Chapters 21-25.
   Lecky: American Revolution, pages 154-179.
   Fiske: American Revolution.
   Van Tyne: American Revolution.
   Thomas Paine: Common Sense.
   MacDonald: Source Book, pages 105-194.
   Wilson: The American People, Vol. 11.
   Schlesinger: New View Points in American History.
5. *Confederate or Union?*
   Bancroft: History of the U. S., Vol. VI.

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Bogart: Economic History, pages 100-103.
Beck: The Constitution of the United States.
Beard: American Government.
Chronicles of America, Vol. 16, John Marshall and the Constitution.
Elliott: Biographical History of the Constitution.
Farrand: Framing the Constitution.
Fiske: The Critical Period.
Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. III.
McMaster: History of the U. S., Vol. 1, Chapters 2-3.
Old South Leaflets: 1, 12, 13, 16, 41.
Schouler: United States, Vol. 1.
Wilson: The American People.
Sparks: Men Who Made the Nation, Chapter 5.

6. *The Hamiltonian System.*
Bassett: The Federal Reserve System, Chapter 1.
McMaster: United States, Vol. 1.
Wilson: The American People.
Bowers: Jefferson and Hamilton.
Hart: Contemporaries, Chapters 13-15.
MacDonald: Source Book, pages 233-238.

7. *The War of 1812: A Fight for Economic Independence.*
Adams: History of the United States: Vol. VI.
Chronicles of America, Vol. 17, Fight for a Free Sea.
Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. III.
MacDonald: Source Book, pages 288-306.
McMaster: United States, Vol. IV.
Taussig: Tariff History, pages 1-67.
Walker: Making of a Nation.
Wilson: American People, Vol. III.
Von Holst: History of the United States.

8. *The Growth of the Old West.*
Babcock: Rise of American Nationality, Chapter 15.
Burgess: The Middle Period.
Chronicles of America, Vol. 19, The Old North West. Vol. 18, The Old South West.
Rhodes, United States, Vol. 1, pages 1-38.
Sparks: Expansion of the American People.
Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. III.

9. *Women in American History.*
Fish: The Rise of Common Man.
McMaster: United States, Vol. 6.
Rhodes: History of the United States.

10. *Transportation.*
Callender: Economic History.
Bogart: Economic History.
Chronicles of America, Vol. 21, Paths of Inland Commerce.
Clarke: Elements of Transportation.
Dunbar: History of Travel in the United States.
Faulkner: Economic History of the United States.
Fish: The Rise of Common Man.
Clarke: The Clipper Ship Era.

MacDonald: Jacksonian Democracy.
McMaster: United States, Vol. III.
Julbert: Historical Highways.
Turner: The Rise of the New West.
Lives of John Fitch, Fulton, Stephenson.

11. *The Growth of the New West.*
Chronicles of America.
Vol. 22, Adventures of Oregon.
Vol. 25, The Forty-Niners.
Vol. 26, Passing of the Frontier.
Vol. 31, Economic Beginnings of the true Far West.
Hulbert: The Frontier.
Garrison: Westward Expansion.
Hough: The Covered Wagon; 54-40 or Fight; Mississippi Bubble.
T. Roosevelt: Winning of the West. (Look up the invention of the Colt six-shooter and barb-wire.)

12. *Finance.*
Jackson and Bank (his Presidential Message).
Burgess: The Middle Period.
Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. VIII.
MacDonald: Jacksonian Democracy, Chapter 7.
Wilson: Division and Reunion.
Wilson: The American People, Vol. IV.
White: Money and Banking.

13. *American Literature.*
Read the works of the following (select those you desire):
Poets: Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Holmes, Poe, Cullen Bryant, Philip Freneau, Walt Whitman.
Novelists: Cooper, Washington Irving, Hawthorne.
Writers: Bancroft, Prescott, Parkman, Emerson, Thoreau (the last influenced Gandhi).

14. *Social Reforms.*
Topics:
Reform of prisons.
Abolition of imprisonment for debt.
Abolition of cruel punishment.
Temperance movement.
Woman suffrage.
Anti-slavery agitation.
Works:
Hart: Slavery and Abolition.
Fish: Rise of Common Man.
Sparks: Expansion.
McMaster: Vols. VI and VII.
Rhodes: United States from 1850.

15. *The Romance of Invention.*
Topics:
Cotton gin, spinning and weaving inventions, steamboats, mower and reaping machines, vulcanizing rubber, photography, ether, sewing machine, steam, cylinder, printing press.
Works:

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Bogart: Economic History.
Wilson: Division and Reunion.
Wilson: History of the American People, Chapter IV.
McMaster: Vol. VII.
Shaler: History of the United States, Vol. II.

16. *Slavery.*
Babcock: Chapters 16 and 17.
Burgess: Middle Period, Chapters 18 and 22.
Cambridge Modern History, Vol. VII.
Chronicles of America, Vol. 28, Anti-slavery Crusade.
Hart: Slavery and Abolition.
Helpers: Impending Crisis.
Stowe: Uncle Tom's Cabin.
Rhodes: Vols. II and III.
Old South Leaflets, 78, 81, 140, 180.
Wilson: Division and Reunion.
McMaster: Vol. VII.
Wilson: The Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America.

17. *Reconstruction.*
Bowers: Tragic Era.
Allan Nevins: American Life.
Dunning: Reconstruction.
Rhodes: Vols. V and VI.
Wilson: American People.
Hart: Contemporaries, Vol. IV.
Biographies of Johnson, Stevens, Summer, Grant.

WALTER L. WILLIGAN.
Boys High School.

An Experiment in Vocational Guidance

The choice of a profession, trade, or job of any character has always been a difficult one for high school graduates to make. Too often the selection of the individual's life work is a matter of chance, and we have any number of square pegs rattling about in round holes for the major part of their existence. To overcome this difficulty to some slight extent, boys in the June, 1932, graduating class of the Port Richmond High School were given an exceptional opportunity to become better acquainted with the lines for which they expressed any inclination.

Mr. William M. Halloran, the Principal of the high school, coöperated with Major W. B. Lewis, the Chairman of the Vocational Guidance Committee of the Kiwanis Club. Major Lewis came to the school one afternoon and talked with the senior boys, emphasizing the need for care in choosing a vocation and for adequate training and preparation. He outlined, too, the plan evolved by his committee for aiding the boys.

A statement of his hopes for future careers was obtained from each senior boy. These were classified and tabulated and turned over to Major Lewis. Then he developed a schedule of field trips and interviews so that each student might observe and discuss actual performances in the line of work in which he was interested. After the customary notes from parents were on file, the boys were excused from school, if necessary, for the time needed for their particular interview or excursion.

A number of varied trips were arranged. A boy who wished to be a printer was shown through a local establishment and had explained to him the various machines and the tasks of the different operators. The future lawyers and journalists attended a session of court in company with a practicing lawyer and reporter. Those who hoped to become physicians visited a hospital, and a busy doctor took time to show them through the great institution. Electrical engineering had fascinated several, and these were taken through the largest plant of the Staten Island Edison Company. One June morning a contractor and civil engineer was laying out an athletic field for a private school. The boys were allowed to try the surveying instruments, and talked with the workers. One evening seven of the boys who had felt the call to aviation were invited to the United States airport at Miller Field in New Dorp, where they investigated planes, saw the latest devices for radio communication in blind flying, and talked with the army aviators.

The boys truly appreciated the opportunity offered them. They declared that the trips had afforded them not only an enjoyable time but a profitable and inspiring one. Each had gained a clearer insight into the problems and operation of some particular phase of his field. Practical field trips and interviews such as these are difficult to arrange, but immensely helpful in making a decision upon a future course and in planning the training necessary to secure some longed-for goal.

ANNA M. HEINE.
Port Richmond High School.

Strategy in Review

The following bit of strategy was devised to infuse new interest into a lesson that needs review:

At the beginning of a review period, as the children "trickle" in from their previous classes, place a neat pile of paper on the front desk of each row. The significance is quickly comprehended. No examination having been announced, hurried glances through the text-book reveal the fact that help from any source would be welcome, even from the teacher.

"How about a little review before we begin?" This is just exactly what the last hurried look into the text-book hoped to achieve. Instruction can never be more fruitful than when the need for knowledge presses. This is the "readiness" emphasized by Thorndike. What a relief!

Then follows a thorough review of as much work as can be covered in one period, allowing sufficient time for the expected test. Should the drill consume too much time, the pupils will be glad to take the test at the next meeting, when it must positively be given.

In actual practice this stratagem results in a rapid attack on the problem in hand, and an elimination or diminution of the "warming-up" period. The mental set is instituted at once. Attention is at its maximum. Self-

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activity reveals itself in the very posture and questioning of the pupils. Relief from an immediate exposure of actual or believed ignorance is followed by an interest in the situation which is bound not only to raise test scores, but to result in better retention because the emotions having been involved, the impression is deep.

ELSA RICHARDS.

Julia Richman High School.

How to Make a Book Report in the Social Sciences

I believe that teachers in the social sciences should assign to the student only those readings which can aid the student in understanding the existing social order. The assignment must arise out of a felt need and should be introduced as a vital part of the work of the class. I believe also that the student should be assigned at least once a term a full book to read, rather than a topic and a number of pages. The student should be taught to evaluate critically his reading. With this plan in mind I offer the following outline to guide the student in attaining this critical attitude:

1. The Book.

   Give the exact title of the book, the author's full name, the number of pages, and the date of publication. Also give the name of the publisher.

2. The Author.

   Give a short résumé of the life and the position of the author. Is he qualified to write on this subject? In what way? Has he prejudices? What incidents in his life show these?

3. Content of the Book.

   Take notes on cards of the important assertions in the book. Note the chapter headings; also note the proofs which the author gives for his assertions.

   Are the proofs based on original sources, on interviews (if so, with whom?); on the writings of other authorities in the field; or are they a combination?

   Has the author found new material, never before published? If so, what?

   Now with your cards before you, put briefly in your own words the author's story.

4. Excerpts.

   List the quotations that you think are worth remembering, startling statements, pictures, diagrams and anecdotes.

5. Criticisms.

   What criticisms can you make of the book?

   Does it fit a felt need? (Find out what other books are in the field by consulting the librarian.)

   Is it biased? Is it too idealistic, too bombastic, too descriptive, too detailed, too radical, of the panacea type, too superficial (assumes too much without offering proofs, or suggests remedies of the social order without taking into consideration human nature). *Note:* The author might consciously be trying to write such a book as the last suggests.

6. Verification.

   What books have you consulted to see if the author is telling the truth, or quoting correctly from others?

   What statements were challenging?

7. Style of Writing.

   Is the author clear? Is his writing for popular consumption, for the scholar, or for the professional class?

   Does the author show a love of his subject? What evidence have you of this?

   Is the subject-matter old?

   Does the book require too rich a background?

   Is the book bitter, good-natured, impatient, humorous, tolerant, sympathetic, or nakedly scientific?

   Is the author verbose, a maker of epigrams, a maker of quips, coarse, vulgar, pessimistic, or optimistic?

8. General Impression.

   What is your general impression of the book?

   What bearing has it on the course in social science that you are taking?

   Is the book well organized?

   Has it a plan of action, or purely critical, or just good reading?

   What arguments could you offer to boost those of the author?

   What could you offer in the way of reproof or rebuttal?

   What questions would you like to ask the author, if you were to meet him?

   What might the author well have omitted, or well added?

   Did the author provoke you to further study? If so, what books did you consult?

   Did you feel the author's earnestness throughout the work?

   Did you feel his personality?

   What books did you consult to get a deeper background of the subject-matter? Did you use the author's bibliography? Why?

   Name the books consulted, and tell how they aided you.

   Was there too much of the author in the book, and not enough of the subject under discussion?

   Would you suggest the reading of this book to your friends, your club, your teacher? Why?

   Did you agree with the author's title? If not, what title would you suggest?

   Would you like to add this book to your library? Why?

   Do you think the work lasting? Why?

9. Reviews.

   What professional reviews have you read of this book. (Consult the librarian to help you find some.)

   Do you agree with the professional reviewers? If you differ, state in what respect?

   Do you feel that you should reread the book, after reading the professional reviewers? What did

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you miss? Was it your fault or the fault of the author?

10. Exercises. (Particularly for the younger students.)

What would you enter in your diary after reading this book?

Prepare a ten-minute talk for a radio audience on the book.

Create an advertising layout for the book.

Create a blurb for the book.

Describe the pictures that you might make.

Make a library catalogue card for the book. Consult the librarian for help.

Write an imaginary letter to the author (in care of the publisher) of depreciation or appreciation.

Write one to the professional critics who have reviewed the book.

Suggest pictures, diagrams, or anecdotes.

Compare this book with a standard one in the field. Does it measure up? In what way?

See if you can dramatize the book in whole or in parts.

If you were going to publish your review and space had to be filled, would you fill it with a picture of the author? Why?

If not, what picture would you suggest to the publisher, keeping in mind the spirit of your review, the spirit of the times portrayed, and the spirit of the book?

11. General Directions.

Your report should be in the nature of a précis, or else one would rather read the whole book first-hand.

It should reflect your personality, your scholarship, your love of the subject, your expertness in the field.

You should note the space assignment which the author gives each sub-topic, and then follow suit in your review. (Don't mistake the trees for the forest.)

Everything that you quote from the author should be credited to the author by enclosing in quotation marks, and noting in footnotes or in the review proper the page or pages on which the quotation can be found. (Ask the librarian to show you how.) Likewise, if you criticize the statements of the author, be sure to tell where you got your facts, unless it is a general impression.

12. Examples to Study.

Study the book reviews in any good magazine.

Consult your English teacher for model ones in the field. Other examples can be found in the book sections of the better grade newspapers.

SYLVESTER FLYNN.
James Monroe High School.

Results of a Foot Survey at James Madison High School

Under the auspices of the Pedic Society of the State of New York, Kings Division, Herman J. Herzog, a registered Chiropodist-Podiatrist, conducted a foot survey of the male students of James Madison High School.

The boys examined were of the first and second year groups, ranging in age from thirteen to sixteen.

Orthopaedic and mycological (fungus) defects were principally sought for. Out of a total of about thirteen hundred boys, six hundred, or forty-six per cent, had some pedic disorder.

The most predominant foot disorder was weakfoot, which was manifested in twenty-five per cent of the group, the exact case record mounting up to three hundred and twenty-seven.

The term weakfoot is applied to a foot that looks like a healthy and normal foot when not bearing weight, but which, when weight is placed upon it, assumes an attitude of deformity wherein the arched structure of the foot, and principally its inner side, flattens to a greater or lesser extent. When relieved of weight, it again resumes its normal attitude.

There were comparatively few cases of actual flattened foot. Only fifty-two, or four and a half per cent, such cases were noted. This is explainable by the fact that accommodative changes in bones, ligaments and muscles have not occurred, due to the adolescense of the boys. The flattened foot is characterized by a functional impairment, a depressed or flattened inner side and by a more or less pronounced angulation of rear and forefoot, in which the latter points outward. The above pathological phenomena occurs with or without weight being exerted on foot.

Athlete's foot, a form of ringworm infection, was the next malady sought for. Only one hundred ninety-two, or fifteen per cent, were discovered to have had this condition. The figure was rather low, considering the fact that this disease is so prevalent and that there is a swimming pool on the premises, the natural habitat of the unattached fungi.

With the coöperation of the Boys Health Education Department, an orthopaedic and mycological clinic was formed. The mycology work in reference to athlete's foot consisted of the following:

A separate record of such cases was kept by the Chiropodist-Podiatrist in charge. Thus with the coöperation of the teachers in charge of swimming, boys afflicted were debarred from said activity until pronounced cured. A prescription for a salve, containing metallic iodine and essential oils, with an accompanying sheet of instructions as to hygiene, was insured to the boy with the admonition to apply course of treatment diligently for three weeks and then report back for a final examination.

The instructions given to the boy read as follows:

1. Wear white cotton socks, which should be changed daily.

2. After laundering them, dip into a solution of bicarbonate of soda (a tablespoonful in a small basin of water is sufficient) and then dry.

3. Prior to application of any medication, wash feet with Synol soap.

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4. Then place feet in a basin of water containing a few grains of potassium permanganate.

5. In drying the feet do not rub; blot the surface with a smooth towel (not a turkish towel). Dry the webs between the toes with absorbent cotton.

6. Saturate the shoes with a 10% solution of Formalin.

The results of this therapy were indeed gratifying. Practically all the cases have been cleared up with the exception of a few stubborn conditions.

The Orthopaedic Clinic concerned itself only with weakfoot cases. The following sheet of instructions was issued:

1. Stand pidgeon toed, rise on toes, then lower heels slowly. Do this ten times.

2. Stand with feet parallel, transfer the weight of the body toward the outer edge of the soles. Do this ten times.

3. Turn the toes in and walk forward ten steps on the outside of the feet, lifting the heels high. (Return ten steps.)

4. Sit on a table, feet hanging and apart; turn toes inward and flex foot.

5. Sit on a chair, feet on the floor and parallel, then turn toes in and curl toes under as if clenching a fist. Keep knees apart by holding both clenched fists between them.

6. Rub and knead the foot under the arch, pressing with the thumb and bending the toes down with the hands.

7. Inversion. — Flexion Exercise: Standing about 12 inches from the wall, fall towards it, keeping knees stiff, heels on the ground and arms outstretched. Repeat ten times.

Exercises Number 1 to 4 are to be done in the morning and 5 to 7 at night, in bare feet.

General Advice.

When walking always remember to toe in.

When you are fatigued, invert your feet whether standing or sitting.

Have your feet re-examined in three months by either a chiropodist-podiatrist or a physician.

No results can really be recorded at present, due to length of time involved in effecting a cure.

S. SCHINDLER,
Chairman of Health Education.
H. HERZOG,
Chiropodist-Podiatrist.
James Madison High School.

A Spanish Program in the School Assembly

The following program was presented by Mr. Pedro Caballero in the regular assembly period at the Thomas Jefferson High School on January 11, 1933.

1. "El Prólogo," Eli Kramer, master of ceremonies.
2. "Caixa Guitarra," danza con crótalos. By "La Monterito."
3. "Amapola." By Srta. Perla Violeta Amado, soprano guatemalteca. Sra. Cordellat at the piano.
4. "Ojos Verdes," a Cuban song. By Frank Pepitone, tenor, accompanied by Miss Bertha Mathers of the Spanish Club "Españita."
5. "La Jota," Spain's national dance. By "La Monterito."
6. "Capullito de Alelí," Puerto Rican song. By Srta. Perla Violeta Amado.
7. Medley of Spanish songs (harmonica). By Martin Cohen.
8. "La Violetera," Spanish song. By Srta. Perla Violeta Amado.
9. "Rapsodia valenciana," Spanish dance. By "La Monterito."
10. "Júrame," Spanish song. By Srta. Perla Violeta Amado.
11. "Poema corto," recited by Martin Cohen.
12. "Bulerías," Andalusian dance, by "La Monterito." Sra. María Cordellat at the piano.

Material Used: A Spanish shawl and Puerto Rican vase for the piano. Screens decorated with Spanish posters. Puerto Rican and Spanish fans; natural flowers.

Ventilation of the Classroom

From the Health Council of the John Adams High School

With a little thought and very little work it is possible for each teacher to control the conditions in the classroom so as to insure comfort. The following instruction will enable you to do so:

Open two or three windows from the top. The entering fresh air will descend, flow through the openings provided at the bottom of the students' lockers, and up through the louvres on the roof.

The amount of window opening depends upon the weather conditions outside. If the weather is too severe for opening of windows, operate the ventilating unit by raising the window even with the top of the ventilating unit and pressing the black push button on the starting box at the side of the unit; to stop, push red push button. Do not operate ventilating unit and open windows at the same time, as this is a tremendous waste of labor and fuel and no one receives any benefit.

The ventilating unit is designed for about twelve changes per hour, so that the air in the classroom is entirely changed every five minutes. Do not have the ventilating unit shut down and all windows closed at the same time, as the air will get foul and there will be very disagreeable odors from clothing, etc.

If you think the room is cool and you find the radiator cold, continue to leave the windows open and you will get steam in the radiator much sooner; remember that each student is responsible for about 180 heat units per hour and this is sufficient heat to keep the thermostat from admitting steam to the radiator for long periods of time.

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Do not be governed by your feelings; your feelings vary, and there is no greater benefit to health than a uniform temperature. You will suffer less from common colds.

Be guided by the thermometer and if the temperature is not correct notify the engineers' staff and they will be glad to see that it is taken care of. The thermostat will keep your room temperature within two or three degrees at all times.

Please stop the ventilating unit if there is any unusual noise and notify the boiler room.

E. HOAG,
Custodian Engineer.

John Adams High School.

Timeless Odysseus

Much has happened in the last three thousand years to make the world different from what it was in the days of Homer. Not only have manners and customs changed, morals and tastes altered, but even the topography of the earth has undergone a metamorphosis. Science has to a large degree supplanted superstition, the gods have dwindled to one, and the younger generation reads "Nick Carter" instead of Plutarch's "Lives." Into the dark (and apparently bottomless) abyss of Time have gone not only the earthly inhabitants of the past three thousand years but (with rare exceptions) their literature, as well. Few scrolls enjoyed a life longer than that of their authors and even fewer have survived to this day. Most of the literary relics of this distinct age live today only in the sense that they can be read, if anyone wants to do so. Many of them are thumbed only by venerable scholars because in the march of centuries they have lost whatever they may have had of universal appeal. Very few indeed, still have the power to hold the devotees of "Nick Carter," but most alluring of all these enduring works stand, I think, the epics of Homer.

Wherein lies the power of "The Iliad" or "The Odyssey" to interest the contemporaries of Capone, who gape in awe at Little Caesar and shudder deliciously when Scarface is put "on the spot"? What makes high school students who yawn their way through Plutarch's "Lives" read "The Odyssey" with the same avidity that they do "The Border Legion"?

"The Iliad" may be a greater poem, but as a story it is in my opinion far inferior to "The Odyssey." Its canvas is too large and the fortunes of no one person are particularly dealt with. As on the crowded stage of a Dickens novel, we are interested in Achilles, in Hector, in Priam and in Patroclus, but our interest is not a *personal* one. There is no Frank Merriwell to idolize in "The Iliad," but in "The Odyssey" the modern boy or girl has not only a Frank Merriwell to worship, but a more adorable prototype, more fascinating because he is more real, more human than the invincible Merriwell. Since, therefore, whether rightly or wrongly, Homer is popular with high school students because of "The Odyssey," I shall limit my discussion to that epic.

Boys and girls approach the study of "The Odyssey" with unfavorable prejudices. The mere fact that it was written so unbelievably long ago, that the author, most suspiciously, has but one name and that the names of the characters are quite unpronounceable, are enough to create an attitude of wariness and of preconceived dislike.

The teacher's first task is to sweep away these preposterous and yet understandable prejudices. Mere words and arguments cannot accomplish this so well as sheer enthusiasm. The students must be led to see that underneath its suspicious exterior is a rare adventure story, as thrilling, at least, as any of the Tom Swift stories or the Campfire Girls series. A short, modernized synopsis of the plot plus the teacher's genuine enthusiasm are in most cases sufficient to give "The Odyssey" a fair hearing—and that is enough to make it plain to boys and girls that it is, at least, a marvellous tale.

For it is a thrilling story. What modern thriller is as chock-full of breath-taking moments? Sax Rohmer's tales of adventure are as tame as bedtime stories compared with Odysseus' mix-up with Polyphemus or his escape from the Sirens. There are more to-be-continued-next-week moments in this story than in all the Tarzan books, with the Nick Carter series thrown in for good measure. Odysseus tearing his men away from the Land of the Lotus Eaters, freeing them from the spell of the cruel Circe, saving them from the clutches of the Sirens, sacrificing some of them to the monster Scylla, that he might save the rest—what nerve-wracking moments of excitement are these!

As our movie producers well know, the highly developed taste in the youth of the nation for thrills calls for honor and murder. "The Odyssey" supplies these in generous measure. First, the men of the hero are murdered in most cruel fashion, their brains dashed out by a terrible giant or their bodies torn limb from limb by a many-armed monster. Later, it is the hero himself who murders mercilessly (and with our fullest approval, this time the impudent suitors who beleaguer his home and woo his wife.

What is an adventure story without a hero and a villain? Not much, reply the movie-hardened youth of America. "The Odyssey" is true to form. The hero Odysseus is pursued and persecuted by the villain Poseidon, who places all sorts of obstacles in his path. Like a true hero, Odysseus conquers them all and finally reaches his goal—his home and family.

What producer would not accept a movie with the following plot: Mr. X. goes to war. He achieves great prominence on the field of battle. The war over, he turns his steps homeward. But on the way home, he makes a deadly enemy as a result of injuring the son of a wealthy and powerful man, Dr. Y. Dr. Y, for revenge, hinders X's return. Trains are derailed, ships sunk, aeroplanes tampered with, coffee drugged, women decoys used, thugs employed—but all in vain, for Mr. X fights his way through all these

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stupendous difficulties and at last reaches his home, only to find himself confronted with a situation, as difficult, at least, as any that faced him on his checkered journey homeward. All the young blades of the town have moved into his palatial home, eating, drinking, roistering, wooing his wife and intimidating his son! A fine situation for any one man to handle! But Mr. X does. He hides his identity, comes into his house in the guise of a beggar, is kicked and insulted, and then at the proper moment—strikes. Like chaff he drives the frightened revellers before him and destroys them all. The final fade-out finds him reunited with his faithful wife and son.

A movie such as this, faithfully paralleling as it does the story of "The Odyssey," would be a sure-fire hit, especially if it were given an intriguing title such as "Two Kinds of Women," "Experience Unnecessary" or any one of a thousand other titles which experienced scenario writers could easily supply. It is clear from this modernized version of "The Odyssey" that though it was written three thousand years ago and though the names of the characters are long and difficult, yet the story abounds in real up-to-the-minute situations.

While "The Odyssey" is the equal, at least, of any paper-backed novel for thrills, it is superior to all of these stories which our boys and girls delight in, from the point of view of technique. Homer not only gave us a good story, but he knew as well how to tell it.

Starting in epic fashion in the middle of the action, and then cleverly telling us, in the words of Odysseus as he relates his adventures to Alcinous and his court, what came before, Homer establishes himself as a consummate artist. With deft touches here and there, we get glimpses even into the boyhood of Odysseus until we have a full picture of the man. The incident of the boar hunt when Odysseus, as a boy accompanying his father, received the wound the scar of which enabled Eurycleia to recognize her master, is told in vivid colors and serves to enrich our picture of the man Odysseus.

Very skillfully does Homer cause his readers to dislike more and more those arrogant wooers and finally dislike turns almost to such hatred that the indignant reader calmly acquiesces in the cold-blooded, wholesale slaughter of the flower of the youth of Ithaca.

And with what inimitable artistry does Homer lead up to his tremendous climax! There is electric tension in the air as Odysseus calmly prepares himself for the big moment. Patiently he suffers the insults and abuses of the doomed men. How we writhe when Melanthius kicks him or when Antinous throws a stool at him or when Ctessipus hurls a hoof at him! We can hardly wait for the moment of retribution. But Homer does not make the mistake of hurrying. Mercilessly the coil of death closes around the suitors until, in our excitement, we can almost no longer contain ourselves in our impatience for Odysseus to strike. And when the great instant finally comes, when Odysseus, his loins girded, springs to the threshold, with the mighty bow beside him, that only he can wield, we are tingling with excitement. The climactic moment surpasses our expectations. (In how many stories does the climax fail to disappoint us?) Then, after just retribution has been visited upon the suitors and Odysseus extricates himself from the difficulty which must inevitably ensue from such wholesale murder, Homer ends his tale by assuring us that our hero "lived happily ever after."

"The Odyssey" is a greater story than "Tarzan of the Apes" or "Tom Swift," not only because of its greater characterization. As a matter of fact, in the Tarzan or Tom Swift or Nick Carter or Frank Merriwell or in any other kindred series, there are no real characters. It is easy, by a *reductio ad absurdem* to bring students to a realization of this. A comparison of these novels brings out their fundamental sameness and a comparison between Frank Merriwell, for instance, and a human being, is sufficient to elicit a sheepish admission of the realization that the former is not a real human being.

A comparison between Odysseus and Merriwell yields to the fact (often somewhat startling to Merriwell fans) that the latter is *too* great, *too* infallible, to be either real or interesting. No human is perfect, and it is because of the imperfections of Odysseus, mingled as they are with his greatness, that we love him. Merriwell is brave, but he is never rash. Odysseus is brave, but how rash he shows himself to be when, well out of the clutches of the blinded Polyphemus, he cannot resist the temptation to taunt him and to tell him his real name. It almost costs him his life and the lives of all his men.

How many real people never tell lies? Merriwell never does and yet Odysseus, godlike though he was in his greatness, stooped to fabrication when he met Athene upon his return to Ithaca (and she didn't mind at all!); he lied to his faithful servant Eumaeus, too. When I asked my students how many of them liked Odysseus less because they now knew him to be a liar, not one but said that he liked him even more because he showed kinship to them!

The one and only pitcher of double shoots though he was, captain of all teams and hero of all sports, admired of all men and beloved of all women, never for an instant, even, did Frank Merriwell show conceit, even in the slightest degree. Not so Odysseus. He was great and, strange to say, he knew it. In telling his story to the Phaeacians, he says that he is Odysseus, "for cunning plans of every kind known among men; and even to heaven has spread my fame." On another occasion he calls himself "Odysseus, taker of Troy." Such human weakness! Yet, how much more understandable and lovable than the super-human perfection of a Merriwell!

While Odysseus throughout showed himself to be commendably faithful to his wife and refused to be beguiled by

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the nymph Calypso, yet he showed himself to be only a man, beneath all the heroics, when he forgot his steadfast purpose in the company of Circe and while away a whole year with her in feasting and merry-making, until finally his men had to admonish him and bring him back to himself. How real! In short, students can readily be lead to see that while such characters as Merriwell or Tarzan are mere puppets made of card-board and not of human stuff, Odysseus is a real man, with weaknesses like ours, a man who mourns over his dog as readily as he murders to avenge his wrongs.

Nausicaa, too, is a living character, far different from the ladies of high morality who trip daintily through the pages of Bertha M. Clay. As any normal girl would be, she is attracted to the manly Odysseus and immediately sees in him a possible mate for herself. And how charmingly modern is she when she asks the "taker of Troy" not to accompany but to follow her into town, so that tongues might not have occasion to wag! Her parents, regal though they are, in true twentieth century style, offer Odysseus a goodly sum and a life of ease if he will but marry their daughter.

Penelope, pathetically faithful to her husband for twenty years, Telemachus, who becomes suddenly bold when his father is by his side, Eumaeus, the faithful servant who "has been in the family for years," the suitors, whose methods smack strongly of modern racketeering, all vibrantly human, provide for real situations.

And that brings me back to my opening question, "Why do boys and girls enjoy reading a tale that was written three thousand years ago"? The answer has, I believe, been indicated, in a general way, at least. "The Odyssey" is popular because it is not only a story of high adventure, skillfully told, but because it deals with *real* people in human relationships and unless human nature changes more radically than it has since the days of Homer, unless people cease to be interested in themselves and in their fellow beings, "The Odyssey" will be read and enjoyed thousands of years hence by boys and girls who have never even heard of the thousandth successor to Frank Merriwell.

JESSE GRUMETTE.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Ashes to Ashes

"Ashes to ashes and dust to dust" becomes a most happily chosen utterance when we seek to entomb our highly reputable literary classics. In our well-intended, but misguided preparations in literary appreciation, we proceed to a scientific dissection of erstwhile works of art. Nothing lends itself so well to this process as a cadaver, so we zealously proceed to legalized murder of fine books. Now there is something about a corpse that always commands a dubious respect, but even the most sanguine cannot lay claim to its ability to create spontaneous enthusiasm.

Today, we are convinced, for the most part, that our reading texts should not be belabored. However, we continue so painstakingly to secure exhaustive detailed study. We seek to ritualize and thus to devitalize. Our lesson plans list questions which probe into every action, every scene, every mannerism, even every article of dress. After laying everything so cruelly bare, we attempt to build up appreciation only to find that life has ebbed, and we are contemplating a gruesome, dead thing.

These methods are without real value, and their constant over-use has conducted literature into the realm of pure science, and there it does not belong. In this hypercritical age of ours, do we no longer read the classics for enjoyment? Are we so steeped in our readings about books that we no longer read the books themselves? Where has the author's personality gone, his creative imagination, his flights of fancy, his bursts of song, his groans of despair? Truly the voice of the author cries now in an intellectual wilderness. We are now scientific in our treatment, but science is cold, and life is warm.

Speaking anent scientific investigation in the realm of literature, Professor Cazamian of the University of Paris says, "It is not possible to gather all the materials out of which a work of literature has grown; and if we could have them all in our hand, they would be only dry bones; the spirit that breathed upon them is everything."

What to do: First, stop being dogmatic in the classroom, declaring something beautiful before it has proved itself beautiful. Second, stop the frantic search for factual detail, and use much more of the discussional type of lesson. Third, let the student read the book completely before genuine study is started. Fourth, let the student weigh the merits of a book in his own scales first—then later help toward a truer weighing. Fifth, make the author an integral part of the work itself. Sixth and last, let the teacher read these books first as a person, then as a pedagogue.

May I briefly develop these six points? So very often does the teacher in the classroom cling to traditional values and worship names in literature. So imbued is the teacher with the feeling that the classics are sacred that he sometimes feels that unflavored, impartial, cold criticism smacks of sacrilege. He claims that enthusiasm on the part of the instructor kindles a like response in the student. I think here, too, that blind faith of this kind places too much reliance on a doubtful motivation. Great expectations are developed, and generally great disappointments succeed in their stead. To label works with terms emanating from pedagogical dogma is to create mistrust. A mistake of this kind requires untold zeal and skill in the correction.

I think it presumptuous on the part of the teacher to demand knowledge of factual detail which he, himself, has long since blissfully scrapped. There are other methods for checks on the reading. As we all remember the larger aspects of fine books—plot, setting, character development, and the like, so will the students, in later years. Topical discussion is invalu-

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able in arriving at a clearer understanding of the book and in building up standards of conduct.

It goes without saying that studying a work piecemeal and at a snail's pace is destructive of appreciation. Yet, very often do we read isolated chapters or sections at a time. A youngster likes to read through if he is to read it at all. This unifies the work, gives him a perspective of the whole work, and makes him see a real proportion between parts. Complete reading in addition allows for really fruitful topical discussion.

The student has an innate faculty for criticism. He thinks he knows what he likes and what he doesn't like. He should be allowed to form his own opinion of the work. This is a satisfaction to him as it is also to have some of his opinions corroborated by the teacher. Then if additions or revisions are to be made, they are received with good grace, and the matter of criticism becomes really mutual.

We are all agreed that some knowledge of the author is necessary in any study of literature. However, this usually consists in dealing with the cut and dried facts found in reference books, appendices and footnotes. The author should be presented as a creature of flesh and blood. He should be given all of his human qualities. Study of the whole range of his emotions as a person and of the happy and unhappy circumstances in his life is well worth the effort. All of this infuses the book with the fire and dash expected of an interesting literary genius.

In conclusion, the position of the teacher assumes new and greater importance when we consider that the situation calls for definitely human treatment. The teacher should, for the time of first reading, become merely a trained, interested individual reading a book of established merit. From the reactions obtained from this reading for entertainment, the pedagogue may find the proper methods for skillful, animated, artistic, profitable, classroom treatment.

There have been definite signs of real resurrection, but there still remain many tombs from which the doors may happily be rolled away.

GEORGE W. SULLIVAN.
John Adams High School.

Gestalt and Geometry

The Gestalt psychology of configuration, closures and background when applied to learning, shows why certain subjects in school give trouble to beginners. In geometry, for example, many students, some of whom later excel in the subject, have considerable difficulty in making anything out of it at first. It is generally assumed that the concepts of congruence, equivalence of parts, transposition, and the like, will be understandable from general experience and logically satisfying from the axioms.

The propositions are in themselves nicely chained and altogether satisfactory from the stimulus response psychology standpoint. The hypothesis (stimulus) begins the chain, association patterns based on past propositions exercises, and so on, form the link, the series ends with the culminating final link, the conclusion (response). The beginner admits it sounds true enough, but can't see what it is all about. He can see nothing wrong, but also can't see the point. The ability to think logically has nothing to do with it since many troubled beginners later become excellent mathematics students. Bertrand Russell himself says that he had some trouble with the subject at first. The propositions and things are isolated odd bits of mumbo-jumbo logic to a beginner. It doesn't belong anywhere. It is like the illustration of Kohler who asks one to think of the sensation of a prick of the arm without the "ground" of the arm. It can't be done. Until there is a fair concept of the subject background, it is difficult to see meaning within it, even when logically linked. After a while, when enough is learned, by rote usually, to get some kind of a first book "configuration," students "catch on."

They begin to see what it is about, not because of more knowledge, but because of more meaning. Applied to the subject, it means that it is necessary to teach some geometry before it is possible to teach propositions. If pupils can get some sort of a bird's-eye view of the whole subject, the manner in which it is organized and justified and the relations with which it deals, before any demand is made to master strictly logical sequences of geometric or arithmetic links, a great deal of difficulty that beginners have might be avoided. And it is doubtful if this can be done in a rapid period or two.

Outlines serve an immensely useful purpose in giving the bird's-eye view, the "closure" before the scene is examined at close range. A part is then part of a configuration. The logic of the thing is a function of the closer view. It is perhaps because of this fact that mathematics is not given a preliminary overview for the purpose of orientation. It is well known, of course, that arithmetic and algebra do not entirely furnish this "ground" for geometry.

In having this ground, closure and configuration, the teacher has an advantage over the pupil that is something more than mere knowledge of the subject matter. It explains why a good teacher is one who teaches around a subject and why there is no better way to learn a subject than to teach it.

(UNSIGNED)

Suggestions for Lesson Planning in First Year Stenography

The teachers of the Department of Secretarial Subjects at the Bushwick High School find the following outline helpful in preparing their daily lesson plan for first year stenography. No effort is made to include in each day's plan all the topics contained here. We have found, however, that they bring to mind the most significant and pertinent items necessary for a satisfactory lesson period. This plan is a result of two individual lesson plans presented in a departmental

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meeting for examination, discussion, and revision. The plans are here consolidated as a unit report.

I. Assignment of Homework for the Next Day (placed on board before class enters the room, if possible).

A. Purpose
1. Drill
2. Review
3. To determine strength of pupil in attacking new problems; testing before teaching

B. Content

1. Specific
a. Word drill
b. Phrase drill
c. Transcription from longhand to shorthand
d. Transcription from shorthand to longhand
e. Transcription of unit of work which had been dictated the previous day
f. Reading practice from plates
g. Comprhension of rules

2. General
a. Meanings of words
b. Meanings of business phrases, abbreviations, etc.
c. Understanding of business situations involved

C. Form—generally, to be given in four parts: (1) Manual, review of a previous lesson; (2) Manual, work on present lesson; (3) Speed Studies, review of a previous lesson; (4) Speed Studies, work on present lesson

D. Adaptation—add to the assignment at any time during the period, in terms of class or individual weaknesses revealed during the period

II. Consideration of Homework for the Present Day

A. Mechanical checking to see if lesson has been prepared in accordance with instructions

B. Testing for thoroughness of preparation, by

1. Board work
a. Form, slope and proportion of writing
b. Correct application of theory
c. Fluency and speed of writing and reading
d. Correctness of spelling, punctuation, etc.

2. Reading from homework papers
a. Quickly, without self-correction
b. Halting reading is unprepared reading
c. Understanding of individual words and general content

3. Questioning—for comprehension of theory rules

meaning of words, general content, etc.

C. Rating—on one basis only—ten or zero—self-correction, not permitted, in order to stimulate fluent, steady, eraserless transcription

III. Presentation of New Matter

A. Preparation, or motivation, through

1. Method
a. Relation to material already learned with emphasis upon significant items
b. Purpose of new material
c. Focusing attention upon material to be learned, excluding all extraneous attractions

2. Material (related to new matter)
a. Short ten-word test, examined and corrected in class
b. Sentences or letters, at seats or at boards
c. Rapid review of rules

B. Presentation

1. Method
a. Types
(1) Inductive — from words to principles
(2) Deductive — from principles to words
(3) Inductive — Deductive—generally used
b. Purpose — most economically to effect sufficient understanding of new principles to permit of their being applied readily to new words and phrases
c. Criteria
(1) Minimum, teacher activity; maximum, pupil activity
(2) Minimum, talking; maximum, writing and reading
(3) Minimum, faulty habituation; maximum, positive adaptations
(4) Minimum, discussion; maximum, drill and dictation

2. Material
a. Words, sentences, and connected matter
b. Theory review and analysis

IV. Drill

A. Focalize attention on details of thing to be drilled

B. Rapid repetition in attention

C. Examination and comparison with model (teacher's outlines on blackboard)

D. Continued repetition with attention concentrated on detail to be improved (individual differences)

E. Examination — comparison — repetition, ad infinitum

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V. Dictation (Every Period)

A. Material—familiar and unfamiliar

B. Form—words, sentences, letters, and articles

C. Duration—at least half the period

D. Purpose—to habituate rapid response; to instil confidence in the practical use of shorthand; to promote fluency of writing and thinking in shorthand; to provide material for transcription

E. Method—generally, rapid dictation of familiar matter should precede slower dictation of unfamiliar matter; provision should be made for individual differences; frequently, prolonged dictations should be introduced; read or transcribe everything dictated.

MARY O'SULLIVAN.
ANNA H. INTEMANN.
Bushwick High School.

A Blank for the Delinquent

If we want to be dogmatic, we can say that there are two kinds of schools; those that have a multiplicity of forms and those that have an insufficiency. Regardless of classification, though, no departmentalized school should lack at least one form—a follow-up blank for students.

In schools where students follow individual programs, as in our high schools and in many of our junior high schools, each pupil meets, at times, as many as seven different teachers in one day. Report cards may be given out three, four, or five times a term, but three times seems to be the usual number—preliminary report, mid-term mark, and final estimate. Five different people, depending on the organization of the school, may be interested in the attendance, scholarship, and discipline of the student. These are the teacher in charge of attendance, the school disciplinarian, the grade adviser, the official teacher (the one who meets a section usually before and after attendance in the day's subject classes), and the subject teacher.

Students are generally called to the attention of these school officials because of delinquency in one or more of the following respects: conduct, attendance, and scholarship. What knowledge have these teachers of the quality of work, conduct, and attendance of these students during the interim that report cards are issued? Most of the report cards issued in high school have no provision for a statement of conduct. How can these people learn, when the necessity arises, for this information, to what extent self-control is exercised by certain students in all their subject classes? Failing marks and exceptionally high ratings do not show what caused the teachers to make the evaluations they did. What means have these people for discovering the causative factors for these marks? One teacher makes a complaint to the disciplinarian regarding the conduct of a student. How can this student's conduct in other classes be recorded? The grade adviser wishes to have a daily or weekly check-up on a student's scholarship. How can he accomplish this? The officer in charge of attendance knows of the delinquent tendencies in a student. How can he keep a constant watch over this student with some form of a moral club? These questions and many others can be answered thus, "Use a form which may be called a *Special Report*, a follow-up blank for students."

The Special Report used at Haaren High School is mimeographed on a sheet of white drawing paper, 5 inches wide and 9 inches long. This size was purposely chosen since the report occupies a space 3 inches by 5 inches when folded into three equal parts—the same size as an index card. The following is a description of one side of the report, read while it is held in a vertical position.

On the first line is room for the student's name and class. Below this, in half-inch letters, are the words *Special Report*. The next two lines contain the words, "for the period": followed by a space for the appropriate entry, e.g., "beginning of term to 10/25/32," "week ending 11/18/32," or "today, 11/30/32." The next two lines are occupied by these words in capital letters, "Carefully Read the Following and Consider All Appropriate Entries on the Reverse Side." Then there follow three paragraphs of typewritten material.

"*Student*: Your job is (1) to ask me for this report, as we agreed; (2) to have all the blanks on the reverse side filled in by every teacher you meet today; (3) to take home this report, if required, and (4) to rturn it to me. If your parent's signature is *not* required, place this completed report on my desk at the end of the last period today. If your parent's signature *is* required, place this report on my desk before the silent period tomorrow.

"*Teachers*: Please make the proper entries on the reverse of this special report. For general estimates use only: *Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor*. Use the utmost care in making an evaluation. Do not be influenced by any ratings you see written by other teachers. Do not be influenced by any ratings made by you on similar reports for this student in the past, even if they go to extremes; e.g., *Poor* on one report; *Good* on the next. If you use the terms Excellent or Poor, write a brief explanation of your ratings.

"*Parents*: Do not hesitate to write, telephone, or visit us if you have any questions to ask, or if you do not understand this report, or if your son tells you a different story from what you read on the reverse. We want to make your son a good and self-supporting citizen, but we cannot do it alone. *Please Coöperate With Us.*"

Then there follows a space for the signature of the person asking for the special report, the words "Industrial Division of Haaren High School, 59th Street and Tenth Avenue, New York City," and space for "Parent! Please sign here."

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The other side of the special report is read while it is held in a horizontal position. There are six vertical columns labelled, respectively, 1. Subject, 2. Work (see other side), 3. Conduct (see other side), 4. How many days absent? 5. How often do you assign homework? and 6. Signature (in full). There are seven horizontal columns with the following entered in the first column, in this order: English, mathematics, science, mechanical drawing, leaving three blank spaces for the entry of the names of other subjects that the student takes.

DAVID J. SWARTZ.

Haaren High School.

The Abraham Lincoln High School Club Exhibit

Parents often wonder what their children do in the hours they remain in school after the official program is over. Are these hours well spent? It was with this question in mind that the Administration of the school and the Club Council decided to run a Club Exhibit.

Plans for this display were a long time in maturing. The Club Council, which consists of the Presidents of the various clubs, and which meets bimonthly, were advised the preceding term as to what was expected of them. Addresses in regard to their exhibit were made by the Administrative Assistant of the school and the Chairman of the Art Department, in addition to reports by the Presidents themselves on what their clubs were doing. Thus was the Exhibit advertised and prepared for.

Under the supervision of the Chairman of the Art Department and the shop teacher, the arrangements for the Exhibit in the library were made. More than forty booths were laid out on tables, each booth about four feet in width, and with a back support of plywood for any labels that might be necessary. An artistic design welcoming the parents, for the Exhibit was held in Parents' Week, decorated the entrance to the Library, and large, wooden letters were placed on a slope of the school's large campus, also welcoming visitors.

The clubs held their displays during the whole Parents' Week, and on Thursday night of that week many hundreds of parents visited the school and were directed to the various points of interest by faculty members.

Practically every type of activity was demonstrated at the Exhibit. The various art squads displayed the performances of their students. One of the most interesting exhibitions was that of the Art Weaving Department, featuring fine knitted lace and woven rugs prepared by the students themselves.

The Science Clubs attracted a great deal of attention with the Radio Club, featuring its own sending and receiving set, and the Aviation Club, showing many models prepared by the students. One of the finest displays was that of the Medical Club, which offered dissections of various animals prepared by students under Faculty supervision.

The language clubs, of which the school has many, exhibited costumes and homes of various countries, and were aided considerably by the Costume Club.

The various literary societies were led by the Poetry Club which, besides exhibiting poems written by students, had a very clever project on the Evolution of a poet, showing progress from random scrawls in a classroom to the finished product in the school publication, *Cargoes*. The Short Story and Journalism clubs also displayed students' work in an attractive manner.

Perhaps the outstanding feature of the exhibit was the artistic arrangement of the whole; as the visitor proceeded from booth to booth, something new helped arouse his interest. The primary purpose, which was to display the fruits of the students' extra-curricular labor, was accomplished to the full.

BERTRAND BURGER.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

The Mind — Its Health Habits

Since personality is undoubtedly affected by unhappiness, as we all know from our own experience, perhaps our first step toward producing a wholesome personality might be to attempt to discover just what problems are causing undesirable conduct manifestations and unpleasant personality traits.

These, though serious in themselves, are not nearly so serious as the things that are causing them to appear as symptoms. We cannot emphasize too much the importance of "cause." If we are really to bring about health habits of mind, we must find what underlies such symptoms as inattention, aggressiveness, failure, rudeness, and the numerous other unfavorable elements that come to our notice.

If we are to believe psychiatrists, a large portion of all human behavior leading to inefficiency and unhappiness might be prevented if knowledge we had at hand were utilized.

By way of getting at the problem which faces all us, and presenting proof of its crying need (though most of you, as understanding teachers, need no proof), another teacher and I asked our students to write, anonymously, of the things that worried them. This was purely voluntary—anyone who felt she could not, was not forced to write.

The tabulation of about 280 papers showed that the largest proportion was concerned with worries about home—mother, family quarrels, getting along with big sister, and so forth. School worries were next in importance. I might add here that if we only know how our casual or intentional glances were interpreted, or the actual seriousness with which we were taken at practically all moments, we might try to be better actors or actresses. The usual adolescent worries about the future, other people's opinions, clothes, boys, appearance, and loneliness told their own story.

One girl told a most pathetic story of loneliness. She had never had any friends of her own age. Then, one night, a girl whom she knew merely as a classmate called for her, and took her to meet some young people "on

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another block." These trips to Paradise lasted several weeks. Then the classmate stopped calling. The girl wrote, "All day long I think and I lie awake all night, wondering why."

I have selected three of the most typical. The first is full of the woe of home conditions—father out of work, rent to be paid, and the like, with the consequent effect of these conditions upon the girl's school life. The second tells of a girl who, in her own language, is "always a third on a twosome." Her letter, though amusing, is none the less evidence of what is, to her, a real tragedy. The third is the plaint of a girl who hates her mother and can't wait to get out of her home. Her hatred of her mother is based upon the latter's "constant harping on the fact that I am ugly and my sister is pretty."

What can we, as teachers, do about situations like these? We all know that there is no one solution of life's problems, for we can not standardize the human element. The first thing we can do, however, is to be alert and aware of those symptoms whose cause might be revealed to us. Then, too, we might attempt to offer them a perspective on life, to show that the right attitude toward living is an evidence of a maturing personality. Thus we enable her to meet her obligations efficiently and handle her freedom wisely.

The November, 1932, issue of *Understanding the Child* contains some very workable mental hygiene precepts which might help the girl to establish a working philosophy of life that will keep her from surrendering or evading.

LILLIAN M. SILVERMAN.
Julia Richman High School.

The Efforts of a Junior High School Teacher of Latin

Inasmuch as our Junior High School children can elect only one language, it is our task to encourage the election of Latin. In the 7B and RA groups, the children are given an opportunity to elect either Latin, French, German, Spanish or whatever language is offered. Last year there were 60 Junior High Schools offering French, 21 Latin, 19 German, 14 Spanish, and 7 Italian. French was offered in every school except two in Manhattan, namely P. S. 30 and P. S. 139. Thus every child was afforded an opportunity of electing French. In only 21 schools, or about one-third of the Junior High Schools, was Latin offered and then only to General Students; Commercials are discouraged from taking it. Now the question is how to encourage its growth, and this I shall discuss first in our school and then in the schools throughout the city.

In our school, which is P. S. 171, or Lincoln Junior High School, Brooklyn, we started campaigning for new Latin students early in October as the option cars must be filed by November 15 and a choice of language made. We decided that it would be a good idea to enlist the students in a new member campaign and my RC group pledged itself to enroll new students. They prepared a program which they presented at the RA and 7B Assemblies. This program included a Latin play, a Roman School, selections, a poster parade, songs, and lastly, original speeches by the students on the values they had received from the study of Latin. Their program was quite a success and they were invited to repeat it at the Parents-Teachers' Meeting and also at the Open-School Week Assembly. In this way the parents were shown the possibilities of the language and the results were that at the present time it seems as though we shall gain an additional section in beginners' Latin. In addition to our program we displayed charts and posters and other realia which the students made in the Latin Club. I use charts as suggested by Miss Florence Sabin and the Classical Bureau of New York University, where a wealth of material may be found. Incidentally, I believe this is the first time that there has been any attempt to "push" Latin in our school.

Another valuable assistance in furthering the growth of Latin is through the school officials. Dr. Davison, our principal, formerly taught Classics here in the city schools and he encourages the work of our department in every way. His kindness and cooperation have been a great inspiration. Mrs. Thomas, the Assistant-Principal, has also been very helpful in promoting Latin. She is deeply interested in the subject and the best evidence is the fact that her two sons are studying Latin. Her work consists of making our students' programs and her advice is often sought by the parents and pupils. She has turned some doubtful students from French to Latin. If Latin is to survive we need the aid and encouragement of the school executives. It is the duty of every teacher to sell his subject to his supervisors, especially the Latin instructor in these days when French is the favored language.

In 1932 the numbers taking language work in the New York City schools were as follows:

In the Senior High School there were

65,707 French
37,092 Spanish
18,262 German
22,782 Latin
3,163 Italian
267 Hebrew
137 Greek.

Of all languages, 124,224 were studying Modern Languages and 23,181 Ancient Languages. According to some figures recently published there are now 107,000 French students, 41,000 Spanish and Latin was not mentioned.

In the Junior High Schools the numbers were as follows:

38,384 French
4,613 Spanish
4,010 German
2,881 Latin
2,550 Italian.

There were three times as many taking French as all other languages combined.

Now what is the reason for Latin being at the bottom of the ladder and how can we raise it? Other cities like Baltimore and Los Angeles are in-

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creasing the numbers. Why is the number of those studying Latin in our schools decreasing? There are various reasons and I shall touch on a few.

One thing which does not encourage the study of Latin is the lack of articulation between the Senior and Junior High School teachers. The Senior High School teachers receive the material which we have sorted over for them. We take pupils with I. Q.'s from 60 up; we sort them over and pick out the "language-dumb," work to get the remainder through a City-wide test with 100% passing and then hand them over to the Senior High teachers. We have done our work and it is up to them to finish it. They should not criticize Junior High School children and inform them that they don't know anything as they came from the Junior High School. Charitable tolerance of the Junior High School is not enugh. There must be harmony and coöperation. We are fortunate in having the John Adams High School in our district and a Latin Department under the direction of Mr. Mann, where Junior High School children are welcomed into Latin 3 and continue the work from the point where we leave off in Latin 2. Recently I received a letter in which he said, "What we expect of Junior High School pupils in Latin 3 is no more than we expect of our own people, namely, that the third termers take up the work and base it on their previous knowledge." He sent me some of the ratings of our former pupils and suggested we send a million more like them. This letter did more to promote harmony and create a friendly feeling throughout the school than anything else could do.

The other extreme is represented by the remarks broadcast by a parent to the effect that children were wasting time studying languages in Junior High Schools as they could not receive adequate instruction. Her source of information was a neighboring high school Principal. These were the same type of remarks made at the Junior High School Conference last Spring by one or two speakers. Remarks of this type do not promote the growth of Latin or of any other subject.

We Junior High School teachers realize that the failure list is sometimes large in Latin 3 and 4 in the Senior High. This naturally reflects back on the Junior High School and disgusts the Principal with the subject. I have heard more than one Junior High School Principal say that he does not want Latin in his building as students do so poorly in the Senior High School. We can all promote the growth of Latin by reducing our failure list. This is true, too, of other languages.

It seems to me that one of the best ways to encourage the study of Latin in the Junior High School would be to have a course in Latin filled with activities, a course in which the pupils could try out their capacity and attain knowledge as far as ability permits. Out of every 100 who begin Latin, 31 pursue it only for one year.

Now why not do something for these 31! I have at present a section of 25 8A's who are mixed in with a section of 13 8B's. The majority of them have not passed 7B English and it was discovered that they had chosen Latin because they could not do English and thought they might succeed in a foreign language. Yet they do fair work and show great interest and we have to fail them because they can never measure up to the City-wide test. Does it encourage the growth of Latin when it is necessary to fail 50% of the pupils in order that the other 50% may pass a City-wide test? No!

Dr. Campbell has recently suggested a plan of having two groups of Modern Language students in the Senior High School. He suggests a two-fold grouping of students with the average and above average in one group, and the slow pupils in the other group. For the first group he suggests an enriched course of study and for the latter a course depending on their ability. He recommends that there be not left-backs in either group except for absence. Why couldn't some similar plan be accepted for Latin? This would surely be an encouragement in increasing the numbers. Who wants to begin a language and be dropped out at the end of the second term!

Furthermore we should have attractive Junior High School books. The old Senior High School texts are unsuited both in content and methods for Junior High School children.

Another way of encouraging Latin in the Junior High School is to improve the personnel of the teaching staff. Only 23 out of 63 Junior High School teachers are teaching Latin on a Latin license. In one school Latin was formerly taught by a drawing teacher. Yet the Principal wondered at the failure of the pupils. Should a French teacher have charge of Latin in the summer school? In one school a Domestic Science teacher teaches Latin. There should be more qualified teachers with Latin Licenses.

Also, the size of the groups in the Junior High School should be reduced if good results are to be obtained. I have four Latin sections, a 9B-RD combination with 38 pupils, a 9A-RC with 38, an 8B-8A combination with 38 and an RB group with 43 pupils. In addition I have an English section of 43 every day, an official class, three Coaching periods a week, a Club period, a Home-Room period, a Library period and the editing of the school newspaper. We also have lunchroom and basement duty and at least one hour of clerical work. Mrs. H., a French teacher, has a daily pupil load of 220, a section of 68 for two Coaching periods, a Library period of 44 pupils, a Home-Room, accompanies the 9B-RD Assembly, has charge of discipline in the Music period, and has a French Club. By reducing the size of the sections we could do more individual work and know our pupils by name.

In conclusion, I suggest more publicity and advertising of Latin, a closer articulation between Senior and Junior High School teachers, a live up-to-date course with credit for every-

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body, a reduction in the amount of material to be covered, a final test to be made by the Junior High School Latin teacher instead of the City-wide test, an improvement in the teaching personnel, the introduction of up-to-date Junior High School texts, an opportunity for every child to study Latin if he desires to, and a reduction in the size of sections. As long as the subject is so difficult that there are countless failures and the sections are so large that we don't know our pupils, so long will Latin continue to be at the foot of the ladder.

HARRISON CODAY.

P. S. 171, Brooklyn.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Said Robert of Sorbonne

To those of us to whom the use of proper study habits is a matter of constant concern, the following may prove of interest. It is culled from the work of one of the great teachers of the thirteenth century, Robert of Sorbonne, founder of the great universities there situated, who, in a treatise entitled "De Conscientia", set forth the following six essential rules to be followed by the student who would profit by his lesson:

1. "Consecrate a fixed hour to each study.
2. "Fix the attention upon what is read, and do not pass over it lightly. There is the same difference between reading and studying as between a host and a friend, a salute exchanged in the street and unalterable affection.
3. "Extract from daily reading, some thought, some truth, and engrave it upon the memory with special care. Seneca has said: 'When you cover much in a day, choose for yourself one thing which you extract from that day.'
4. "Write out a résumé, for words which are not confined to writing fly away like dust before the wind.
5. "Discuss the matter with fellow students in disputation or in familiar talk. This exercise is even more advantageous than reading, because it results in clearing up all doubts and all obscurities that the reading may have left. Nothing is perfectly known, unless bitten by the teeth of disputation.
6. "Pray; this is, in fact, one of the best means of learning."

"Certain students act like fools. They display their sublety in foolish things and show themselves destitute of understanding in important things. In order not to have seemed to have lost their time, they get together sheets of parchment and form thick volumes filled with leaves, blank on one side, and cover them with elegant bindings of red leather. Then they return to their fathers' houses with little sacks filled with knowledge, and with a mind completely empty. But, what is this knowledge that can be stolen by a robber, knowed by rats or worms, and destroyed by fire or water?"

SIDNEY BARNETT.

Richmond Hill High School.

A Report on "The New Sense of Duty as the Teacher Sees It": A speech by Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt

Mrs. Roosevelt spoke last January at a dinner in her honor at the Women's City Club, of which she had at one time been vice-president, on "The New Sense of Duty As a Teacher Sees It."

She stressed the importance of having the pupils take an interest in economic conditions and their causes. Pupils must be made to feel their responsibility in knowing what is happening in the social, economic and political life of their state, their nation and also in other countries. They should study the past and its influence on the present.

Mrs. Roosevelt's students are asked to bring in subjects for discussion. So the other day she was asked to discuss technocracy. This she asked to be postponed until she had heard Mr. Scott's lecture and read more about it.

They should be taught, she said, to realize their parts as units in a great universe which they will affect by what they think and do. A nation, she said, was great only as its average citizen was great.

They, the pupils, must be willing to stand and to fight, not in the militaristic sense, for what is right. They should not wish their country to be a selfish one and to think only of its own good. It should be looked upon as one of the family of nations that wishes no good for itself that would be harmful to another.

It is for pupils to realize that it is their responsibility to make the world a new and better place to live in. True patriotism does not consist in proclaiming one's country is always right, that it is the greatest, and that one is willing to die for it; but in so living that it will be truly great.

ANNA E. ROBINSON.

Julia Richman High School.

The Summer Session of the University of Guadalajara, Mexico (June 29—Aug. 13)

The new method of teaching a foreign language, with the major emphasis on a recognition reading knowledge, affords students little opportunity of learning to speak it; but experience proves conclusively that a passive reading knowledge can be quickly converted in an active speaking mastery by a short residence in a foreign country.

Students and teachers of Spanish are offered an unusual opportunity, at a low cost, of perfecting further their reading ability and of changing it into a usable speaking accomplishment. The University of Guadalajara is located in a center of long-standing

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Spanish culture; students, without conscious effort, store away for future use those thousands of items, not recorded in text-books, pertaining to Spanish life and customs, at the fountain least Americanized of a university center within striking distance of the American border.

Some of the detailed advantages are:

1. An opportunity of pursuing undergraduate or graduate courses in Spanish and French, courses in education, history, geography, art, and social sciences, taught in Spanish by the regular staff of the University.

2. The opportunity to reap double benefits by studying French through the medium of Spanish, which also permits one in the most ideal manner known to classify and systematize the similarities and differences of the two languages.

3. Permission to earn six semester hours, accepted towards a bachelor's or a master's degree at face value by most American universities, including the University of California.

4. The opportunity of living as a paying guest, at a reasonable rate, in a cultured Spanish home in Mexico's second city.

5. The privilege of attending organized week-end trips to places of great scenic beauty and of interesting native life.

6. And last, but not least, the chance to enjoy an ideal climate where the average official July temperature is only 67.47 degrees Fahrenheit. In short, the unusual opportunity of making the summer both a pleasant vacation, and at the same time the occasion for increased linguistic and professional attainments.

For detailed information and descriptive printed matter, address the American representative and exchange professor for the summer.

DEAN COLLEY F. SPARKMAN.
Mississippi State Teachers College,
Hattiesburg, Miss.

The Decline of English

I wonder if any other teachers experience my feeling of helplessness and fright as the clouds of bad English come thick and fast, from radio and screen, song-sheet and tabloid. The English classroom seems but a tiny oasis in the desert of poor, inadequate expression.

I sometimes hear the modern songs as they steal into my window from a neighbor's radio, and I find myself listening to gibberish—syllables that form no words, words that form no sentences. It is as though the great public had demanded, "Give us sounds that will soothe our ears, but do not tax our weary minds." I am reminded of the inarticulateness of our primitive ancestors.

When the foes of English do consent to follow the tradition of words, what then? We get phrases and sentences of such thinness and insubstantiality that our tongues might be otiose than utter the one-syllable inanities of the modern love-song. There is a simplicity that spells art, but it cannot be confused with emptiness.

On the screen we find that, except in the rare instances where the text of a book or play of recognized worth is followed, the dialogue glorifies the American moron. In the name of succinct wit, we must listen to all the varieties of "Oh, yeah?" that screen-writers' ingenuity can provide. I remember a scene in the picturization of a prize-fighter's life, where the hero picked up, by chance, a volume of Browning's poems. With what a mincing voice did he mouth the lines, and what witty Americanisms followed, as he tossed the book aside! I thought of the impressionable children sitting there, attempting, perhaps, to reconcile the scene with one in the English classroom, when the poet's lines were more appreciatively rendered. Why should the English teacher be forced to contend against so strong a foe?

The tabloid needs no further criticism, for it has now been the target of ridicule for so many years that some of our disdain for its sheets has been transferred to the minds of our pupils. Not so often, though, does there appear criticism of the billboard, except from the aesthetic viewpoint. Casual observation on my part has revealed such faults of spelling and grammar as the following:

1. *Alright*, for *all right*.
2. *To* for *too*, and vice versa.
3. The apostrophe to denote simple plural.
4. Plural subjects and singular verbs, and vice versa.
5. Sentence errors.

The names of advertisers are discreetly withheld!

Outside the high school where I teach, men station themselves at the close of the afternoon session with large yellow sheets with the precious words of the very latest songs. To tempt customers, they call out the silly lines that open the silly songs, and out come the nickels. But a few minutes before, perhaps, these eager girls were listening to "Drink to me only with thine eyes," or "Lovers and madmen have such seething brains," or "Euclid alone has looked on beauty bare." What success would I have, I wonder, if I offered full and complete words of such selections for five cents?

Other ages have had their faults, too, in language, but surely none offended with such aridity of words and thoughts as now confronts us. How welcome would the conceits and puns and verbal enthusiasms of the Elizabethans be, in this age of the decline of English!

ETHEL K. HARTE.
Theodore Roosevelt High School.

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Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Senior High Schools as of March 15, 1933

Languages	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
French	11,250	11,963	17,586	14,457	7,535	6,084	550	306	69,731
German	5,968	5,031	4,357	3,811	1,146	861	63	38	21,275
Greek	15	42	27	13	10	7	.....	.....	114
Hebrew	95	66	51	36	20	20	.....	.....	288
Italian	1,031	674	929	627	276	252	60	24	3,873
Latin	4,731	4,419	4,544	3,856	1,867	1,672	260	137	21,486
Spanish	10,584	9,062	7,855	6,255	1,772	1,394	157	91	37,170
Totals	33,674	31,257	35,349	29,055	12,626	10,290	1,090	596	153,937

Grand Totals: Modern Languages, 132,049; Ancient Languages, 21,888.

REVIEW

An Evaluation of History Texts—A Check List

By Miriam A. Compton. McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1932.

Throughout the United States, history texts are used as the basis for instruction in history from the early grades in the elementary school through the last grade in the senior high school. Who is responsible for the selection of these texts? Would those on whose shoulders the responsibility rests feel uneasy if asked questions of this nature: Did the objectives of teaching history in the particular grade play a part in the choice? What criteria were used in the evaluation of the text? How much time was spent examining the text that was selected? Precisely what factors prompted the selection of a particular text among the host of texts?

Few teachers would question the value of a text in the teaching of history. Most teachers of history would agree with the author that for an inexperienced teacher "the book used can make or break the course." Even the experienced teacher would find that an inferior text may prove to be an insurmountable handicap. It is obvious, therefore, that a scientific method for choosing a history text is of vital importance.

"But how," the harassed supervisor might ask, "should I have proceeded in my choice of texts for the different grades in my school?" This question the writer answers at great length.

Criteria are set up for the choosing of any history text. These criteria are divided into nine parts. Under each major criterion there are a number of questions. All in all, about three hundred questions, well organized, well chosen and pertinent, are asked, ranging in importance from the name of the publisher to one asking if the purpose of the book meets the needs of the course for which the book is to be chosen. These questions are followed by a key manual explaining in great detail the use of the check list. Each question on the check list is analyzed.

Despite the fact that choosing a text in this way requires the expenditure of a considerable amount of time, the supervisor may turn to the check list with a sigh of relief. It offers an objective, scientific method for choosing a text-book. Evaluation in this manner would certainly lead to a suitable book. The supervisor will no longer be plagued with the thought that he might possibly have handicapped his teacher by an unwise choice of a text and is, therefore, responsible for deficiencies on the part of teacher and pupil.

HERBERT GROSS.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

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PROBE

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

MAY 1933

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HIGH POINTS

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LACK OF EDUCATION A CAUSE OF BANKRUPTCY

TWO years ago United States Commissioner of Education William John Cooper said, "One of the difficulties with American business today is that in it are too many who dropped out of school before they had sufficient education to meet life's problems intelligently and to be able to think straight in relating brain success to permanent economic security."

Now the Commerce Department has documented his observation. The Commerce Department has made a study of the causes of 570 commercial bankruptcies.

This is what it found: "Over 40 per cent of the total group of 570 bankrupts did not finish grade school. Approximately 70 per cent were not high school graduates, although there were 145 high school graduates in the group. Less than 10 per cent were college graduates."

We will not let any man serve us as a doctor until he has had a minimum of 18 years of education. But we set up no educational requirements for our bankers. We require 16 years of education for the pharmacist who prepares our prescriptions, but we never ask the man who runs the drug store if he spent a day in school. A girl must have 15 years of education to be a nurse but a boy can be a business man without having passed fifth grade.

Another study recently completed ("American Business Leaders," by F. W. Taussig, Harvard University) shows that one-fourth of the **leading** business men of America had only eighth-grade education. One per cent, in fact, had no schooling at all.

It appears that we have set up no educational qualifications for some of the most vital positions in American life. When businesses fail, when business men make poor judgments, we all suffer. Yet we intrust some of the crucial tasks of business management to persons whose educational equipment is so meager that they could not enter any of the professions. Some of them could not even be candidates for a skilled trade like plumbing.

Commenting on the relation of education to bankruptcies the Commerce Department says: "It may be inferred from the above facts that lack of education in many cases was a contributing cause of failure. Knowledge and training can be acquired both in school and through experience, but the disproportionate use of either method, except in unusual cases, is not conducive to success. The majority of the bankrupts did not secure the necessary knowledge and training in school."

Editorial in School Life, March, 1933.

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LATIN AND BOYS*

YOU ALL know what a chemical compound is, and the distinction between a physical mixture and a chemical compound. It seemed to me, when I was asked to address you, that the subject might appear, superficially, like a physical mixture, in which the elements each retain their own characteristics.

But that, of course, is a false belief. It was spread abroad by some old grammarian who had a formidable idea that unless you make a medicine distasteful, it will not have a beneficial effect. The pill, it was thought, must be sugar-coated. And that idea, despite all the centuries that have passed since then, has still persisted. If Latin is so impossibly hard, it is said, then it must be given up half-way, surrendered however ignominiously, and an attack made upon another and presumably simpler subject.

Of course it is true that Latin is not easy in the sense that it requires no personal activity, that one can sit back and absorb the language passively, without effort. On the other hand, it is not true that the language is so insuperably difficult as to evade mastery over it. St. Augustine regrets, in his "Confessions," that as a schoolboy in North Africa he did not like Latin because he had to do arithmetic in Latin and go over the multiplication table so often: "Sed peccabam puer, cum inania utilioribus praeponebam. Iam vero 'unum et unum duo, duo et duo quattuor' odiosa cantio mihi erat, et dulcissimum spectaculum erat equus ligneus plenus armatorum, et Troiae incendium atque ipsius umbra Creusae."

Augustine goes on to lament: "What misery I experienced when, as a boy, I was rightly told to follow advice, if I wanted to be successful and excel in those language studies that contribute to human glory and hollow wealth! Then I was sent to school to study literature, in which, in my stupidity, I did not see what was of use. And yet if I was slow in learning, I was punished. For our elders praised this method, and many before us had laid out the paths of sorrow which we were compelled to traverse with manifold labor. Yet I sinned in writing or reading or thinking less about literature than was demanded of me. For it was not that I lacked memory or talent, of which I had sufficient considering my age, but I liked to play, and punishment was inflicted upon us by those who used to do the same thing. But the trivialities of our elders were called 'activities.' Now since boys' activities are of this kind, they are punished by their elders and nobody pities boys. Unless someone approves

* Read before The Torch Club, Greenwich, Conn., December 9, 1932.

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my having been punished because as a boy I played ball and that game prevented me from rapid progress in literature. Did the man who punished me do otherwise himself? If he was ever defeated by some fellow-schoolmaster in connection with some trifling question, he would fall into greater rage and jealousy than I would, whenever I was beaten in a ball game by a fellow-student."

Is there anything antiquated about this passage? Does it not sound like the plaint of some present-day high school student? But Augustine does not stop there. He gasped with wonder and praise when a new field, Latin literature proper, came into his ken, when he entered upon the study of Vergil, when he began to understand the poets and had left far behind the grammatical elements of Latin.

In spirit and in essential characteristics, in spite of all that you may think, boys have not changed since young David defied the ponderous Philistine, or since the lads of Pompeii, that wild coast town in Italy, went rollicking home after school and filled the town walls with graffiti, Latin scribblings that are still extant; or since the days of this same Augustine himself. Boys are universal in type, and what the young Roman boy liked or disliked creates the same effect upon you. A Roman boy went to school at dawn, his *pedisequus* carrying a lantern to guide him. He remained in the cramped room of his teacher, possibly on the upper floor of a skyscraper or *insula*, for hours on end, and came home only at sun-down. And what did he do in school? He listened to the murmurous tales of wandering Greeks (and sometimes an exiled Greek philosopher would actually come in to listen), to the vibrant stories of Hercules, the thudding centaurs, the tumult of Troy astir with battle, and the limitless undertakings of godlike heroes, the toilsome trials of Aeneas, the passion of Dido. And he listened to all this and laboriously copied out the tale as his teacher chanted it. Of course, now and then, a boy would scribble some poem or other on his tablets, or fall into a glamorous dream — and then his teacher would awaken him with floggings, as did the poet Horace. Or, when the days grew warm, and the fever of restlessness entered the stuffy classroom, the boys would go and beg a kindly poet to scribble a little rhyming excuse to the teacher, and the poet, like Martial, would readily do so.

What did the boys dream about as they sat with drifting thoughts before the old *ludi magister*? They dreamed of the things that modern boys think far removed from Latin. They dreamed of flaming stories of castaways, far-flung desert islands, children kidnapped by sea pirates, prowling detectives, last-minute escapes. Each story that the Roman boy heard from his teacher was an opening to high adventure and unspoken mysteries. But the Roman boy, even with Latin as his mother tongue, did not get all this readily. He had to give himself entirely to the study of the language.

The high school student often forgets that learning a language is an architectural achievement. You cannot stop when the structure is half-built and say you are tired, or begin to criticize it because there is no top to it. The Romans knew this; they themselves were architects of language as well as of brick. There is an old bridge in the north of Britain that I have often crossed; it was built by Roman *fabri* almost 1800 years ago, and it is still standing, in good repair. That is a symbol, as it were, of the Roman idea of perfection and utter achievement. In spite of all kinds of assaults, in spite of what some scribblers in newspapers say, Latin survives. You cannot condemn a thing if you do not know it well; and only those who have mastered Latin can condemn it and rend it apart; and yet that is just what they do not do. On the contrary, they encourage others to go on the same difficult, perhaps lonely road, because each one will find his own salvation in it.

You will perhaps not unreasonably ask: What is there for me, as a high school student, in Latin? It is, they say, so remote, it does not deal with current events, it is not a spoken language, its subject matter is so distant from our interests. But you would be entirely wrong to think so. Latin is alive; it is spoken; it does deal with all that interests a human being.

Perhaps you would like, instead of Caesar, an adventure story in Latin? Fights with robbers in underground caves? Strange scenes of magical transformations? You will find all these things in the wonderful novel of Apuleius — the "Metamorphoses or The Golden Ass." Do you want one of those picaresque novels, full of vivid descriptions, illuminating episodes, rich and realistic characterization? Do you want a hilarious parody of Nero's antics, and a gorgeous banquet at the home of one of the most comical personalities in all literature? Then turn to the "Satyricon" of Petronius, and particularly to the "Cena Trimalchionis." Are you fond of detective stories? Then you may read in Latin "The Blood-stained Wall." Are you interested in witchcraft and eerie doings? Then read, some dark night, "The Spell-bound Tomb." You can even get Sherlock Holmes and E. A. Poe and Robinson Crusoe and R. L. Stevenson all translated into Latin. Omar Khayyam has been so translated, and Shakespeare's "Julius Caesar," Gray's "Elegy," and "The Deserted Village."

You think that Latin is remote from actual events? There are Latin magazines published now, as far away as Spain and Holland, that deal with the economic, political and literary situation. Latin has begun to compete vigorously with the newspaper and the monthly magazine. We are familiar with such productions in modern languages, but in Latin this is a new development. In an academic sense, of course, there have been many experiments in Latin. "Paradise Lost" has been translated into Latin on several occasions; the Psalms of David

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have likewise been so treated. Some of the poetry of Keats and such like things have been transmuted into Latin. But now Latin is stepping out into the marketplace, entering into national activities, and commenting on the trend of events. This is done through the medium of the Latin magazine. As Latin was the international tongue of intellectual Europe until the seventeenth century, so it is again resuming its international character. Latin magazines have appeared in New York, in Madrid, in Poland, and in Italy. Some of them are illustrated; others are more placid in appearance. They comment on news, on public personalities; contain book reviews, sketches, short stories. Reaching deeper into the intellectual life of the present day, Latin is thus keeping in close touch with actualities and in a very real sense is thus contributing to international understanding.

You think Latin cannot be spoken? Of course it can, and is, although the essential virtues of the language may be secured without that. Lectures are even now delivered in many European universities in Latin. At the national colleges in Rome, where Greeks and Chinese and Persians and Ethiopians gather together as students, Latin is spoken as the common medium among all these divergent nations. A Chinese student takes up a text of Caesar and reads it through in one evening. An Abyssinian bishop addresses the Pope in Latin. Kemal Pasha introduces the Latin alphabet into Turkey, and already Vergil's "Aeneid" and the shorter poems can be read in Turkish. During the Great War I myself, while in Italy, had to make use of Latin; and it was fairly easy to make the Italian peasants understand what one wanted. Again, during the war, in France, I had a pocket edition of Caesar, and went over some of the ground where Caesar's campaigns had been fought, and where they fought again during the war. There are schools in England where the classes are conducted entirely in Latin, and where the boys attain a good mastery of the language. The recent Latin address by the Pope came like a linguistic trumpet blast. It was one more proof of the vitality and adaptability of the language to modern conditions and ideas. At the International Catholic Conferences men gather from all quarters of the earth and make Latin their common tongue. At Oxford University the Public Orator introduces candidates by a Latin eulogy. In Washington, D. C., at the Dominican House, there is an annual Disputatio Solennis in mediaeval dialectics, carried on in Latin. It is particularly in the ecclesiastical sphere that Latin has retained its pliability. The priest is the direct descendant of the wandering scholar and of the monk who copied out manuscripts in the scriptorium. The Archbishop of York still signs himself "Ebor.", an abbreviation that carries us back to the Latin name of York. At the Vatican Councils bishops of different nationalities assemble and talk extemporaneously in Latin.

And not only in the more academic and scholarly fields is Latin holding its own. It is being reintroduced in unusual places and in novel circumstances. In Rome, at the present day, there is beginning a Renaissance of Latin as a national language. Hotels, barbers' establishments, and stores are budding forth with Latin signs, notices and advertisements. Latin is once again tending to become the language of the Roman plebs. Barbers, accustomed hitherto to French designations, have at last rebelled, and have now adorned their shops with *Comae Barbaeque Tonsor.* One barber, specializing in hair washes, announces: *Officina comis abluendis.* A manicurist displays a sign: *Magister manibus curandis.*

Deferred payments are invited in the phrase, *Subnotatio in mensem.* A hotel keeper, proud of his business, puts up a sign, *Aedes primi ordinis.* Another declares: *Frequentata ab Eminentissimis Cardinalibus et Clarissimis Praelatis.* Another says: *Cubicula cum singulis balneis.* In a restaurant we find the notice: *Amplissima atria pro conviviis* and *Mediocria pretia.*

An ecclesiastical tailor styles himself: *Praebitor Sacri Palati Apostolici.* In a certain bank the notice *Litterae Bancariae* indicates letters of credit. In one restaurant in Rome all the rooms are covered with Latin inscriptions from Horace, Ovid, and Catullus, and even the wine is brought in a genuine Roman amphora.

And with all this more amusing side to it, Latin can be at the same time a powerful intellectual stimulus.

I had once read in school the life of Alexander the Great, by Quintus Curtius, and after some time the text became merged in my memory. When I was in India it all came back to me. I saw some of the relics of Alexander's march into India, and the remains of the cities he had founded. I heard the wild Pathans of Afghanistan tell each other, in their guttural Pushtu tongue that I had studied, old, forgotten tales about Iskander, and how long years ago he came from out the west, marching with his tumultuous mercenaries on to new conquests, cutting through Afghanistan and spreading far down into India. Here was a reality I had little expected. To read, as a school boy, a biography of an old Greek general, dead these many centuries, and then suddenly to come upon tangible evidences of this very man and his conquests! And Latin is full of such adventures.

It is true that you must master the rudiments. But then a Roman boy of your own age had the same thing to do. Horace, the Roman poet and satirist, tells us how painful studying was to him, as his teacher, Orbilius, was fond of using a cane. There is the story of the boy who was given an assignment by his teacher. He could not do it, and sat dejectedly, when all at once a man appeared from nowhere and offered to do the assignment for him if the boy would give him his soul. The boy, of course, had no use for his soul, and willingly surrendered it. In exchange he received the assignment, all perfectly done. But the teacher was suspicious, and questioned the boy, who finally confessed that a man had helped him.

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And of course it was the devil who had helped him. There is a warning in this mediaeval story, and a salutary one. But it is true that the rudiments of Latin caused Roman boys to make mistakes just as boys do nowadays. Aulus Gellius, a grammarian of the first century A. D., collected some of these mistakes, and commented on them. They are mistakes in gender, in number, in conjugations, in the wrong choice of words. In later times, candidates for the priesthood, when examined in their knowledge of Latin, often made ludicrous mistakes. But once you have surmounted such obstacles, you will find things of wonderful interest and immense intellectual importance.

Sometimes you may grow a little weary of Caesar's campaigns, of attacks, counter-attacks; you may even resent the smugness of Cicero's rolling periodic sentences. But that is not all Latin. You need not stop there. You cannot read everything that has been written in Latin, but you ought to know its possibilities, the expansiveness and extent of Latin literature. You may read the adventurous narrative of St. Brendan, the sixth century monk, and the cycle of Arthurian legends, the rollicking Goliardic songs, the dramas of Hrotsvitha, the German nun, Ammianus Marcellinus' despatches from the front as a war correspondent with the emperor Julian; or the weird magical practices of Apuleius; the autobiography of Augustine and his very modern remarks about schools and studies. There is Jordanes' history of Attila the Hun, and Bede's history, full of anecdotes that will appeal to you. Then there are stories of treasures in Paul the Deacon. Liudprand, a mediaeval ambassador, relates his experiences in the cosmopolitan city of Constantinople. You can read in Latin about Leif Ericcson's voyage of discovery to America; Arab fables; the Gesta Romanorum; the adventures of Apollonius, king of Tyre, and how a fisherman rescued him. You have other such stories in the cycle of The Seven Wise Men, and the letters, sketches, and dialogues of Erasmus.

You must not think, however, that Latin is entirely a matter of amusing anecdotes. I have mentioned such things so that you may know that there are such things in Latin. But beyond the merely entertaining things you will find inspiring things that will guide you: examples of heroism not only on the battle field, but in the daily routine of living; wise philosophies garnered from rich human experiences and reflections on life and human activities. Latin, in fact, ultimately becomes more than a language that one learns for its own sake; it is an epitome of a culture that for no small period of time was practically universal in its influence.

HARRY E. WEDECK.

Seward Park High School.

RADIO PROGRAMS ON ART

THE following articles are taken from the series of Radio talks on Art given during the month of March over WNYC by members of the Art Department of the high schools.

SUBJECT—"ART APPRECIATION"
MARCH 1, 1933

MR. FOREST GRANT, Director of Art: This is the first of a series of Art programs which the High School Art Department, in coöperation with the Music Department has planned to put on the air. These broadcasts, approved by Deputy Superintendent Campbell, are made through the courtesy of WNYC and the kindness of Mr. Winfield Rice, Director of Civics. It is hoped that we can give to those listening in a very correct idea of the Art work done in the City high schools. The Art work has changed so radically during the past five or six years that if those who used to be pupils in the old time drawing classes could return to their schools they would be amazed to see the progress that has been made in the teaching and study of Art. In order adequately to cover the ground it has been necessary, of course, to select fields of Art differing widely in character. Tonight we shall speak about the required Art of the High Schools—Art Appreciation.

I wonder if many of you who are listening in have stopped to think about your environment long enough to realize that we are literally surrounded by the products of Art activity. Everything we wear, everything we have in our homes, even the very walls themselves have been designed. Someone has given thought to the making of every object we possess. Its material, its shape, its length, breadth and thickness and the coloring are a few of the things that have been considered by those interested in its manufacture.

It often happens, of course, that much of this material is very poor Art. That is because little thought or a very poor grade of thought has been expended on its design. Much more often, however, the furnishings of our homes, our dress and other material that we own are in poor taste because we are not good choosers.

Fortunately for us, the really up-to-date stores have known this for some time and in order to furnish perfect service are giving their salesmen and saleswomen courses in the appreciation of Art that they may be prepared to give correct advice to customers, who very often have to solve problems that require the keenest discriminating judgment. To be helpful in solving such problems, one must not only have a thorough knowledge of the principles of design, but also a refined and cultivated taste in the choice of materials and color.

The course in Art Appreciation aims to develop the ability on the part of every boy and girl to make the

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right choices between the good and the less good in all forms of Art endeavor. We believe that youth is inherently interested in Art, and that we as educators have enough ingenuity to develop that interest in a manner that will prove most beneficial to the student during his whole life. The fact that there is at present a great wave of Art interest sweeping over our country proves to us that this is a most opportune time to satisfy this interest and thus win for Art many devoted friends.

It is most significant that at last the Art departments of many Women's Clubs have given up the old idea that the way to help Art in America is by amusing their over-amused members with occasional talks by expensive speakers. Instead, under the leadership of Mrs. Howard Green, they are sponsoring a country-wide educational campaign that is stressing the adoption of the study of Art Appreciation in every high school in the country. Such a movement, fostered as a part of the program of all Art Societies, would soon create such a strong demand for an "Art Education for All" that school authorities would feel more than justified in satisfying it.

Now it so happens that there are many, even in the educational world, who do not know what the study of Art from an Art Appreciation standpoint means. I also know from the inquiries I have had from different parts of the country that there are many who want to know how the work is done—what the instruction is like. Unfortunately, we cannot show you over the radio, but after you have listened to the two experts who are to speak tonight you will not only clearly understand why students are enjoying Art study; why they are developing unusual interest in all things artistic; why the training of the consumer of Art is so necessary to the future creators of Art, but you will also feel like doing all you can for the furtherance of similar work in your community.

It is now a great pleasure to introduce to you Miss Helen Hutchinson, Head of the Art Department of the Morris High School.

MISS HUTCHINSON: Now Radio Listeners, come with me to one of our crowded city high schools for girls and boys, just for a short time. The signal for the beginning of a class recitation has sounded and a group of young people have gathered in an Art room, awaiting expectantly the development of another new and interesting project.

To most of these girls and boys this Art period is a bright spot in the school day. To begin with, the Art instructor has made the room a most attractive place. On the walls are finely arranged panels of illustrative material showing how art enters into the many everyday experiences of us all. These exhibits, very frequently changed, and always up-to-date, are a source of great interest to the classes and the object of many a lively discussion. Charming bits of color flash from posters, pictures, pottery and things of beauty which have been borrowed from the Museums, creating an atmosphere which tends to arouse to a greater consciousness the pupils' interest in everything that is fine. The pupils know that the lesson is going to be interesting and instructive, for previous experiences in this room have convinced them that they really are beginning to discover beauty in things about them, of which formerly they were unaware. Take the interesting subject of Civic Art and City Planning which occupied a former lesson after an animated discussion of the new Radio City. These modern buildings became, to the girls and boys, beautiful balanced architectural masses, satisfying in their harmonious repetition of line and rhythm of areas. How eagerly they collected pictures of the skyscrapers here in the city, compared the merits of their designs and as a class project modelled the buildings of the Radio City in soap, grouping them in a setting which, in the opinion of these young people, allowed for a better appreciation of the architectural design than does the present arrangement. The contemplated change in the City Hall Park was discussed with great interest and the pupils encouraged to present, for class study, problems pertaining to the betterment of their own immediate locality. Civic Art is not a fad, it is a serious problem which faces every citizen. We must realize that it is most important that the individual help make his city the ideal and by cultivating in the children a love of beauty and a pride in their city there is a surety that the plans for civic improvement will progress in the right direction in the next generation.

And then the Automobile Show with its beauty contest. How eager the boys were to tell about the latest models with their pronounced stream lines and attractive color schemes! In no time at all, led on by an enthusiastic teacher, the class was all agog to tell how art seemed to be affecting other things in industry—these machine-made things, which for so long a time have been conspicuously ugly. Pictures, thrown on the screen in the classroom, showed the transformation of the bathrooms and the kitchens in our homes, due to the effort of the designers to put grace, charm and color in the common objects of everyday use—these rooms now resplendent in harmonious color schemes, finely decorated walls and floors and beautifully designed accessories. Better design in electrical appliances, finer shapes in modern glassware, silverware and countless other things. These new creations with their deeper satisfaction of good form and graceful line were compared with the older designs and constant judging and selecting encouraged, examples of good and bad mounted in their note-books until the children were able to recognize the art values as well as the practical values of these articles.

Then came the interesting creative problems when the girls and boys, regardless of their ability to draw, sketched many of their own ideas for some of these industrial products, carrying them to completion by helpful class criticisms and attention, always,

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to the principles governing beauty of design. This creative work is of the utmost importance, for art appreciation is not mere knowledge. It is gained best through experience; and by putting their hands to work and following through a problem just as an artist tackles it, these girls and boys will learn by feeling what neither books nor museums can teach. Creative work is the straight gate to appreciation.

I remember the interesting work carried on last year in the art appreciation classes when the spirit of Colonial days was recalled so vividly by the erection of the beautiful buildings reminiscent of Washington's time. What a quantity of fine things in which to interest our girls and boys—the simple beauty and grace of the early architecture of Colonial days, the classical influence in the beautiful molded panelling, cornices and other details in the late American Colonial structures, and then the graceful shapes of the Stiegel glass, the pewter, the characteristic designs in the rugs and counterpanes! The furniture, especially, appealed to the classes after visits had been made to the special buildings erected, so at once a class project centered about that particular phase of Colonial industry. Visits were made to the American Wing of the Metropolitan Art Museum and there the teachers pointed out the various styles originated by the early Colonial cabinet makers and influenced by the work of the English designers.

The class noted the fine design, honest construction, beautiful simplicity and fitness to purpose that the furniture showed so plainly. Then back to the classroom where many pictures of these designs were thrown on the screen, along with modern custom-made furniture designs, some of which were in sharp contrast to the beautiful things they had seen. The class was encouraged to discuss line and proportion, materials and use of ornamentation. Visits were made, this time, to the Van Cortlandt House and the Jumel Mansion, permanent Colonial museums in our city, for further investigations. Note-books were made, showing many types of furniture designs, good and bad, individual comments accompanying each mounted illustration, telling why certain designs were better than others. Original sketches of furniture showing the outstanding merits of Colonial styles and tracings of the charming designs and graceful contours of the old types were made while some classes assembled an illustrated story of Colonial furniture, different groups in the classes contributing certain parts to make an interesting whole. What better way could there be to make our boys and girls conscious of beauty in structural design? They are to be the future buyers of our industrial products and it is of the utmost importance that they be able to distinguish between the thing that is good and that one which is mediocre.

One of the outstanding aims of the Art Appreciation work is to expose the girls and boys constantly to things which are in good taste and to lay a basis for sound judgment which shall

prove, in later years, a valuable working tool. We know that if they learn to appreciate beauty of form and color now, while they are in school, when they grow older they will demand things which are fine and beautiful and do without rather than accept what is commonplace or ugly. In this way we may hope for an art in our industry which is worthy of American ideals.

And so, having learned to see beauty in the everyday things of school, community and home life, the pupils are eager to look beyond their immediate surroundings and to welcome enthusiastically the class talks and the trips to the museums, in which the beauties of the finest achievements in architecture, painting and sculpture, as well as the work of the master craftsmen of all ages, are gradually unfolded to them. They begin to appreciate the qualities which make these treasures beautiful and in a short time they are deriving real enjoyment from a study of fine things, realizing that one measuring stick is used to determine the artistic merits of a creative expression, be the expression a simple vase or a colorful composition for a painting.

The theatre with its great possibilities of artistic expression, the making of fine books, which opens up the delightful subjects of graphic arts and typography, and photography, the new tool in modern commercial illustration, are a few of the topics planned for discussion. Watch the numbers who swarm about the art instructor's desk during the interval between classes. Some are waving pictures they have clipped from newspapers; some have tried out original ideas at home and are eager to show the results; a girl is trying to tell how she liked the modern decoration in the new Roxy Theatre; and there are always a few who must tell you that they spent all the previous Saturday morning at the Art Museum and that they just loved it. No need to worry how these girls and boys will spend their leisure time when they grow older! An understanding and appreciation of some form of art is going to be of lasting satisfaction to a great many of them.

Let me quote, in part, what one of our leading business men has said about the value of art in one's life:

"Art is not a high brow thing or a plaything of the rich. Art is virile, red blooded, of the people, for the people. It is a mighty element for civic improvement and it is a powerful educational factor. It can be made one of the strongest among those agencies which have the power to influence the conception, the attitude, the ways and manners of the people. It teaches people to appreciate the things which are fine and high and inspiring and breeds aversion for those which are vulgar and degrading. Art is actually an investment which yields dividends in dollars and cents."

MR. GRANT: We are now to hear of the Art Appreciation work as it is carried on in a girls' high school. The speaker, Miss Edna Black, is an instructor in the well known Washington Irving High School.

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MISS BLACK: I wish, if there are any grown people listening in tonight, that they might come to some of our Art Appreciation classes in the Washington Irving High School, for it has been my experience that casual adult visitors have been deeply interested in what was going on, have been deeply attentive and have usually lingered to remark, "How I wish I could have had something like this when I went to school." Even our students, who, in true student fashion, take things very much for granted, usually voice their regret when their course is finished. We hope, as Mr. Grant has remarked, that it is at once one of the most practical and cultural courses in the curriculum, touching life at every point, widening horizons, interpreting both the past and the present.

As our students are children when they come to us, I like to base my work on the childhood of man and his Arts. Hence we search out everything we can of primitive man and his avenues of expression. For in less civilized and perhaps happier times man expressed his needs in all the Arts, naturally and freely, decorating his body and weapons, chanting tales of his great prowess, making images of and building temples to his terrible and beneficent gods. Perhaps this was in a way the Garden of Eden from which man has gradually eliminated himself by becoming self-conscious and inhibited, a spectator instead of a participator, a being abashed and scornful before what should represent the soul of him. So taking our youngsters unspoiled and fearless, we like to pretend that we are still savages and that we, too, can make good patterns and drawings if we are not afraid and if we do not try to imitate, for we must realize that our Art is right within us, and we have no need or right to copy the expression of some one else, for ours may be as good as his, and it is ours.

Then, and then only, do we compare and talk about our productions and from the statements given formulate rules and test them out in all sorts of ways, for if they are good rules they will prove universal and we can apply them to the measuring of all sorts of things or to any problem which confronts us. For certain lines and colors and shapes have an affinity, belong together, and express certain things. And thus a girl may analyze herself as to coloring, line and type and plan her wardrobe accordingly, eliminating waste and chance. In another term we take up our homes or the homes we hope to have, and build up a logical plan of attack which could be utilized in any situation in which we might find ourselves. For our homes reveal us to others and we all wish to be revealed in the best light and to learn that a problem solved as to convenience, comfort and utility may also spell beauty.

Through all this and related to it, we also discuss architecture and the Fine Arts and we discover that each people or age inevitably expresses itself in lines and shapes which betray its soul or temper to those who read the signs aright. As the straight lines and flat surfaces of Egypt signify inertia and a magnificent contempt for time, and the logic and genius of the mind of ancient Greece is revealed in the flawlessness of the Greek architecture, so looking about us we may also interpret the beauty and majesty of our great structures as a symbol of the soul of the time which produces them.

And on our walks about the city, if our eyes are opened, we may see bits of ancient Greece and Rome or the Orient, and we are able to judge for ourselves whether it is a fitting part of the structure; adding to and enriching the design or serving no purpose cheapens and detracts, and then we know it to be false. We like to know why our little City Hall, a tiny jewel among its great neighbors, has been decided by the unanimous consent of our architects to be the finest public building of all the great public buildings of our City; and of the monuments in the adjacent park, to observe two famous statues and to decide why one is good and one is poor.

We discuss new additions of Art objects in our school and vicinity, window decorations and advertising, and we note that our simple rules faithfully applied still hold of one idea of theme and everything relating to that idea of variety, of simplicity, for these rules are universal.

In touching the painting and sculpture of various countries, we note that these Arts flourish best when they figure most in the lives of the people, as in Florence, when each and every citizen was a competent art critic and where the workshop of the artist was always open to the public; or earlier in Sina, when the painting of a new Madonna was an occasion for public rejoicing and a holiday; and we conclude that artists must have the incentive of public understanding to reach their highest level of accomplishment and that we, too, in time to come, will be judged, not for our material achievements, but by the standard of Art we leave behind us, for as some poet has succinctly remarked:

"All passes, art alone
Enduring stays to us;
The bust outlasts the throne,
The coin Tiberius."

MR. GRANT: You have just heard Miss Helen Hutchinson of the Art Department of Morris High School, and Miss Edna Black of the Art Department of the Washington Irving High School, speak of the Art Appreciation work done in the New York City high schools. I have no doubt many of you would like to join these classes and I am sorry that you cannot do so. However, we all want you to know that it is never too late to study Art from the standpoint of Appreciation. Personally, I want you to know that what these young women have said applies to practically all of the high schools in New York City. In each one the students are following this work with enthusiasm.

Next week we speak of "Art for Boys."

SUBJECT—"ART FOR BOYS"
(March 8, 1933)

MR. GRANT: In general it may be said that the educational work in Art in New York aims to give every boy

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in the elementary, junior and senior high schools a chance to develop a happy and wholesome interest in and a broad understanding of many kinds of art endeavor. The talented boy is given the additional opportunity to study intensively that particular phase of Art in which he is especially interested. For these students there are offered in the different high schools major courses in freehand drawing, design, color study, costume design, costume illustration, interior decoration, craft work, stage design and commercial design.

Girls find great interest in many of these advanced subjects, but in the past these subjects have not appealed so strongly to boys of high school age. Boys have been inclined to regard good taste as something that belongs to girls. We are glad to say that that day has gone. Now good taste and a sound art judgment are considered a financial asset to any young man and particularly so to those who are just entering business. Ordinary common sense assures all that the boy with a broad knowledge of color and a deep appreciation of good design is of much more value as a salesman than one who is sure to confuse buyers with advice not based on art understanding. The real worth of so much of the manufactured products today depends on its Art that boys (with keen eyes upon future success) are now looking to the Art Department for help because they realize that in no other place can they find the reliable information that they need.

Not long ago a well-groomed young man who left his high school course at the end of his first year assured me that if he could only return to the High School of Commerce and take the color work given there he could triple his salary as a salesman.

The two advanced subjects that appeal most strongly and that have in them the content for the development of Art judgment that is most valuable to boys are stage design and commercial design.

In considering the first of these topics, I hope that you will note the number of Art subjects that must be considered by the student during the course of his study. Everything in Art that we want a business man to understand is studied intensively and with an interest that makes teaching most delightful.

It is a very great pleasure to introduce to you Miss Virginia Murphy, Chairman of the Art Department of the Erasmus Hall High School, who will discuss with one of the young men from this Flatbush institution, the value of the course in stage design as given in that school.

MISS MURPHY: The Art departments of the high schools of New York City offer an excellent opportunity to boys to experiment with this most fascinating, most composite of the arts. The purpose of the Stage Design Course is not to train students to enter the profession upon graduation, though some may be interested to study further, but to give the boy his best chance for a real education.

One of the boys from my school, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, has a few questions to ask about the course in stage design. This student, Gerald Charm, is in another art course, but I have found him intently watching the marionette class from the door, and I shall take this opportunity to answer some of the questions he and the other boys are constantly asking.

STUDENT: Miss Murphy, if this course in Stage Design doesn't lead directly to a job, why do so many of the boys want to take it?

MISS MURPHY: Because there is a universal appeal in watching a "show," from the most finished drama on the stage to the simplest demonstration in a drugstore window. It's a common instinct, everyone likes showmanship. There is only one instinct that is stronger, and that is the desire to go behind the scenes to see how it is done.

Therein lies the real reason for the interest in a stage design class. The boys are not merely looking on behind the scenes, they are creating those scenes, lighting them, and eagerly checking the effect of each change upon the audience. They exchange places constantly, being audience, scene designer, actor or electrician by turns. Through this constant shifting they learn the requirements of each phase of the work and the interdependence of the varied arts of the theatre, one upon the other. It is a real coöperative job, and the success of the play depends upon the sincerity and high standards of each student workman and the coöperation of the group.

STUDENT: Do the boys receive credit for the course, or is there some special inducement for it?

MISS MURPHY: The usual credit is given, but it is not necessary to induce boys to take a course in Stage Design. Only give them the opportunity, time on the program, a place to work, and a competent teacher, and there will be no cutting in that class. There will be no discipline problem except to get the boys to stop in order to reach the next recitation in time.

STUDENT: Does a fellow have to have special talent to get into those classes?

MISS MURPHY: In such a group there is a place for every boy, for the work calls for pure imagination in creating new visual interpretations of a play, at the same time demanding such practical things as working drawings, carpentry and experiments with color lighting.

I have met many boys of varied interests and abilities, but I've never known the boy who could not be reached and interested through participation in Stage Design.

STUDENT: Is most of the work drawing and painting?

MISS MURPHY: No, it calls first for good common sense, then it touches, in one way or another, most of the subjects in the curriculum. First, we must select or write a play. This calls for careful study of fine dramatic literature and involves the reading of many plans, not the im-

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mediate selection of a second rate "Broadway success". The fact that settings and costumes must be designed for it adds greatly to the interest of the reading and the critical analysis of the script. The students, the costumes, and the lighting must be studied to find their function in intensifying and vitalizing the mood and the characterizations of the play. The situation may take place in a different country and a different civilization. This means checking up on the history of the period, and the social life and customs of that time. Quite different, isn't it, from learning a list of dates and happenings of a time that seems dead and remote.

STUDENT: Yes, I'd like that better.

MISS MURPHY: Now through the living incidents of the play, the whole civilization comes to life; and so seems worth knowing about. To design settings and costumes, there must be a careful study of the architecture of the time, the typical furnishings and customs of the people.

STUDENT: Can the boys get these facts in the Encyclopedia?

MISS MURPHY: They can get the facts but not the spirit. The full information must be gathered, then carefully selected for the most appropriate and typical, and, finally, so intelligently organized that the student realizes the essentials of the situation, and through the settings and costumes he expresses the very essence of the Egyptian, the Persian, or the Modern, as the case may be.

Costumes, settings and lighting are more than mere trappings of the play. They give the audience a much easier and fuller transition to the situation than could otherwise be had.

If the French Revolution lives vividly for a boy through the play he is designing for, he will eagerly read more history in order to give these new adventures he has met a past and a future. If he discovers how he can change the whole mood of a scene by his light and colored gelatine screens, his physics laboratory will be a more fascinating place, for he finds there a practical opportunity for his study.

STUDENT: I would like physics experiments better if I could work with lights, trying different colors and effects with new angles.

MISS MURPHY: Yes, I think you would like it. How do you like elocution?

STUDENT: Not much. Do you have to take more of that?

MISS MURPHY: Well, the speech is not merely reading dull selections. You would like it because it is an important way of expressing character or of getting the play over to the audience. The boys enjoy then the routine of voice training and expressive speech. It has a new value and a new interest.

STUDENT: Have any of the fellows done anything with stage design after leaving school?

MISS MURPHY: Yes. Many of the boys in these classes have acted in and have directed plays given by their church societies or by clubs. Others have designed the settings and the costumes for similar amateur dramatics. They have enjoyed the experience and have raised the standard of performance in these plays. Some other students who became interested in the arts of the theatre through their art classes in high school later studied stage design professionally, some at Yale, some at other schools of the theatre. One is now the director of a Little Theatre, another is a scene designer in New York, while others have become interested in acting and are now professionals.

STUDENT: Could a boy make a small stage at home to experiment with?

MISS MURPHY: Yes. I recall now one of my former students who became interested in the theatre through his art class in high school. He has a Little Theatre Museum in his own small room. The models are carefully constructed from pieces of cardboard and paper ingeniously contrived to make marble columns, flights of steps or throne chairs. A typical scene in a play is represented in each of the half dozen models he has made. These are lighted carefully with Christmas tree bulbs and flashlights. The figures in these small acts are made of bits of wire and cloth, posed in expressive attitudes. He changes his theatre exhibits frequently, substituting new models for old ones as he becomes interested in new plays or in new ways of expressing the old. He can tell you all about the theatres of New York City; which have revolving stages and how they were used advantageously in recent plays; which plays have been well designed and lighted and which ones were commonplace.

STUDENT: That sounds interesting. I think I could do that. Are there any other things a fellow could do at home?

MISS MURPHY: Yes. Other boys I know have become interested in marionettes, those clever wooden actors who are just as powerful in their interpretation as is the mind of their creators, but no more so; just as expressive as their manipulators, but are lifeless and wooden if there is no creative imagination behind the scenes. Marionettes are fascinating as a hobby because they are comparatively inexpensive, yet offer such infinite possibilities. The character of the puppet or marionette is created through the expressive modelling of the head and the construction and costuming of the figure. The very limitation of utmost simplicity stimulates the imagination in creating the scenery and planning the lighting. Little plays and skits that will prove educational to the members and entertaining to others as well may be produced by even a small group.

STUDENT: Miss Murphy, do you think it better for students to buy the ready-made marionettes that are sold in some of the shops now or make their own?

MISS MURPHY: It is far better for the boys to create their own marionettes. There is the real joy of creation and the opportunity to express one's own ideas concretely. It is not so expensive and the making calls for ingenuity and gives a far greater de-

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gree of satisfaction when completed. In an ordinary classroom with no work-shop equipment at all, merely a couple of hammers, a saw, a borrowed vise and some wood, a group of our boys has constructed a very sturdy marionette stage used for their own experiments and to produce plays for the entertainment of their fellow students. They have worked out the electric wiring, constructed the switchboard and have given some very excellent programs. Dr. Low, our Principal at Erasmus Hall, has always given these students the greatest encouragement in their work. They watch eagerly for him in the audience. In fact, to tell you a secret, they are planning to put him in as one of the characters in their next play.

STUDENT: I surely want to see that play. Miss Murphy, would this course be any good for the boys who are going into business or maybe into the professions of, say, law or medicine?

MISS MURPHY: Oh, yes, though a few may develop professionally, stage design offers a clean, wholesome and fascinating hobby or avocation for any boy. From the serious statements of economists, it is evident the leisure time will be greatly increased in the very near future and the profitable use of this time will be of as much concern to everyone as the necessity of making a living. Marionettes may be made and operated by an individual for his own information and amusement, by a small club or by neighborhood friends, or by a large group coöperating.

The making of stage models or of marionettes gives a new zest to living, gives an incentive to further study and experimentation, develops intelligent thinking. In fact, it provides what is generally understood to be the basis for a real liberal education.

STUDENT: Will you tell me again, what you consider the special advantages of Stage Design as a high school course?

MISS MURPHY: To enumerate again the real values of stage design as a course in high school:

1. It raises the standard of appreciation of the various arts of the theatre through the understanding it gives. It developes in the student a more discriminating taste in the selection of his entertainment.

2. It provides a general purposeful education in art, history, science, speech, and so forth, by the breadth and integration of knowledge called for in the practical problems of stage designing.

3. It provides an opportunity for creative expression by furnishing an absorbing and worthy hobby with its many possible adaptations to particular interests and tastes.

4. It gives a stimulus to coöperative creative effort which in itself has real social value.

5. It provides an introduction to the arts of the theatre for those students who may wish to continue their studies professionally.

STUDENT: Thank you, Miss Murphy. I think I understand it better and I am going to watch for that play with Dr. Low as one of the marionettes.

MISS MURPHY: In conclusion, then, there is a place for everyone in such a course—for those who will always be audience, so they may enjoy plays and movies the more; for those who have the creative joy of taking part in plays, making stage models or marionettes as a hobby; and of course for those who may find the theatre absorbing enough to follow as a life profession.

MR. GRANT: We are now to consider the course in Commercial Design that is open to the boys of New York City. We have two high schools devoted wholly to Commercial Education for Boys; in Brooklyn, the Alexander Hamilton, over which Mr. Gilbert Raynor presides as Principal, and the High School of Commerce, in Manhattan, of which Dr. Edward J. McNamara is Principal.

Unfortunately, time does not permit hearing from both of these institutions at this time. The Art Department in each school has its individuality well marked. The aim of the instruction in both of these departments is to give the boys entering them a thorough understanding of Art that will benefit them in their future lives as business men. If they are talented and desire to follow commercial art as a vocation, then the aim is a sure art foundation on which to build.

I hope that there are many boys of our elementary and junior high schools who are listening in tonight because I am sure you are very fortunate in being able to have Mr. Raymond Carter, Head of the Art Department of the High School of Commerce, make clear to you the aim and scope of the Commercial Design courses open to the boys of New York City.

Mr. Carter, will you give us an idea of the course in Commercial Art that is given at the High School of Commerce?

MR. CARTER: Certainly, Mr. Grant. As you have already explained, the two high schools, Alexander Hamilton and the High School of Commerce, give a broad, general training to prepare lads for the world of business. The courses in Art are planned accordingly and have a distinctly commercial slant.

Our work in Art at the High School of Commerce is two-fold in its purpose:

First, we have a general course which all the lads are required to take. We make this as broad as possible and as practical as we can. During the first and second years of high school work we teach Art Appreciation, with emphasis on the performance of problems that bear directly upon their business training: projects in simple lettering, the planning of placards and advertisements, the effective use of color in display work, posters, package covers, a general study of the principles of design and

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its application to industry. We top this all during the second term of the second year with a rapid study of the History of the Fine Arts, Painting, Architecture and Sculpture and the application of Fine Art principles to the Art of the Marketplace—Industry and Advertising. We believe that the Art principles which govern the design of a piece of sculpture apply equally well to the designing of an automobile, a weighing machine or a modern building.

Our constant effort is to awaken in these embryo business men the realization of the importance of good Art in the manufacture of everyday articles, and in their advertising. This power of discrimination between the good and the bad in design, if impressed upon the younger generation, will be a powerful factor in making the great majority of Americans Art conscious.

So much for the required course. All boys take it—two periods a week for two years. They thrive upon it and enjoy it, and it is presented in an interesting, wide-awake way by a corps of enthusiastic instructors.

Now let us consider the cream of our work, our elective course in Commercial Art, which starts at the beginning of our second year and goes along for three years, right up to graduation, with one period of classroom work each day, five days a week, with required outside work to supplement the work in school.

This special course is open to talented pupils who have shown their aptitude during their first year of prescribed work, and it is also open to pupils who enter our second year directly from Junior High School with good records in Art.

Let me say right here, however, that we prefer to work with lads who come direct to us from 8B; then we can give them the benefit of our required work during their first year with us and fit them better to start the elective work in their second year.

This elective course delves into the various phases of Commercial Art rather intensively, to develop a foundation of technical skill for the field of advertising design. We also provide a basis for later and more diversified training in Art Schools. In fact, many of our boys attend evening classes in various Art schools in the City.

In order to give you a better close-up of the work we are trying to accomplish, we have brought along one of our lads, one who is in his last term of Elective Art and who will graduate in June. For the sake of brevity, I'll call him Bill.

First of all, will you tell us, Bill, why you decided to come to the High School of Commerce, almost four years ago?

BILL: Well, I've always been interested in drawing and I know several older fellows in the advertising field. Some of them got their start in the High School of Commerce and I acted on their advice when I graduated from P. S. 51, Manhattan, and made tracks for Commerce. I guess I was just like any other average kid

in my first year, managed to get by all right and went into the Elective Course in Art in my third term, that is, the beginning of my second year.

MR. CARTER: Can you remember what you took up first?

BILL: It seems a long time ago, but I'll try to remember. It was Design, the general principles of rhythm, balance, harmony, dominance and all the rest, especially as applied to borders, repeat patterns, dark and light in pictures, and the planning of various articles that were pleasing to the eye. I remember one design I had a lot of fun in making, a design for a radio cabinet.

MR. CARTER: Pretty good memory you have, Bill. Now what about your fourth term, the second term of your Elective work?

BILL: I was given freehand drawing, simple objects in outline and light and shade, all sorts of animal and plant forms, and all with the idea of rendering these objects in a commercial manner, that is, in a strong, simple way, so that they could be used in advertising design.

MR. CARTER: And what did you take up in the fifth term, the beginning of your second year in Elective Art?

BILL: A mighty tough course in lettering, covering the Classic Roman and the various modern alphabets derived from it. I had always been afraid of lettering before I found how very interesting it was and how much it is used by commercial designers.

By the end of the term I could handle several styles of lettering and had made quite a collection of examples of the various families of type used in printing, especially those most easy to read and best to use in advertising. I applied what I had learned in laying out posters and letterheads and for various other uses.

MR. CARTER: And what did you do all along to make this a matter of record? Did you save professional examples of work?

BILL: Oh yes, I started by using a desk drawer at home. I saved all sorts of clippings from papers and magazines and I carried a scratch pad in my pocket to jot down things that I saw and ideas that came to me. Before long, I picked up an old filing cabinet and classified my clippings in envelopes for easy reference. You never know, in advertising design, when you'll need a Sphinx or a polar bear or a good head of Lincoln or Napoleon. It pays to save 'em all.

MR. CARTER: What was your next step, in the sixth term?

BILL: I took up various techniques, pen and ink wash, and learned about drawing for reproduction. I clipped out the work of various commercial artists and studied their methods. I found out about line engravings, half-tones, rotogravure and lithography, the processes that an artist should understand if he wants his work to reproduce well.

MR. CARTER: And in the first term of your last year, your seventh term, what was the phase of Commercial Art that you took up?

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BILL: Work in color. I studied the various ways that colors produce effects, contrasting colors, color harmonies, and so on. We took small spotlights and made cross illuminations in colored lights and studied the effects. We applied these to the color-schemes for posters, booklet covers and book-jackets, and to covers for cartons and containers.

MR. CARTER: And now you're in the eighth term, your last term in the High School of Commerce. What are you studying now?

BILL: The eighth term work ties up everything that I've had so far. We go into the various applications of Commercial Art—counter displays, window displays, car advertising, outdoor posters, booklets, newspaper and magazine advertising, with the emphasis on visualization, that is, the creating of ideas.

There are about twenty-five of us in the class and each fellow has chosen a different article and is now working out a complete advertising campaign. We don't take articles already on the market; we invent our own—trademark names and all. One lad has invented a fictitious line of flavoring extracts, another has a new automobile tire. I've chosen as my subject a steamship line going to Mediterranean ports, and I'm now working out a complete campaign of advertising, folders, posters, booklets, newspaper and magazine advertisements and I'm surely kept busy looking up material. During the last weeks of the term I'll cut the plates for my booklet covers in linoleum, for one, two and three color printing and make prints on a hand-press, to get some practical knowledge of color printing.

MR. CARTER: What other work have you taken to supplement your Art training?

BILL: Last term I took a course in general advertising which is open to all lads in the upper classes, whether they have taken Elective Art or not. We studied typography, how to create ideas, how to write headlines and good copy, how to make attractive layouts for newspapers and magazines, and the various departments of advertising agency work; we also studied radio advertising.

It was great sport planning original radio programs, since every fellow had to write his own continuity and make the announcements before the class in the most approved manner. If you think it is easy to announce before a class and with an instructor who watches for every slip, try and do it!

MR. CARTER: Well, Bill, you've certainly given us a clear idea of what you've been through. Now just a word about the Art Service Squad in our school.

BILL: The Art Service is made up of a number of lads who meet every day during the last period to handle the publicity work of the school: posters advertising various activities, charts and graphs for various departments. I'ts just like an Art Service or an Advertising Agency in actual operation. Work is almost always done under pressure (everyone wants the stuff immediately), but the fellows get a great lot of practice.

Everything is done to help the fellows who go in for Art. Our principal, Dr. McNamara, has a warm spot in his heart for the Art work and all the fellows appreciate it and coöperate to the best of their ability.

MR. CARTER: Thank you, Bill! Bill's real name, by the way, is Leonard Putger.

We wish you success when you graduate in June. Don't expect too much at first in the way of a job. Our Placement Bureau at Commerce keeps in touch with the opportunities in the field of Advertising and so do all the members of the department. You're young and strong and ambitious; so keep on studying after you leave us and you'll go far. You realize that we've only been able to hit the high spots, but we've tried to impress upon you the fact that beauty is a vital factor in the creation of all articles that men buy and sell, and that the advertising of these articles must be done with taste and with good creative ideas back of them. We've tried to start you on your way to your ambition—to become a good commercial artist and an honest advertising man, in whatever capacity your future may lead you in the fields of commercial, industrial or graphic arts. It's a real privilege to know you and to work with you and with scores of others like you.

On your way, then, with our best wishes, and remember you are part of a profession that has the power to uplift public taste. Everyone sees the Art of the Marketplace; no one can avoid it. Help to make it better. You can do it.

ON WHAT BASIS SHALL WE SEGREGATE PUPILS IN ALGEBRA?

THE publication of a modified course in elementary algebra in the January number of HIGH POINTS brings to the fore again the need for making provision for the variation in the ability of our pupils in high school mathematics. Our theory of democracy in education has resolved itself today into one of offering equal opportunities to all rather than of giving the same work to all. However, this is still a theory. It is not necessary for the educational theorists to tell us what ought to be done for our weaker pupils. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. The classroom teachers know what must be done—the teachers who, throughout the country, are struggling with the heterogeneous groups in which ability ranges from the extremely bright pupil who can get along without a

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teacher to the one who cannot master even the simplest elements of the course of study.

The natural question that arises asks how the pupils are to be selected for whom the normal course is unsuited. The answer to this question is found in the studies by educators who have attempted to solve the problem. It is not sufficient for a teacher to express an opinion. One must depend upon those who have devoted a great deal of time to the problem.

To one who is acquainted with the literature on the subject it is ridiculous to see grouping in algebra based on an intelligence test. A number of studies have been made concerning the relationship between intelligence and achievement in algebra. A. R. Crathorne[1] reports a correlation of .50 between algebra marks and an average of two intelligence tests. B. R Buckingham[2] tells of a correlation of .38 between algebra ratings and the score on the Army Alpha Test. W. A. Proctor[3] reports a correlation of .46 between algebra marks and the Stanford Binet I. Q. E. L. Thorndike[4] . reports correlations ranging from .47 to .53 between the algebra part in his intelligence test for high school graduates and the whole examination. Fowler D. Brooks[5] reports eight correlations ranging from .34 to .54 between algebra marks and an intelligence test. Gertrude G. Todd[6] reports a correlation of .39 between marks in algebra and scores on the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability. In his own study the writer obtained a correlation of .54 between scores on the Otis Self-Administering Test and algebra marks at the end of one term.

While coefficients of correlation give a general picture of the relationship between intelligence and achievement in algebra, there is no doubt that they are far from satisfactory in giving full meaning to the situation that is being studied. The writer has found the following figures much more meaningful. Several terms ago he segregated the lowest twenty per cent and the highest twenty per cent of a group beginning the study of algebra on the basis of the Orleans Algebra Prognosis Test into separate classes for purposes of instruction. The marks recorded for the pupils at the end of the term justified the basis of segregation beyond a doubt. The range of I.Q.'s in the slow class was 71 to 123 and in the bright class 95 to 131. The mean I.Q.'s were 103.53 and 118.82 respectively. This being the case, it is much more important to study the records of individual pupils as they appear in the following table[7]:

I. Q.	Mark in Algebra	I. Q.	Mark in Algebra
108	65	116	65
118	65	116	65
110	90	116	70
111	65	113	90
110	65	113	85
107	45	117	65
121	75	106	40
106	50	94	85
93	20	106	50
105	85	97	65
108	40	119	90
83	65	112	65
107	55	107	35
112	50	90	75
114	50	98	65
112	20	98	85
100	65	94	75
113	50	109	65
113	55	111	65
110	50	112	55
110	45	107	50
98	55	100	50
109	55	108	30
104	55	109	30
110	85	117	70
122	40	110	55
105	55	104	45
88	65	102	30
107	55	119	50
111	55	110	55
107	50	101	55
122	55	109	55
108	55	107	55
109	45	112	55
104	55	108	55
101	55	101	40
102	55	105	45
107	20	109	40
100	50	104	55
107	50		

It seems that the chances of passing algebra in accordance with our present standards are few for those boys and girls whose I.Q. is below 90, and only slightly better for those whose I.Q. is between 90 and 100. However, if the I.Q. is to be used as the basis for barring pupils from the study of algebra or for segregating them into slow classes, how can the injustice be avoided in the cases of those pupils who evidently are able to do the work? And what should be done for those pupils with I.Q. between 100 and 110 who fail in algebra?

The question is constantly asked as to why prognosis of success in algebra cannot be based upon the child's preparation in arithmetic. In his study the writer assumes that the pupil's elementary school rating in arithmetic at the end of the eighth year is an index of his preparation in the subject. Each child is given a double rating in arithmetic, e.g., A A or A B or C B, etc., one for mechanical computation and the other for problems. The writer changed these ratings into numerical equivalents by assigning a value of 5 for an A, 4 for a B+, 3 for a B, 2 for a C and 1 for a D. A mark of A A was, therefore, equivalent to 10, B B+ to 7, etc. He then computed the coeffi-

[1] Crathorne, A. R.: "The Theory of Correlation Applied to School Grades." *National Committee Report.* 1923.

[2] Buckingham, B. R.: "Mathematical Ability As Related to Intelligence." *School Science and Mathematics.* XXI, 205-215.

[3] Proctor, W. A.: "Psychological Tests and Guidance of High School Pupils." *Journal of Educational Research.* Monograph No. 1, 1921.

[4] Thorndike, E. L.: "Abilities Involved in Algebraic Computation and in Problem Solving." *School and Society.* XV, 191-193.

[5] Brooks, Fowler D.: "The Psychology of Adolescence." Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929.

[6] Todd, Gertrude G.: *Bulletin, Department of Secondary School Principals.* 24; 74-76. January, 1929.

[7] The names and records of the pupils are in the possession of the writer.

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cients of correlation between these numerical equivalents and the teacher's marks in algebra at the end of the term and found them to be in four groups: .49, .48, .48, .33. The number of cases were 211, 54, 76, and 247, respectively.

It seemed possible that a different assignment of values to the literal ratings in arithmetic might have produced other coefficients of correlation. And so the distribution was made of the percentage of each combination of literal ratings that appeared in the group which contained 247 cases, and the $\frac{x}{sigma}$ values were computed from the table of areas of the normal probability curve in terms of the deviates from the mean. The correlation between these $\frac{x}{sigma}$ scores and the algebra marks at the end of the term was again found to be only .33.

A study of the records of individual pupils again brings out cases similar to those seen in the study of the I. Q.'s[8].

Arithmetic Mark	*Algebra Mark*	*Arithmetic Mark*	*Algebra Mark*
10	65	6	90
5	80	6	90
5	85	10	45
6	85	10	70
8	40	10	65
4	70	10	55
2	65	8	40
8	20	6	85
5	80	10	65
8	50	8	30
9	40	10	70
8	50	10	65
8	65	4	70
10	70	10	65
10	45	10	55
9	55	7	45

In his own study the writer included in his prognosis test several questions on arithmetic. He found a correlation of .27 between the scores on this arithmetic part and the marks in algebra at the end of the term. Since the scores on any arithmetic test based upon the content of the standard course of study represent a measure of the same abilities as the elementary school marks in arithmetic, it is fair to conclude that scores in an arithmetic test as a basis for grouping are as insufficient as the I. Q.

The purpose of this article is to state the case for a test of specific ability. C. L. Hull[9] distinguishes between tests that are designed to detect specific or particular aptitudes and those designed to detect general or average aptitudes. The former are exemplified by Patten's test for capacity to learn to operate the engine lathe or the Orleans-Solomon Latin Prognosis Test; the latter by the Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Tests and also the numerous intelligence tests. In reality, these are essentially tests of general or average scholastic aptitude as contrasted with tests for specific scholastic aptitude, which are necessary in our present elective system. The use of a specific prognosis test in a particular subject is based upon the belief that we have a large number of more or less specialized potential aptitudes or intelligences. A general intelligence test could be nothing but a kind of average of all potential aptitudes for any given person. On the other hand, the work in a school subject is very specific. In Latin, for example, it is entirely verbal and involves no numerical or spatial elements, and the verbalness is of a particular kind with its own organization. Algebra, however, is chiefly numerical, but of a symbolic type which makes it different from the languages and even from geometry, which is spatial rather than numerical and which involves a different type of symbolism.

The prognosis tests used by the writer are ability tests in the sense that they measure the pupil's ability to do the type of work to be learned in the way in which it is to be learned. The pupil is given a little algebra in miniature, before he has received any instruction at all in the subject, and the purpose is to see if the pupil's success in a period of between eighty and ninety minutes will prognosticate success over a period of five months. An algebra test of this sort should take into account those factors that influence success in algebra achievement, namely, ability to handle algebra situations such as the pupil meets in the algebra class and mastery of such prerequisites as essentials of arithmetic and reading with comprehension.

What factors are involved in a pupil's ability to cope with algebraic situations? T. Percy Nunn[10] lists four important elements in the study of algebra as "analysis, the direct use of symbolism, the extended use of symbolism and the manipulation of symbolism". Concerning analysis he says, "A small boy has learnt that the area of a figure is the number of unit squares (say, square inches) which would entirely cover it. With this definition before him, he is asked to determine the area of a rectangle measuring seven inches by five. He soon observes that the unit squares into which the figure is mapped out can be regarded as forming five rows, each containing seven squares. This observation enables him to shorten the process of finding the area, or 35 square inches. So far arithmetic. But let the boy's attention shift from the actual manipulation of the figures to the process which the manipulation follows, and let him observe that the essence of that process is the multiplication of the length of the rectangle by the breadth. At this moment he has crossed the frontier which separates arithmetic from algebra; for it is an important part of the business of algebra to disengage the essential feature of an arithmetic process of given type from the numerical setting which a particular case presents." A great deal of the work done in the algebra class is of the sort described here, whether it be the translation of

[8] The names and records of these pupils are in the possession of the writer.

[9] Hull, Clark L.: "Aptitude Testing." World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y. 1928.

[10] T. Percy Nunn: "The Teaching of Algebra Including Trigonometry." Longmans Green and Company. 1919.

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phrases into algebraic shorthand or of word problems into algebraic equations. In order to do this, one must have a sufficient command of the necessary symbolism; and in order to grasp the various topics that make up the content of the algebra course, one must have a facility in manipulating the symbols.

In order to acquire the broader abilities which a study of algebra seeks to establish and to improve, the pupil must first master a number of details, some of which are (1) the notion that letters are used to represent numbers, (2) the substitution of numbers for letters, (3) the meaning and the use of the exponent, (4) the understanding and the use of directed numbers and (5) the translation into algebraic symbols of simple English phrases and statements. The writer's experience of twenty years in the teaching of algebra leads him to feel that an aptitude test of the sort used in this study should present the pupil with a larger number of simple abilities rather than a few broader ones to which he may not do justice in the few minutes allowed for each part of the test. If the pupil shows that he is able to master the tasks set because he has the abilities, the rest depends upon the learning process which, in turn, is closely linked with the method of presentation by the teacher. In order that these abilities may be discovered, the simplest thing seems to be to submit to the pupil some material in very elementary form which utilizes the learning process. For example, early in the year the teacher of algebra finds it necessary to teach his pupils the meaning of various English expressions needed in the solution of problems, such as "one number exceeds another", "the excess of one number over another", "the difference between two numbers", "one number is greater than another by a certain amount". He explains and illustrates the meanings of these terms and continues with a short effective drill. He also refers the class to the text-book and assigns the lesson to be done during the study period in school or at home. In doing the assignment the pupil goes through the same process again of studying an explanation and illustrations thereof and then working out some exercises based on them. A test composed of brief lessons and exercises following the same plan, therefore, is the instrument that calls for work most similar to that which the pupil will be expected to do throughout the year. The test used by the writer was of this sort[11]; and the records of individual pupils over a period of six years have proved that the test may be used without any hesitation in guiding pupils in the matter of the study of algebra.

If guidance is to be practiced with justice to the boys and girls concerned, then we must use that criterion which allows for the smallest percentage of error. There is no doubt in the minds of those who have devoted themselves to the problem that intelligence tests alone and arithmetic marks alone should not be used as a basis for ability grouping in algebra. To quote from an article by Professor Percival Symonds of Columbia University, who is one of the foremost leaders in the field:[12] "It may be of interest to learn that tests are now available which can be used as fairly accurate predictions of success in such subjects as algebra, geometry, Latin and modern languages. For prediction purposes in separate subjects these tests are more accurate than intelligence tests. Many teachers will wish to use these tests for guidance, for sectioning and for becoming acquainted early in the year with the pupil's capacity to learn particular subjects."

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[11] "The Orleans Algebra Prognosis Test." World Book Company, Yonkers, N Y. 1928.

[12] Symonds, Percival M.: "A Testing Program for the High School." *School Review*. February, 1932.

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLUB

Clubs as Aid in Language Teaching

The foreign language club is a well-established feature in foreign language teaching in schools of all grades offering such courses. Their educational value as a progressive auxiliary is recognized not only in the junior and senior high schools, but also in colleges and universities. Writers on the methodology of foreign language instruction approve such student organizations as a supplement to the work done in the classroom, and wherever schools have had experience with this extra-curricular activity, it has their pragmatic sanction.

Clubs as the Arena of Pupil Activity

At best, pupil activity, such a major educational desideratum according to best thought in this field, is narrowly circumscribed in the classroom by circumstances inherent in its formal nature. That this limitation increases in direct proportion to the size of the class is a common experience of all teachers. Especially is this true of any and all activity originating in pupil initiative. Neither time nor the demands of a set and fixed curriculum will allow experimental groping by pupils. If student initiative is to have a spontaneous character, there should be as little pulling of the strings behind the curtain by the teacher as possible. But in class the pupils and their work must be held very definitely to a prescribed course. This naturally makes for absolute teacher-direction in addition to supervision.

The club, however, is free from all

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these restrictions on genuine pupil initiative and activity. It is the natural arena where pupil activity may disport itself to the fullest extent. I use the word "disport" advisedly, because in this self-activity there should be real joy and pleasure for the student participants. With pupil self-expression as a direct reaction to the foreign language stimuli for the aim of the club, what a wide range for student activity it opens up! Anything, with no exception almost, related to the field of the foreign language studied is proper material for the club's program. Here is the place where individual differences can be given full rein, without any semblance of disorganization resulting. On the contrary, the variety will contribute richness and fullness to the work. There will be a healthful heterogeneity in which each personality can assert itself and develop.

Faculty Supervision

Under the supervision of a teacher who can guide without directing too insistently, such clubs must, of course, be. The *vision* in supervision of clubs cannot be overemphasized It presupposes an enthusiastic faculty leader with an inspiring personality, firmly convinced of the intrinsic value of the activity, who can envisage its ultimate significance and possibilities as training of growing personalities for and the introduction of young minds to a sphere of responsibilities and problems they will have to face in adult life, if they are to participate intelligently in human affairs.

Humanizing Language Study Through Clubs

Progressive educational thought on the objectives of foreign language study has gradually been promoting to a higher rank of importance the aim of fostering international understanding. The disciplinary purpose of language study and the learning of grammar for its own sake, both the educational heritage of centuries of formalized study of Latin, have been superseded by such objectives as stress the acquisition or development of skills useful in human relationships Comprehension of the spoken and written word, ability to speak and write in the foreign language—these became the goal of language learning. And most recently a new crystallization of this fourfold purpose, to reduce it to the proportions most feasible under prevailing school conditions, has moved to the front rank the ability to read the foreign language for comprehension and enjoyment.

If the tendencies revealed by these new objectives mean anything, they indicate that language study is being thought of more and more as a social force. From a cold, objective study of morphology and syntax, language learning is evolving into a subjective pursuit, a study of the human self as it is incarnated in other contemporary phases of human culture—civilizations called foreign, but not so alien as immigration laws would have us believe.

The new aim established for the average secondary-school course in a foreign modern language—to read for comprehension and enjoyment—marks even more definitely than heretofore the social character, with an international scope, of language study. While a student's ability to converse in or even understand the spoken foreign tongue at the end of the usual high school course is much too limited to function effectively for international sociality, a course based on the reading objective can give him a much wider cruising range in the realm of international understanding.

Therefore, now more than ever before in the history of foreign language teaching, the student club takes on real significance as an integral factor in the mechanism for imparting and absorbing instruction. Before there was a definite break between the class and the club. Each pursued a totally different activity, related only in name of the language. There actually was no correlation in what they were doing. Their purposes were not only dissimilar, but even mutually contradictory. The class considered the foreign language divorced from its human and even geographic setting; the club devoted its attention to the living people and its country. The human-interest activities of the club certainly did not develop in the student a taste for the kind of fare he was served in the class. On the other hand, it is logical to believe that the dull and dreary grammatical dissection which greeted the student at the very threshold of the new subject would make him suspicious of the club that bore the same name.

The new reading aim makes correlation possible and feasible. Class and club will now supplement each other. Language study can now be a harmonious whole. The reading aim will be served by the club which has always helped to arouse interest in and curiosity about the foreign people and its land. The class will make members for the club. By introducing the student to pleasurable reading the class will whet his appetite for more such information obtainable through membership in the club. This organization in turn will help to make the reading ability ever more desirable by revealing the greater and more genuine pleasures available only directly in the foreign language. The Club is thus an essential factor in humanizing the study of a foreign language.

The Mission of Language Teachers in a Changing World

In this age of ebb and flux, when nothing is certain and all established values and principles are being questioned, weighed in the balance and unceremoniously disestablished, our educational system is also undergoing close scrutiny. Due to the stringencies of the economic situation, it has even much more to fear from unreasoned and unreasoning retrenchment in the educational budget than from a scientific revaluation. The existing curriculum as a whole, as well as each individual subject, is now on the defensive. I venture to suggest that if the modern foreign languages find themselves today more exposed to attack than almost any other item in the

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curriculum, it is not because of their lack of intrinsic educational value, either absolute or relative, but rather a result of the teaching profession's failure to apply these subjects to the most vital service of which they are capable.

It should cause no surprise that the public is so willing to dispense with the luxury of grammar study. Even the cultural claims of each of the modern foreign languages, as factual as they undoubtedly are, can not match the crying need for economic relief. This is no time to insist that foreign literature can best be understood in the original language. Of what use is the availability of foreign literature when domestic food is out of the reach of the hungry?

The foreign language teacher must hitch his subject to economics in its broadest social significance. Foreign language teaching can and must be in the service of a great international effort to rebuild an economic world, now in ruins, in the spirit of understanding and justice between nation and nation. This new dedication of language teaching does not require any diminution of the cultural content of the instruction. It merely demands that the instruction in the publicly supported school systems should aim not merely at the cultivation of the individual's linguistic æsthetic sense, but at the preparation of the whole social groups speaking one language for a more just attitude toward social groups speaking other languages. Both teacher and pupil should be conscious of the great need of international society today—a more genuine mutual understanding — and of the fact that through their work in the foreign language they are contributing to this ideal. Such study should no longer represent a mere idle curiosity about exotic things abroad, a Cook's tour among strange scenery, but a purposeful seeking of a path to the heart and mind of other human beings, friendly and peaceful relations with whom are a prerequisite to economic reconstruction and enduring prosperity. Such instruction should build up a world social sense in the growing citizen, so that when he reaches the proper age he can be an intelligent force for international good in the civic life of his own country.

No one is as well equipped to give this essential educational service to society as the well prepared foreign language teacher. He is the logical interpreter between nations, who helps to build the bridge of understanding. To him it should be a labor of love. His training gives him an insight, possessed by few others, into the past and present of the foreign interlocutor with whom his pupils are attempting to establish communication. The foreign language teacher should look upon his calling as a mission of which the world has great need today. And for his own economic security he must convince the public, which supports education, that he is discharging this indispensable function. The public will then consider him indispensable.

The Rôle of the Language Club in this Mission

In spite of the democratic ideal of American education, the educated will probably always be a minority. Upon this enlightened remnant rests the hope for a finer humanity. It is this minority, whose numbers we may hope to increase slowly through the continued and cumulative effects of the education process, that we who teach must strive to imbue with this vision of the universality of human culture. They must be made not only to see, but also to feel, the unity of civilization and that the foreign cultures are but different aspects of the civilized way of life.

This basic minority can be given the special and extra attention it requires and deserves through the medium of the club. In the classroom it is not possible. The language club makes its appeal to the more interested and better students; to those to whom the study of a foreign language is a revelation of human values. The student who by joining the language club manifests his sympathetic comprehension of, or at least, a curiosity for, the cultures of another human group, is the precious raw material out of which the foreign language teacher is to produce the intelligent citizen of a world-wide human civilization. And the foreign language club is the indispensable instrument at the service of the teacher who thus visualizes the deeper purpose of his work. Viewed thus, the study of foreign languages is a vital element in education. Language teaching dedicated to such universal human needs as indicated above justifies its cost to the community.

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UNEMPLOYED ALUMNI

Upon graduation alumni associations get busy and barrage the young graduates with a lot of second-class mail. "Join the Alumni"—"Support Your Alma Mater"—"Pay Your Dues"—"Come to the Dance" read the broadsides of the conscientious alumni secretary. The customary thing is to tear up the circular, shudder at the thought of returning to dear old Benedict Arnold High School (imagine returning after struggling four years to get out of it) and then ironically remark on how they dare to ask you for dues in such times as these! Those that do lend an ear to the secretary's pleadings are quite often the lucky ones with a job or those with a sweet memory of an extra-curricular activity in which their talents came to fruition or perhaps lonesome college freshmen yearning for the days when they were celebrities in their school life. Of course, if they now happen to be lawyers or insurance agents they will make it

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their business to join any fraternity which offers an opportunity of picking up "contacts" so necessary for their particular trade. This assortment of alumni is to be expected and welcomed. Their motives are inoffensive and pardonable. In the past very few alumni societies could have existed without their active financial support.

But our interest is not with the alumni who possess intelligence enough to recognize a graduate association as potentially beneficial to them; rather it is with the vast number of graduates who upon leaving high school are too preoccupied with the pressing problems of helping their parents and finding employment, to be at all concerned with patronizing an alumni association. Celebrities aside, what about the students who cannot afford college and who feel frustrated from the beginning, the mediocre who were kept in school against their wills and who are too ashamed to return as failures?

For them the future is indeed a bitter one. Those who go on studying in college or technical school have at least the tenuous hope of an improved future (four years ahead, presumably), but for the vast majority we eject with regularity twice a year, there remains only the sinking sensation of battling an economic storm with a paltry diploma; a storm, alas, wherein even the straws of hope are missing.

What chances have our alumni of justifying their schooling? Very little. Something might be said about the school's function in preparing the student for existing conditions by teaching Epictetus and primitive Christianity, but when it persists in a curriculum that dates from the Renaissance, with an alternate framework of science to prove its modernity and a smattering of a course in etiquette to show that it can compensate for the deficiencies of the home, well, the Lord help the young alumnus! His three years of French won't and his penetrations into the life cycle of the tiny animalcule will certainly not buttress him when the full meaning of unemployment overwhelms his person. No matter how valiantly the teacher may have labored to rid him of the success-ladder theory, we must confess that when the Great Awakening comes it will find the student's mind bloated with confessional magazines, moving picture glamor and sporting page wisecracks; shoddy safeguards in times such as these. The advertising expert, we are informed, has beaten the teacher at his own task. Whatever we have taught has been under duress and the revolting temper of the adolescent escapes, the moment discipline is relaxed, into the soggy sentiment of jazz melody and tabloid journalism. But to return to the problem in hand.

We will assume that the holy water of commencement has been sprinkled over the heads of the graduating class and that they awaken the next day none the worse for the experience and ready to assume their niche in the scheme of things. Times are bad, however, and tales about the depression have permeated the school building. Our alumni must not all expect to find jobs immediately. Even their parents become resigned to accepting them as useless freightage that must be carried along until things take a turn for the better.

But not all parents can easily resign themselves to seeing an offspring with a high school education of reputed value dawdle about the house, day after day, looking in mirrors, demanding money for the movies, playing the radio endlessly and insisting on being fed pretty often. There is bound to be some strong criticism about good-for-nothing children behaving like parasites. Such strictures often strike home. Youth is sensitive. What follows can readily be seen in the nation-wide increase of young vagrants the last two years. Where before Russia had her problem of homeless youth wandering across the country, her notorious *besprizionni*, we too must confess an identical problem but without the post-war chaos that extenuated the Russian situation. It is, then, this pressing need for sympathy and guidance which the demoralized home is not in a condition to offer, that must be met intelligently. It can only be through the school, we think, that home ties may be kept intact and the morale buoyed until the dark clouds begin to lift. We repeat the problem: What can the school do to cushion the blows upon the heads of its graduates? How can we help ballast their self-conscious souls to ride conditions more evenly?

It seems to us that the alumni association we described in our introductory paragraph could function more effectively. It is in a position to do something to bolster up the waning morale of our graduates and keep them from accepting a defeatist attitude towards life. There is a certain peace of mind in any union of fellow-sufferers thrown together by a common misfortune; each one strengthens the other by sublimating his miserable lot into that of the mass. Common suffering helps somewhat to reduce the melancholy of the unsuccessful job seeker. We see an example of that among the mushroom communities established by the homeless unemployed, the Hoovervilles and Prosperity Junctions. Graduating classes as a unit should therefore be encouraged to organize themselves into alumni groups, to band together for the purpose of meeting in the evening, within the school, to enjoy a variety of social and educational activities. Dances and theatricals could be arranged. Lectures on current problems might be instituted, provided the Board sees the way to include an appropriation therefor in its budget. The various extra-curricular clubs that now function with enthusiasm by day might have an evening branch for the alumni who participated during their under-graduate days. Teachers interested in their former pupils might volunteer to conduct clubs and arrange to chaperone dances and theatricals. An alumni fund for relieving extreme cases of distress could be started and contacts with social service agencies made through the school. What is needed

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is an alumni organizer, the grade advisers as a council or, better still, a person with courage and tact appointed by the principal to supervise the alumni. Permission from the Board of Education to use the building involves the expense of evening maintenance. With the coöperation of the custodian, this should not be very difficult to arrange.

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SOCIAL EDUCATION IN THE NEW YORK CITY HIGH SCHOOL

1.

Social (character) education, a dominant problem in educational theory and practice today. We find:

Ten national organizations devoted to "character" study;

Thirty national publications dealing with the study of character and its development;

Character education included in the curricula of Los Angeles, Boston, Birmingham, Cleveland, Detroit, Salt Lake City, and others;

Spreading practice in large cities to have teacher committees at work in the field of character education;

Tendency to provide time allotments for character education in the school day;

Tendency to recognize desired character outcomes on school report cards.

2.

Why this growing interest in social (character) education? Apparently the interest echoes a social need. The normalcy of any community depends on the training of its young in "correct" social attitudes. The well-being of an individual has always depended on his manipulation of his powers of self-guidance, self-evaluation and his ability to adjust himself to his social environment. The human race has always recognized the importance of influencing the individual during his adolescence, at the time of the man-child's new birth, as Rousseau puts it.

3.

What has, up to recently, been the most decisive relation in human conduct, and, therefore, that most important in the training of the adolescent? The most decisive relation in human conduct has heretofore been that radiating from the family and localized in the home. Overshadowing the influence of the church and public gathering, the home has been the school where the young were introduced to and trained in the conduct of the mature.

How has the home, the traditional school for character and personality, fared with the passing of time? The trend of social and economic progress has been to dislocate the home, unfitting it as a school for "character" and "personality." This change was greatly accelerated during the post-war period. Contemporary industrial and social influences have played havoc with the daily household schedule, turning all awry the organization of the family and drawing, largely, the children out of the home. Parents are at a loss in maintaining their ascendancy, let alone the old-fashioned home ideals. This is especially evident in our local situation, where the heads of the household are in great number foreign born and where the "American" second generation refuses to recognize their elders' character and personality codes as their own.

If economics and social change have undermined the effectiveness of the home in preparing the adolescent for his rôle as a grown-up and vitiated for the greater part the influence of the community outside of the home, it is to the school, as the agency of social control that reaches most pre-adolescent and maturing young, that is left the job of preserving all the influences that are potential in the development of the socially commendable individual and of neutralizing all those factors in our contemporary life, such as dance halls, pool-rooms, movies, "art" magazines, side shows and tabloid dailies, that tend to destroy the ideals and standards of socially commendable behavior. At present it is no longer too temerarious to suggest that in certain communities — in our own, for example—progress has taken from the home and handed to the school an important social function—that of training the young in habits of personal development, giving them a standard code of "good" conduct, and, possibly, suggesting to them a basis of sex morality.

4.

How do our schools meet the situation? Discounting current criticism of the standard elementary and high school curriculum, we may say that our schools are at present organized to give direct instruction in health, citizenship, vocations, use of leisure time, and on the other hand, emphatically incidental instruction in the ideals and standards of socially correct conduct and personality. Contemporary educators, like Pringle, in his "Adolescence and High School Problems," warns that character is the outcome of the child's total experience and therefore the direction of this character outcome must not be more than a mere by-product of the ordinary school program. "The individual must win his social and moral inheritance if it is to be of value," argues Pringle. "The biological sciences teach the inevitable tragedies that result from lack of effort, and moral atrophy"—as a result of planned help by grown-ups—"is just as certain as physical loss of power." "The law of struggle is part of the law of evolution." And again Pringle, striking a Sunday note, says: "Christian people are wont to quote Paul—'Work out out your own salvation'!"

Now the plan of incidental social instruction is believed to work out passably well during the pre-adolescent period of the child's life. Pre-adoles-

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cence is comparatively naïve and unquestioning. During the first seven grades of his social life, the child's coming and going is closely accounted for both at the school and in the home. The curriculum is simpler and lends itself more readily as a character forming instrument. Because of physical immaturity the pre-adolescent faces small need of choice of activities, opinions and situations. In the lower grades, too, there are heard echoes of changing times. The following, quoting Dr. Maguire, is a typical opinion: "The traditional classroom (first eight grades) must give way to a classroom in which there are possible action situations of a special nature that will provide a setting for personality development and character growth."

Instruction for the character and personal development takes on a paramount significance when the growing human reaches the high school. This is the period when the youth "becomes suddenly conscious of being alive in a new significant sense, very different from the self-centered existence of his pre-adolescent days." Physical changes set in. The boy and girl reach out into manhood and womanhood. With increased physical maturity they face a greater degree of choice in conduct and opinion. Life is now more complex, because personal responsibility is greater. The youth understands neither his apparently changed surroundings nor his changed self. He gropes, perforce, for the whys and wherefores of behavior. If the high school machine, planned primarily to grind out the pre-college curriculum, does not offer him an interpretation of the relation of society and the individual, and does not attempt to clear up the peculiar perplexities that beset him, he finds it outside of the school, in the street, in the daily murder account or the current "social" and movie scandal, for, to paraphrase Pringle, it does seem to him the part of wisdom to lay direct hold on the thing desired when this is possible.

5.

How does the report of the Committee on Character Education of the High School Teachers' Association propose to deal with the problem? For one year the Committee on Character Education has been studying what was being done in regard to social education in the high schools of New York City. Its survey, carried on by means of questionnaires, takes into consideration four phases, or rather viewpoints, of character training:

1. Administration;
2. The curriculum;
3. Extra-curricular activities;
4. Procedure in subject and prefect class in relation to the character development and its effect on discipline.

Worthy of attention is the formulation, à la Pringle, of the replies to a questionnaire on how the pupils may be influenced in the direction of good habits, tastes and interests by the common high school subjects. The report ends with a list of sixteen definite recommendations, which may be recognized as the "morals" of the survey.

The H. S. T. A. report is important because it parallels tasks attempted in many parts of the country (see "Current Practice in Character Education in the Public Schools," by George H. Betts and George E. Hill, July 30, 1932, *School and Society*). It is important because it takes stock of what is being done—or what our schools wish to do—in regard to training the adolescent in what is popularly called character and personality. It is important because it dares to broach the dreaded question of character ratings.

On the other hand the report is guilty of two significant omissions. First, it slights almost wholly a primary pensum when it fails to take the opportunity to give publicity—for the benefit of our teachers—to the proposition that changing times have unfitted the home as a guide for maturing youth and placed the burden on the school. Secondly, it hesitates to consider (in connection with its discussion of the prefect period) the possibilities of a direct method of social education, that is, planned classroom instruction in the modalities of contemporary life, based on social phychology for adolescence, which, Pringle or no Pringle, may be best fitted to our local situation.

The approach presented by the report is merely a re-emphasis of the manner of social education common in our schools at present. Ethical conclusions are to be drawn from any fitting situation arising in the classroom. This approach is made to rest on the following desiderata:

1. The teacher must be vigilant as to his own personality and character. He must be an exemplar.
2. The teacher must be ready to lay hold of every suitable classroom situation and transform it into a setting for personality development and character growth. That is, instruction in good traits and commendable tastes and interests is immediately produced when made possible either by commission or omission.
3. The course of study in the usual high school subjects is to be planned so as to have training in good habits, interests and tastes as a dominant objective.

The workability of these articles of faith is posited on the adoption of the first three recommendations of the report:

1. Each teacher will have fewer pupils than at present and have a better opportunity to become individually acquainted with his pupils.
2. The syllabus in every subject will be amended so that more time is provided for character training.
3. Clerical work is to be reduced to a minimum so that a maximum of energy is left to the teacher for fuller and more character training.

When inspected in the light of our contemporary situation in the City of New York, these three keystone recommendations, on which the suggested method is based, appear commendable but rather playful wishes. Our high school population is growing fast, and will grow faster as the educational age limit climbs with the shrinking of

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the work day and work week in industries. However, the cardinal errors of the report are the following: First, it attempts to anchor a plan of character training and personal development to every aspect of school life, to the entire school program. Second, it fails to state in definite terms what the desired outcomes in the proposed plan should be.

Making a comprehensive demand on the life of the high school, it offers to complicate matters for the administration staff of the school, which is called on to change its policy and its routine to serve one central purpose, the creation of moral character and the grooming of personality. It proposes to slice time out of the subject class period, thus complicating the work of the teacher. It insists on the amendment of syllabi so as to shape every subject more closely as a tool for social training.

Thus says Pringle: "The high school pupils have been born into a social environment which is already largely determined, and this environment has among its elements certain standards of conduct to which they are expected to conform." Hence, the whole problem is to get the pupils to accept the moral world which awaits them and to adjust themselves to its demands. And to do this, the school must, according to Pringle and the committee report, reproduce as far as possible the condition of the best surrounding life. In the school "all the higher interests of humanity must be duplicated," a moral atmosphere instituted, and the individual and the group made to live "morals." That is, morality is to be inculcated by a sort of laboratory method, the school being the laboratory and the courses of study laboratory material.

It is extremely doubtful if the school —in view of the preponderating influence of the world outside of the school—can *fix* habitual modes of feeling, thinking and willing, that is, create the moral individual.

6.

What can we hope to do in the high schools? In general, we can, during his impressionable and troubled age, interpret for the adolescent those modes of conduct of the mature on which the welfare of the individual and society depends. This means that we shall emphasize ideas about morality (*mores*) rather than "moral" ideas. We shall not attempt to conjure up in the school a "moral atmosphere," but offer the adolescent a planned, factual course in social forms. In this course, by means of discussion somewhat less formal than that common in the usual class, the following problems will be considered among others:

1. The instinctive and emotional makeup of the individual.
2. Manners: enumeration and drill.
3. Health: importance, habits.
4. Dress.
5. The individual and the group. Honesty and dishonesty. "Good" conduct.
6. Parents and children.
7. The individual and the state.
8. Success in life. Planning one's activity.
9. Sex morality.

The home room period, instituted in some schools (as at the Lincoln High School), may be considered a step in the direction of a course of this description. At present the home room period is usually devoted to the discussion of topics picked at random by the pupils and the teacher. This discussion does not follow any definite plan. Being haphazard, it has no sound educational basis.

It is possible to organize for the whole term a succession of home room periods in accordance with a prepared course of study, rooting itself in social psychology for adolescence. (A simple and easily applicable outline is offered in Haddock's "Steps Upwards in Personality.")

7.

What are the objections to planned instruction in social forms for adolescents? Reference has already been made to Pringle. He, first, fashions a pseudo-Darwinian analogy between man's society and the jungle, stating (page 342, "High School Problems") that "moral standards are the result of a long race struggle." "Hence the individual must *win* his social and moral inheritance if it is to be of value." For "the law of work or struggle is a part of the law of evolution." And remember Pringle also quotes Paul: "Work out your salvation." All this to prove that no direct and carefully planned help and guidance may be proferred the adolescent in his perplexities, as he must, in line with inexorable biology and Saint Paul, work out his own salvation.

There is also the charge of indoctrination. The tabloid, the example of the unfit parent, the "true secret" magazine, the movie, also indoctrinate. Strange to say, the mentioned agencies treat the same topics that would be considered in a planned course in social forms.

The *Detroit Free Press* (July 1, 1930), doubts the intellectual fitness of most teachers to act as guides and mentors in such matters as character and personality. This opinion is very popular. It is understood that the teachers assuming the task of explaining conduct to the adolescent must be specially trained for the job. Indeed, certain teachers have special personal fitness for a duty of this kind. However, the use of a definite syllabus will lessen the effect of individual differences among the instructors.

8.

It is dangerous to base social training on literature. Note the tendency to relegate the presentation and discussion of the mentioned topics to English classes. Literature is too often full of unsound psychology and incorrectly documented social facts. Miss Haddock, for example bases each of her forty lessons on verse excerpts, mostly journalistic (Guest, Kiser, Henry Van Dyke, Walt Mason) and "inspirational." Much of it will appear rather naïve to the latter-day boy and girl of sixteen. This, too, we may recognize as an echo of the hankering to offer the adolescent "laboratory" conditions, a kind of recapitulation of "life."

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9.

What can be done immediately in the high school? If social instruction is permitted to remain haphazard and left to the incidental inspiration of teacher and pupil, let the school at least make definite for itself as to what should be recognized as the desired outcomes in character and personality.

This can be done through the formulation of brief and terse guides for the pupils and teachers. There is a lot of good in credos; they give shape to common preferences, make clear objectives, and offer, to a certain extent, a plan of action. Therefore, first, a code of desired outcomes in social education—for the teacher. Second, the popularization of a concise and simply stated code setting forth how, say, the Good Linconian is expected to conduct himself. (This would parallel Wm. J. Hutchins' plan, on which the Boston course is founded. Hutchins' motive is the Good American, who (1) tries to keep himself in perfect health, (2) controls himself, (3) is self-reliant, (4) is reliable, (5) plays fair, (6) does his duty, (7) tries to do the right thing in the right way, (8) works in friendly coöperation with his fellow-workers, (9) is kind, and (10) is loyal).

It is understood that the Good Linconian code will be furthered by club work, badges, and all forms of official recognition. I would have the students sing it out at assemblies. I would hang slogans in prominent places in the halls and classrooms, stating and reiterating essential portions of the Linconian code; for example, that Lincoln is a quiet school, that to be civilized is not to be noisy, that the typical Lincoln student is careful about his speech and dress.

Furthermore, we should recognize desired character outcomes by means of a rating or record. A mark emphasizes. It gives direction. To a certain extent, it is a socially useful reward.

These marks should be accorded to the superior pupil only, so that there is a permanent official record of outstanding worthwhile acts and tendencies but not of delinquencies. The ratings should express general and broad character traits, such as effort, reliability, self-control, service. Effort and service are my favorites. The first beckons encouragement to the less gifted; the second rewards the socially alert.

H. G. SHAPIRO.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

HIGH POINTS

What One Teacher Does With This Magazine

In the January, 1932, issue of HIGH POINTS there appeared an article entitled, "What One Principal Does With This Magazine." Dr. Tonsor's purpose in writing it was to point out to those teachers who never bother to read the publication, the fact that in nearly every issue are articles pertinent to the special interests of nearly all of them.

To emphasize this fact, the writer wishes to tell what *he* does with this magazine. He does not throw it unthumbed into a waste paper basket; he literally tears it to pieces. Before doing that, he glances through the table of contents and reads those articles which are of special interest to him as a teacher of English. (Nor has he found a single issue in the last five years which did not contain at least one article of particular significance to teachers of his subject.) These articles are then cut out and pasted in a loose-leaf scrapbook. This book of "High Points for the English Teacher," which the writer has been compiling for five years now, is a most valuable aid to him in teaching.

A glance at the titles of some of the articles in the book will perhaps indicate better than words its real value. For instance, it contains such subjects as:

"The Assignment in English at the John Adams High School"; "My Experiences with Creative Education"; "Thought and Fluency in the English Classroom in the Washington Irving High School"; "Developing the Inquiring Mind Through Reading and Thinking"; "Fads and Fancies of English Class 218"; "The Class Lexicographer"; "Creating the One-Act Play"; "Robin Hood"; "Summary of Experiments in Progress in the Department of English at the Julia Richman High School"; "Practical Projects for Slow Second Termers"; "The War Novel"; "Some Thoughts on Intellectual Curiosity and The Teaching of English"; "Plan for Teaching Short Story Writing"; "Old Ballads and Modern Tunes"; "Poetry in the Bake"; "English Book Reports"; "Method in the English Classroom"; "Vocabulary Study in English"; "The Library and English Teaching"; "Autobiography Has Vogue"; "A Socialized Oral English Lesson"; "Correlating English and Art."

Since the scrapbook is loose-leaf, these articles are classified and readily accessible. Therefore, when the writer is faced with the problem of teaching a text for the first time, he consults his book for suggestions as to approach and method. For example, to one who is beginning to teach *The Odyssey*, such articles as "A Project for the Odyssey" and "Teaching the Odyssey" (both of which appeared in the June, 1930, issue) should prove most stimulating.

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The writer cherishes the possibility that he may at some time in the dim, dark future, edit and publish this harvest of the fruits of the experience of so many of his colleagues; but if every teacher did "what one teacher does with this magazine," not a single copy of "High Points for the English Teacher" could ever be sold.

JESSE GRUMETTE.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Talks to Teachers in the Department of Mathematics of the Abraham Lincoln High School

Teaching is an art founded primarily upon more or less basic fundamentals or scientific principles. The procedure to be employed in any of the infinite number of situations which may arise during the learning process, should be determined by reference to some basic principle or principles. A teacher should know not only *what* to do and *how* to do it, but also the *why* of the procedure. Self-criticism of the teaching act in the light of these fundamentals and appropriate modification as certain weaknesses or limitations appear, are essential to successful teaching.

It is the duty of the supervisor to help, aid, and assist the teachers under his immediate guidance in the study of their own procedure and personality.

With these facts in mind I feel that perhaps some service can be rendered by setting forth in brochure form a brief exposition of the major factors that contribute to success in teaching. It is not my aim to suggest new methods of teaching. I expect to hear the comment, "He is not telling us anything new. The best teachers have always followed out the suggestions herein contained." Very true. But if *all* teachers did the things that our "best teachers have always done," our teaching as a whole would be much improved.

If the supervisor and teacher are to secure a broad understanding of effective teaching procedure, rather than to agree upon one detailed procedure, self-criticism and evaluation of one's own work according to the general principles embodied in the talks will be most helpful.

No thought has been given to the order of importance of the topics; rather, they are chosen as the needs arise within our department.

I. PROFESSIONAL INTEREST AND GROWTH

It is no longer possible to master a body of facts and then expect to teach these same facts in the same way day after day, month after month, and year after year.

Changing social needs, new industrial demands, and new political views necessitated by the rapid and stupendous changes now taking place in our society demand constant readjustment. The function of the school, curricula, methods and content, and general devices are being continually modified to meet these needs.

The modern teacher must then be ever on the alert. The course in training taken during the "apprenticeship" period is wholly inadequate. The teacher must continue to be a student in the broad sense. What can a teacher do to maintain this student attitude?

1. Associate with individuals and affiliate with groups interested in solving professional problems.
2. Make use of methods and devices that others have proved valuable. Attempt to work out new methods or applications that may prove valuable to others.
3. Keep an open mind concerning new general movements in education. Deliberate and study intelligently appraisal of new ideas.

These are potent factors in stimulating one's own professional interest and growth.

The Teacher's Catechism:

(a) Do I strive continually to keep up-to-date and to improve by taking advantage of teacher's meetings, educational meetings, courses, travel, and the like?

(b) Do I willingly and gladly make use of methods that others have found valuable? What methods have I adopted recently? Do I keep abreast of the times in regard to testing the results of my work, diagnosis, and improvement?

(c) Do I become as fully informed as possible regarding new improvements in education? What professional book have I read the past year? What professional magazines am I reading?

Have you measured your professional interest and growth as others who view your work might measure it?

II. THE VOICE

Aside from the mastery of subject matter and the methods of teaching there are many personal traits which determine the quality and success of the teacher's work. One of these is the voice. Much has been written upon the relation of the human voice to certain desired responses both mental and physical, but due to differences in individuals it is extremely difficult to set down definite practices to be followed. However, it is generally agreed that the clearness, pitch quality and modulation of the human voice greatly affects emotional responses. The lawyer tempers the quality of his voice to suit his pleas to judge and jury; the orator modulates his voice to emphasize a special point of appeal to his audience; the attending nurse subdues her tones to soothe the sick patient; the businessman demands that his assistants exercise quiet, pleasing, well modulated voices. Innumerable instances could be cited where the voice is so important in everyday life; how much more important is a careful use of the voice in the classroom!

The teaching voice should be a good example for imitation and a voice well modulated in pitch and quality is an important factor in holding the attention of the pupils. Many teaching problems can be traced to the incorrect use of the voice. I strongly urge each teacher to analyze his classroom

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voice and invite the help of his supervisor in adjusting this important phase of teaching.

The Teacher's Catechism:

1. Is my teaching voice a good example for imitation?
2. Have I considered the quality of my voice in relation to the room in which I teach? Is my voice well modulated in tone, or is it loud, harsh, rasping, or fault-finding?
3. Do I strive to modulate my voice so that it will serve as an aid in holding the attention and interest of my pupils?
4. Is my teaching voice "natural" or "put on"?

A pleasing voice can be developed by almost any one who will give a little time and thought to its cultivation.

III. The Use of English

It is generally agreed that a pupil's facility in the use of English is gained largely through imitation and a constant use of an ever-increasing vocabulary. Notwithstanding, we frequently lose sight of the enormous influence of our own example in the classroom upon the pupils under guidance. To a very large extent the poor English used by our pupils is due to the carelessness on the part of some of our teachers in their own speech in the classroom and the failure to correct bad usage. Since suggestion and imitation play such an important rôle in educational theory and practice, it is therefore essential that the use of slang and slipshod speech should be carefully avoided.

The Teacher's Catechism:

1. Do I exercise care in the use of words and expressions.
2. Do I exercise care in the pronunciation and enunciation of words.
3. Do I use slang or ungrammatical expressions.
3. Do I have any defects of speech which might be imitated by the pupil's?
5. Do I use effective methods to secure the use of good English in the classroom.

Every teacher is a teacher of English.

Henry Shanholt,
Chairman, Mathematics Department.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

How Science Teachers Are Helping Other Teachers

At a recent meeting of General Science Chairmen, the question of cooperation between science departments and other departments came up for discussion. It was suggested that a study be made of this problem.

The following is a summary of the answers received from approximately fifty high school heads of science departments, in answer to a questionnaire concerning their contacts with chairmen of other departments. This outline indicates the various devices and methods employed by science departments in their endeavor to coöperate with other departments.

This summary may offer something of value to the science teacher who wishes to learn about the things that are being done by others in the matter of coöperation, with the emphasis on science department activities.

I. *English Department*

1. Insisting on the use of good English in all science classes.
2. Furnishing lists of words in science commonly misspelled.
3. Furnishing names of pupils who need assistance in either spoken or written English or both.
4. Assisting the English department with reference material for written reports.
5. Correcting essays for science content.
6. Suggesting the titles of books which have both scientific and literary merit.

II. *History Department*

1. Presenting information concerning "the scientific method and scientific attitude" before bodies of history teachers.
2. Lending science equipment for displays relating to economics, economic geography and history.
3. Coöperating in the constructing of syllabi to avoid duplication.
4. Furnishing bibliography of science material for use in history.
5. Checking of special history reports for scientific accuracy.

III. *Mathematics Department*

1. Furnishing lists of fundamental processes required in science classes.
2. Supplying lists of typical problems involving mathematical processes used in the science classes.
3. Listing common mathematical errors.
4. Making studies of pedagogical procedures of mathematical process.

IV. *Health Education Department*

1. Organizing special committees of teachers from the biology and health education departments for the purpose of exchanging opinions on such questions as equipment, syllabi, health diets, and health records.
2. Setting up exhibits of the applications of pure science; for example, X-Rays.

V. *Classical Languages*

1. Listing those words used in science having Latin derivations.

VI. *Music*

1. Lecturing on the physics of sound as applied to music.

VII. *Commercial Departments*

1. Training students in Office Practice.
2. Furnishing practice to students in taking dictation, in typewriting and mimeographing.
3. Building equipment for use of pupils; for example, a simple telephone system for instructional purposes.

VIII. *Art Department*

1. Furnishing opportunities to art students to make necessary charts and drawings.
2. Lecturing on the physics of color.

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3. Advising concerning mixing of colors, solvents for paints, and etching.

IX. *Mechanics Art Department*

1. Giving opportunities to vocational pupils to make small pieces of apparatus, and electrical equipment.

X. *Miscellaneous*

1. Some extra-curricular activities such as Mathematics, History, and Current Events groups have been enriched by talks given by science teachers.
2. Science teachers furnish technical information in the lighting arrangements for dramatic performances and the fireproofing of the scenery.
3. Small items of equipment are sometimes furnished.
4. Some science teachers make slides when needed, keep the lantern slide and motion picture machines in working order, and train pupils to take charge of this work.
5. A science teacher taught both English and science to the same group with creditable results.
6. The science department is saving about $50 per week by doing the printing for the school.
7. Science teachers keep radios in working order for educational purposes.

Significant Statements Taken from the Answers to the Questionnaire

1. "I have practically given him (a biology teacher) a seminar course of quiz and demonstration so that his knowledge is real and vivid," writes a general science chairman.
2. "If it isn't English, it isn't Chemistry."
3. "All written work is corrected for English phraseology, and notably inferior work is at once brought to the attention of the English chairman."
4. A biology chairman writes, "Anyone needing special advice about health matters consults the biology chairman or home nursing teachers."
5. A physical science chairman writes, "Scientific aspects of aviation were demonstrated before a class in English as part of a term project in that subject."
6. "The Stenography department gives us two stenographers each day, who cut our stencils and do the typing for the department."
7. "Once each year the three departments (physics, chemistry, and biology) put on a science program at one of the regular assemblies."
8. "Teachers of science visit classes of other departments."
9. "But truthfully I cannot say contact with any other department is marked enough to warrant mention."
10. "Whatever coöperation we have with other departments is incidental; that is, not deliberately sought. We borrow and lend cheerfully.

I think we rather rejoice in our self-sufficiency and independence. We consider that we can best perform our alloted tasks by sticking closely to our known duties."

11. A physical science chairman writes:

"The experiment carried out last term in the physical science department in coöperation with the English department proved of particular value to the school. At the suggestion of the chairman of English, I undertook to give a series of demonstrations designed to clarify and lend technical concreteness to the essays in Dr. Law's book, 'Science in Literature,' a text used with all English 5 pupils. These demonstrations covered the subjects of chlorine, atoms, electrons, and the incandescant lamp, paralleling closely the content of essays bearing similar titles in 'Science in Literature.' The spirit of the essays and the style requirements have likewise been observed."

The above outline has been presented for discussion once at a regular meeting of General Science chairmen and another time at a general faculty meeting of this school.

ALEXANDER BRODELL,
Chairman of the Science Department.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

Some Thoughts on the Control of a Student Aid Fund

The question of relief is far more pressing this year than it has been for some time past. It is common knowledge that unemployment has reached a critical peak. This economic pressure is causing a number of our pupils to leave school. Many others can and are managing to stay only at extreme sacrifice. The administrative assistants, deans, grade advisers, placement teachers and others are in a position to see the distressing conditions which prevail in the homes of many of our young people.

Practically every one of the high schools today maintains some kind of Student Aid Fund. This fund is generally managed by some one member of the faculty or by a small committee of the faculty. This is as it should be. It does not seem desirable to have the facts of every one or of any one of these appeals made public; hence, the smaller the group responsible for the management of this fund the less danger there is that the facts will be broadcast and the more completely this fund will be serving its purpose.

The manager of such a fund must be careful not to permit his heart to run away with his head. Frequently appeals are brought which appear very worthy and which, by telling narration, may move us to action. I would counsel a little caution. Let us remember that the person attempting to help others, when at the same time responsible for this fund, must be of a judicial temperament. We suggest,

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therefore, that all the evidence be gathered, that it be carefully weighed, and that then such assistance be given as is warranted by coldly analyzed facts. When the appeal comes in, therefore, the first thing to do is to communicate with any one of the existing social service agencies to determine, first, if they have a record of the case; second, if the case is now being assisted, and failing either one or both of the above, ask the agency to make an investigation to render a complete report. This procedure will have the effect, first, of avoiding hasty action; second, of checking frauds or others unworthy; third, of supplying adequate aid economically administered (this aid to come from the social service agency itself); and fourth, of giving that school help which may be necessary or sufficient.

In the interview with the pupil information must be obtained which will be needed for the social service agency. The following will always be useful:

First, name of each of the parents.

Second, name, age, and sex of each of the children of the family.

Third, address.

Fourth, father's occupation.

Fifth, mother's occupation.

Sixth, occupation of each of those children who is employed.

Seventh, whether or not each of them is now employed.

Eighth, the earnings brought into the home by each one.

Ninth, if any one of them is not now employed and how long he has been out of work.

Tenth, if there is illness, who is ill, the nature of the ailment, and for how long it has continued.

Last, such other pertinent information as your best judgment will dictate should be added to the above list.

If you have a placement office in your school, there should be a very close coöperation between it and the office trying to furnish relief. Very often the placement bureau can be very helpful by supplying afternoon or Saturday work to the young person in need.

One may not know where to turn to obtain the necessary information or help in handling any of the appeal cases. Our experience shows that the Jewish Social Service, the Catholic Charities, the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor—these three are most helpful. However, the Charity Organization Society annually publishes a directory which would give one all the information required. This directory is on the Board of Education supply list and should be in the office of every one of the high schools. In addition to this annual directory, the Charity Organization Society publishes a number of leaflets from time to time, each of which confines itself to some special phase of social service work. These leaflets sell at the nominal sum of ten cents a copy and very completely and fully supplement the main directory. There should also be available in each high school office for immediate emergency use a list of hospitals, clinics, and the like, that are found in the vicinity.

We should always try, in assisting our people, to avoid doing anything which smacks of charity. We must try always not to pauperize those who come to us. Such assistance as we give should be helpful and constructive. Assuming that the family is found to be worthy and that the best means of helping is through the school fund, at least one of the parents should then be invited to confer with the teacher in charge of the Student Aid Fund. It should be very carefully explained to the parent that the money being advanced is given as *a loan only* and that it is expected that this loan will be repaid. The parent should be requested to sign a promissory note agreeing to repay the amounts advanced in this manner. The time of repayment should purposely be left very indefinite. It should be explained, however, that the school expects the parent to repay just as soon as the family is financially able. The repayment need not be made in one lump sum. It can very well be made in small sums spread over a period of time, these sums being paid regularly either weekly or monthly.

These suggestions are meant to be helpful. They are based upon experience in handling Student Aid Fund going back seven years in the present school and more than five years in another one of the city high schools. We hope that the facts given in this brief review will serve some useful purpose.

SIMON J. JASON,
Administrative Assistant.
Walton High School.

The Preparation of Lantern Slides

In the search for suitable illustrative material, teachers often overlook a source that is rich in possibilities—the lantern slide. Most teachers are acquainted with the wonderful collection at the Museum of Natural History that may be borrowed on application. These slides cover a wide variety of topics and have been of great assistance to the pupils and teachers in the public schools. Many teachers are not aware of another interesting and valuable source of slides, those that they can make.

The preparation of lantern slides is surprisingly easy. The truth of this statement will be realized from the following descriptions of the various types that can be made.

Using a crow quill pen and India ink it is possible to draw or write directly on glass. The drawing or writing is done on glass plates made especially for lantern slides. These plates and all other materials used are on the Board of Education supply list. Teachers who prefer to use their own materials may purchase them very reasonably at photographic supply or department stores. This type of slide is useful for the drawing of maps in history, pieces of apparatus in science, word study in English and for a large variety of uses. After the ink on the slide has dried, a lantern slide mat is placed on it and it is then covered with a lantern slide cover glass. Using a piece of lantern slide tape the two glass plates are bound together, a thumb mark is pasted to

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the lower left corner and the slide is ready for use.

A second type of slide that is superior to the one just described is made by drawing or writing on cellophane with India ink. Enough cellophane to make many slides may be purchased for ten cents. The cellophane is cut to make pieces the same size as the lantern slide, three and one-quarter by four inches. The drawing or tracing is put on the cellophane and allowed to dry. When dry, a lantern slide mat is placed over it and both are placed between two cover-glass plates. The slide is bound with lantern slide tape and thumb marked.

Typewritten slides are readily prepared by using cellophane. A piece of carbon paper twice the size of the slide, six and one-half inches by four, is folded over both sides of the cellophane, carbon side in. This is then placed in the typewriter and the statement is typed, using a heavy touch. When completed, the cellophane is removed, covered with a mat, placed between cover glasses and bound. This typewritten slide has many uses. It may be used for explanations of pictures in a series, for drill questions, test questions, instructions and regulations, word study and problems. If desired, a drawing and typewritten work may be placed on the same slide. By the use of colored cellophane, poster effects may be produced. This last use might be extended to serve as a project for pupils gifted in drawing.

More interesting to the writer were slides prepared from photographs taken by himself of places visited. For example, a useful and instructive set of slides was made from pictures taken on a transcontinental automobile trip last summer. Pictures taken in National Parks, pictures of mines, factories, oil fields, giant trees and desert plant life produced a set of slides that can be used as supplementary and illustrative material for classroom or auditorium.

The possibilities of use for this type of slide are unlimited. Each picture is backed by the personal experience of the teacher and each scene has a special significance. Teachers of foreign languages could use this means to describe to their classes visits they have made to foreign countries. These slides have the advantage that they are the permanent property of the teacher. It is not necessary to return them to the Museum after each showing and to request them again for the next term.

These photographic lantern slides are easily made if a few simple precautions are followed. Any negative that produces a good picture may be used to make a lantern slide. The negative, or film, of the picture that is to be printed on the slide is placed, shiny side down, in a photographic printing frame. On this is placed the sensitive photographic slide. The back of the frame is now fastened in place by the convenient clips with which it is equipped, and the slide is ready for exposure. The procedure up to this point must be done in a darkroom. A red light is the only

illumination that may be used. This requirement should prove to be no obstacle in a high school. The Chemistry Departments in most of our high schools have photographic darkrooms that the teachers can undoubtedly arrange to use. These rooms are usually equipped with special lighting facilities that make the work easy.

To transfer the picture to the slide, the photographic frame prepared as described is exposed for about six seconds to the light of a twenty-five watt lamp at a distance of six feet. It may also be exposed by holding a lighted match at an arm's length from the frame for ten seconds. After exposing the slide, all lights except the red one are extinguished and the slide is ready for development. It is removed from the printing frame and immersed in a developing solution for three minutes. It is then removed and rinsed in cold water for five seconds. After rinsing, it is placed in a fixing bath for about seven minutes. The slide is then washed in running water for fifteen minutes and dried. When dry, a mat is placed over the dull side of the slide. This is covered with a glass covered plate, bound and thumb-marked as described above.

The Eastman Kodak Company publishes two booklets that are of considerable assistance in making slides. The titles are, "Lantern Slides, How to Make and Color Them" and "Elementary Photographic Chemistry." Both books will be sent to teachers on request.

For those who are interested, but who feel that the instructions given here and in the booklets are inadequate, a practical suggestion may be made. Select a course in Visual Instruction to satisfy the alertness requirement. The Museum of Natural History offers an excellent course free to teachers. Many of the local colleges also offer courses of this type.

Teachers who enjoy traveling or "hunting" with a camera will, if they try the above suggestions, find an unlimited field of activity open to them. This use of photography offers not only a fascinating hobby, but, in addition, a practical source of satisfactory and worth-while illustrative material.

LEONARD J. FLIEDNER
George Washington High School.

How to Operate the Projection Lantern Efficiently

Let us take a trip through a projection lantern and see its parts and their relation to each other. We enter through the back door. It opens upwards. The first thing we see is the reflector, which is generally fastened to the receptacle holding the bulb, called the socket. The purpose of the reflector is to take the light from the back of the filament of the bulb and reflect it forward, thus adding to the useful light given off by the filament. Upon observing the filament of the bulb (the filament being the thin wires inside the bulb which produce the light by virtue of being heated to incandescence by the electric current), we note the filament consists of wire springs that lie in a plane. The bulb must be so placed that the plane of

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this filament is parallel to the condensing lens in front of the bulb. The socket may be raised or lowered so that the filament may be centrally located with respect to the condensing lens, by loosening a screw below the lantern holding the socket to the floor of the lamp house. If the bulb is prefocused it is unnecessary to adjust the filament with respect to height. Note that this floor will slide back and forth if we loosen a small cam-lever generally located on the outside of the floor below the lamp house. This enables us to move the bulk back and forth and set the filament at such a point that will give maximum brightness upon the screen. This is very important, especially after inserting a new bulb. When inserting a new bulb, the entire floor is removed by sliding it out through the back of the lamp house. The bulb is now inserted, the plane of the filament noted and placed at right angles to the axis of projection. Then, when the floor is replaced and moved back and forth, one observes that in the extreme positions the screen is not as bright as in some intermediate one. This in-between position gives maximum efficiency, for it places the filament on the focus of the condensing lens. The floor is fixed in this position by tightening the cam-lever under the lamp house.

As we go through the condensing lenses we notice that they become dusty very easily since they are ventilated. The cover on top of the lens box can be opened by first loosening the thumb screw and then swinging it open, for it has a hinge on the side opposite the locking screw. Lift out the two lenses and wipe them with a soft cloth. It is gratifying to note the improvement of the light upon the screen after cleaning the condensing lens. Never hold a lens by its surface; always grasp the edge, since fingerprints cut off light. Next, we go through the slide carrier, bellows, and projection lens. These give very little trouble. If the slide carrier is not centrally located, however, the full slide will not be shown upon the screen. The projection lens consists of a number of lenses mounted in a barrel. They should not be taken apart, since the inside is dust proof. The outer surfaces of the front and rear lenses should be wiped clean with a soft cloth.

In using the lantern it must be remembered that the smaller the picture, the greater its brightness. A plaster wall is the best screen. In setting up the lantern the following method is best:

1. Adjust the slide carrier so that it is centrally located.
2. Place the projection lens half way out.
3. Pull out the bellows and tighten set screws, so that the front of the lantern is rigid.
4. Make final adjustment with the projection lens, to give a sharp picture.
5. When changing slides turn off the light, or intercept the rays during the change. This will lessen eye strain.

The teacher can make his own slides by tracing or drawing any picture on a thin sheet of cellophane and placing it between two pieces of thin glass, measuring 3¼ by 4 inches. When this is completed bind the edges with tape. One may typewrite on cellophane by placing a piece of carbon paper on both sides of the cellophane and typewriting upon it. This is ideal for projecting songs and other written material. It is possible to write on glass if the glass is first painted with a solution of gelatin and water. A piece of ground glass makes a good slide by drawing upon it with a medium-soft pencil. The drawing can be erased, if desired, with Bon Ami and water.

In using visual aids we must have everything ready and know just what to do; and then do it with the least possible interruption. Therefore, the teacher should know how the apparatus works and how to keep it working.

BERTHOLD A. SPEIER.
Brooklyn Technical High School.

The School Health Council

On June 22, 1931, Deputy Superintendent Campbell requested all high school principals to organize a Health Council which was to start functioning with the September, 1931, term. As a basis of organization, Dr. Campbell enclosed an outline of the purpose, personnel, and functions of the Health Council as prepared by a committee of high school teachers under the direction of Dr. A. P. Way and Dr. I. H. Goldberger, assistant directors of Health Education.

On April 25, 1932, Deputy and Associate Superintendent Campbell requested the principals of high schools to report, through a questionnaire, the progress and value of the School Health Council project, which had been in operation since September, 1931. Dr. A. K. Aldinger, the Director of Health Education, in the issue of HIGH POINTS for December, 1932, reported on the tabulated replies submitted.

In the desire to show how essential Health Councils are in large city schools and perhaps to bring about an even greater interest and maximum efficiency, the writer presents his views on the subject.

The successful execution of even a practical school health program will require the warm support and the conscientious effort of the entire school faculty, the supervisory staff and the administrative staff. The high schools of today are organizations of highly-trained specialists and unless the principal assigns some responsible person to act as the contact man between these specialists, neither harmony nor the optimal health of the children can be achieved. This contact man is the keystone in the arch; and just as the arch will give way if it gets no support, so will he, if he does not enjoy the enthusiastic support of all.

Fully realizing that to carry out this program is not a one-man job, the writer proposes to make this contact man the chairman of a school health

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committee. This committee is to consist of the following:

1. Principal.
2. Administrative Assistant.
3. Custodian-Engineer.
4. Dean.
5. Chairman of the Department of Health Education.
6. Psychiatrist.
7. School Doctor.
8. School Nurse.
9. Vocational Counselor.
10. Social Case Worker.
11. Slight Conversation Adviser-Refractionist.
12. Dental Adviser.
13. All teachers of Health Education.
14. Other teachers who may wish to become members.
15. Representatives of the Parents-Teachers Association.
16. School Health President elected by the entire student body.

Under the leadership of the Health Committee the writer suggests the following plan of organization and administration of the school health program:

A. *Organization* (six possible plans).

The position of contact man should be taken by one of these:

1. The Principal who acts as an ex-officio member of the health committee, either acting or assigning a teacher-member to do so.
2. An Administrative Assistant.
3. The Dean of Boys or the Dean of Girls.
4. The Psychiatrist or School Doctor or School Nurse.
5. The Chairman or a teacher of the Department of Health Education.
6. The Custodian-Engineer.

B. *Administration:*

1. The Health Committee Chairman (contact man) is to call at least two committee meetings before the new school health program is instituted.
2. Meetings are to be called weekly thereafter unless circumstances require more.
3. A special Health Bulletin Board for teachers is to be put up in the General Office. All duties, assignments and posts are to be posted on it ahead of time.
4. All special duties and plans are to be distributed with an attached receipt for teachers to return to the "Health Box" in the General Office.
5. All projects, plans and accomplishments are to be posted on the three Health Bulletin Boards of each floor. All pupils or others may post questions, requests for advice or suggestions on health. These will be considered at the weekly meetings of the committee and the answers, if any, will be posted.
6. A weekly newspaper, "Health News," is to be published and distributed to all.

C. *Aims of Committee Work* (in part):

1. To make pupils, teachers and other employees of the school and parents health conscious.
2. To secure for all concerned the school environment most conducive to optimal health.
3. To better, if possible, the home conditions and environment so necessary for optimal health.
4. To obtain a complete health examination for all pupils, teachers, and other employees of the school.
5. To interpret the meaning of the results found in the examination.
6. To secure needed remedial measures for all.
7. To provide health knowledge from a positive viewpoint.
8. To inculcate right health habits that will endure.
9. To develop proper attitudes of health.
10. To secure as near to 100 per cent attendance as possible by a weekly check-up on all absences, classifying their causes and eliminating them as early as possible.

D. *Assignment of Committee Work to be Evenly Distributed:*

1. Each committee member is to be responsible for a particular phase in the program, such as heating, lighting, publicity, etc.
2. Student committees and class health leaders are to assist each health manager of the floor.

E. *Contacts:*

1. Between Health Committees and Class teachers:
   a. Floor manager.
   b. Bulletin boards.
   c. General conference.
   d. Special meeting (lecture by authorities).
   e. Consultation periods.
2. Between Health Committee and pupils:
   a. Bulletin boards.
   b. Weekly health newspaper.
   c. Class Health President. (Council of Presidents to meet monthly under the direction of the School Health President.)
   d. Health shows at weekly assemblies.
   e. Teacher is to serve as contact man between the Health Committee and the class.
3. Between Health Committee and other employees of the school:
   a. Committee member assignments (see section "D" above).
4. Between Health Committee and Parents:
   a. Parents-Teachers Association representative as a member of the committee.
   b. "Health News" sent to parents through the pupils.
   c. Demonstrations for the parents to be held at frequent intervals.

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d. Progress of the children's health to be reported to parents from time to time.

5. Between Health Committee and Community:
   a. Progress of the school program is to be published in the community paper and magazines.
   b. A standing invitation is to be extended to all community residents.
   c. Prominent leaders of the community are to be invited to speak before school assemblies and before Parents-Teachers Association meetings.
6. Between Health Committee and Those Interested Outside of the Community:
   a. All requests and inquiries are to be given the required attention at the earliest possible time.
   b. A standing invitation is to be extended to those interested in the workings of the committee.

M. DONALD ADOLPH.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

A Method of Presenting Cultural Material

The objectives of modern language study are not limited to the study of language and literature. The development of an interest in the civilization of the foreign people is recognized as our third objective.

1. In common practice, the encouragement of the cultural enthusiasm is a by-product of the actual study of the language. That is, an attempt is made to give the adolescent student a knowledge and an appreciation of the foreign people through reading selections referring to customs, through literature stressing regional life and at times through special history and cultural readers. This method is haphazard. Its aim is usually defeated and forgotten in the struggle with the difficulties of the language. At best, the pupil is left with a hazy idea of the life and culture of the people whose language is studied. Often the impressions thus received are basically false, being twisted by the exigencies of the typical story book or grammar book situation.

2. The imperfection of the method that hopes to give pupil knowledge and appreciation of a civilization only through the actual study of the foreign language and literature is recognized in the fact that the average modern language syllabus provides for the presentation, in the vernacular (English), of factual material that will orient the student in foreign culture.

The manner of presenting this material is, in accordance with a comfortably seated tradition, always schematic, logical. Culture is sliced into component sections: history, geography, industry, customs and so on. These sections are in turn cut into grades meant to conform to a putative scale of difficulty of understanding. So that during his first term of Spanish, the pupil's sympathy to take in the ideals and aspirations and traditions of Spaniards and Spanish Americans is to be enlarged by having him swallow the following bits of history, and the following dribbles of geography, and the following customs. During the second term, however, he is to be made to imbibe that much history, so much geography and such assorted customs.

The entire schema, as all diagrammatic creations, is easy on the schemer, but meaningless and unnatural to the learner.

3. The method of presentation set forth in the outline found below aims to suit the attitude and interests of the learner.

Its approach is not logical, but psychological. Instead of being schematic, it is topical. And instead of amputating a foreign civilization into correct categories, it leans on the practice of "co-centric" repetition in each term of important factual details.

(a) The Outline of German Civilization for the First Three Terms is made up of three series of coördinated topics. Each topic is presented as a lesson, in which the canonized divisions of geography, history, customs, and so forth, meet in natural unity, say, the kind of unity all these "categories" will find in a social discussion or in a newspaper article. (After motivating the topic for the class, the teacher refers the pupils to encyclopedias, books of reference and to the guidance of the school reference librarian or to the neighborhood public library. Reports by pupils may be either written or oral. They may be replaced by general class discussion guided by the teacher. Prints, picture postcards and photographs are circulated whenever the lesson calls for visual illustration.)

(b) The topics follow each other in an order of coherence that takes into consideration the interest of the learner. The most important factual details considered in the series for the first term are repeated (from a slightly different viewpoint) in the second term, and, if the need of completing the student's understanding of contemporary German civilization requires further repetition, also in the third term series.

(c) The three series of topics thus combine in an inclusive whole, the Understanding of the Civilization of the German People. The presentation moves along two basic lines of direction; from the near to the distant, from the present to the past.

German One

1. The German language. Related languages. Relation to English; cognates.
2. Where German is spoken; geography and brief description of Germany, Austria and Switzerland.
3. How Germany was made. Brief historic review (include Austria). Minimum of two lessons.
4. Regions of Germany, Bavaria, Saxony, Prussia, Rhineland, Silesia, Baltic Coast, East Prussia, Austria. Two lessons.
5. German childhood. Lower schools. Toys. Games.

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6. Vacation days of German youth. Wandervögel. Secondary schools.
7. Sports and amusements. Interest in athletics; public stadia. Outstanding performers.
8. The German home. Recent changes. Typical architecture. Furnishings.
9. German holidays: traditional, religious, national.
10. Social attitudes and polite usage. Expressions used in social intercourse. Dramatize.
11. Important German critics. Points of interest. Berlin, Vienna, Munich, Dresden, Hamburg, Cologne, Koenigsberg, Leipzig, Frankfurt, Bremen.
12. Great Germans. Goethe, Shiller, Frederick the Great, Luther, Charlemagne, Barbarossa, Einstein, Bismarck, Lessing, Heine, Beethoven, Roentgen.

German Two

1. Review topics 2 and 4 of German One outline.
2. Berlin. Map. Important streets. Public buildings and parks. Imperial castle. Potsdam. Sans Souci. Templehof.
3. Vienna, Prater. Dom of St. Stephen. Schonbrunn. Burg Theater. University. Museum.
4. Munich. Castle. Cathedral. Germanic Museum.
5. Dresden. Picture Galleries.
6. Leipzig. Book trade and famous publishers. Auerbachskeller Messe (fur) fairs.
7. Hamburg. Bremen. Lübeck. Harbors. Rathaus.
8. Danzig and East Prussia. Harbor, Gdynia, Polish Hinterland.
9. Rhineland. Frankfurt. Cologne. Essen. Ruhr region.
10. German schools and universities.
11. German industries: chemical, steel and iron, electrical.
12. German scientists.
13. German musicians: Bach, Beethoven, Wagner, Brahms, Mozart.
14. German literature: Goethe, Schiller, Heine.

German Three

1. German "Götterwelt." Nibelungenlied.
2. Life and habits of ancient Germans. Arminius and Varus. Tacitus' account of ancient Germans.
3. Franks and Charlemagne.
4. Middle Ages. Barbarossa. Rothenburg.
5. Nürnberg. Albrecht Dürer. Hans Sachs. Meistersinger.
6. Luther.
7. Frederick the Great.
8. Germany and Napoleon.
9. Bismarck.
10. World War.
11. German Republic. Rathenau, von Hindenburg, Hitler, Einstein.
12. Contemporary literature: names.
13. Contemporary music: names. Contemporary science: names.
14. List of German periodicals and newspapers.
15. Germans in the United States.

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Abraham Lincoln High School.

Chemical Names Commonly Mispronounced

It is obviously essential that teachers, in general, use good English and pronounce words correctly. With the different types of training for teachers of diverse subjects, there are varying degrees of attainment of this essential. I believe that we would all agree that it is possible and desirable, however, that each teacher should be able to pronounce the words common to his subject in accordance with accepted standards. With this in mind, the writer made a study of words common to the field of Elementary Chemistry.

The following list consists of words and names of scientists which the writer has found to be mispronounced most often. This mispronunciation may consist of the wrong pronunciation of part of the word or an accentuation of the wrong syllable. The authorities consulted were Funk and Wagnalls' Practical Standard Dictionary and Webster's New Standard Dictionary. This list is not intended to be all-comprehensive, but it is hoped that a careful study will lead to an awareness of possible deficiencies that may exist in this particular essential.

As a general rule, for words ending in *-ation*, the primary accent is always on the "a" before the "tion." For example, the word "concentration" is pronounced: kon″sen-tray′-shun. Similarly with such words as condensation, demonstration, distillation, evaporation, hydrogenation, oxidation, titration, and so forth.

Where two pronunciations are given, the most acceptable one is given first. The symbols used in dictionaries to indicate pronunciation have been omitted. For purposes of simplification, each word is respelled in phonetic fashion. The principal accent is indicated by (′) and the secondary accent by (″).

Word	*Pronunciation*
acidimetric	as″i-di-met′rik
acidimetry	as″i-dim′e-tri
aerate	ai′er-ate (*ai* as in "laid")
alkalimetric	al″ka-li-met′rik
alkalimetry	al″ka-lim′e-tri
allotrope	al′o-trope
allotropic	al″lo-trop′ik
allotropy	a-lot′ro-pi
antiseptic	an″ti-sep′tik
aqua	ai′kwa (*ai* as in "laid")
Arrhenius	a-rai′ni-us (*ai* as in "laid") ar-rai′ni-oos (*oo* as in "book")
associate	a-so′shi-ate
association	a-so″si-ai′shun a-so″shi-ai′shun
azo	az′o
Baeyer	buy′er bei′yer (*ei* as in "heir")

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Word	Pronunciation
bauxite	boze'ite / bo'zite
Becquerel	bek"rel'
benzene	ben'zene / ben-zene'
benzine	ben'zene
benzol	ben'zole / ben'zol
Berthelot	ber"te-lo' (the *e* following *t* may be omitted)
Berthollet	ber"toe"lay' / ber"toe"le' (the *e* after *l* as in "get")
Berzelius	ber-zee'li-us
boron	bo'ron
Bunsen	bun'sen / bun'zen / boon'sen (*oo* as in "foot")
caoutchoc	koo'chuk / kow'chook
carbonyl	car'bon-il
casein	kai'se-in (*ai* as in "laid")
chalybeate	ka-lib'e-ate
chlorine	klo'rine
concentrate	kon'sen-trait
condensate	kon-den'sate
Curie	ku"ree' (*u* as in "Dumas")
cyanamid	sy"an-am'id / sy-an'a-mid
deliquescence	del"i-kwes'ens
digest	di-jest' / die-jest'
digestion	di-jes'chun
diluent	dil'you-ent
dilute	di-liut' (*iu* as in "cute") / die-liut'
disinfectant	dis"in-fek'tant
dissociate	di-so'shi-ate
dissociation	dis-so"si-ai'shun (*ai* as in "laid") / dis-so"shi-ai'shun
dissolve	di-zolv'

Word	Pronunciation
distillate	dis-til'ate / dis'ti-late
efflorescence	ef"lo-res'ens
endothermic	en"doe-thur'mik
eudiometer	you"di-om'e-ter
exothermic	eks"o-thur'mik
extract (*verb*)	eks-trakt'
extract (*noun*)	eks'trakt
fluoric	floo-or'ik
fluorine	floo'o-rine -rin / floo'or-ine -in
fuel	few'el
gravimetric	grav"i-met'rik
gravimetry	gra-vim'e-tri
homogeneity	ho"mo-je-ne'i-ti / hom"o-je-ne'i-ti
homogeneous	ho"mo-jee'ne-us / hom"o-jee'ne-us
homologous	ho-mol'o-gus
homology	ho-mol'o-ji
hormone	hor'mone
hormones	hor'mo-neze
hydriodic	high"dri-od'ik
hydrobromic	high"dro-bro'mik
hydrocarbon	high"dro-kar'bon
hydrochloric	high"dro-klo'rik
hydrocyanic	high"dro-sigh-an'ik
hydrofluoric	high"dro-floo-or'ik
hygroscopic	high"gro-skop'ik
hypochlorous	high"po-klo'rus
incandescent	in"kan-des'ent
inert	in-urt'
inorganic	in"or-gan'ik
iodometric	eye"o-doe-met'rik
iodometry	eye"o-dom'e-tri
isomeric	eye"so-mer'ik
isomerism	eye-som'er izm
isomorphism	eye"so-mor'fizm
isomorphous	eye"so-mor'fus
laboratory	lab'o-ra-toe"ri
Lavoisier	la"vwa"zyai' (*ai* as in "laid")
Le Chatelier	le sha"te-leer'
Liebig	lee'bik / lee'bich (*ch* as in German)
liquefaction	lik"wi-fak'shun
liquefiable	lik'wi-fie"a-bl

Word	Pronunciation
liquefy	lik'wi-fie
magnesium	mag-nee'she-um / mag-nee'zhe-um / man"ga-nees' / man"ga-neez'
manganese	man-gan'-ik
manganic	man'ga-nus
manganous	men"de-lay'yef
Mendeleeff	mur-kiu'rik
mercuric	mur'kiu-rus / mur-kiu'rus
mercurous	mwa"sahn'
Moissan	nas'ent
nascent	nernst
Nernst	no'men-klay"chur / no-men-klay"tiur / oast'valt / ost'valt
nomenclature	pas"tur'
Ostwald	pes'l / pes'tl
Pasteur	thal'e-in / fthal'e-in
pestle	pi-rye'teez
phthalein	re-surch'
pyrites	re-tort'
research	runt'gen (*g* as in "gain") / rent'gen
retort	sa"ba"ty-ai' (*ty* as "tea"; *ai* as "laid")
Roentgen	sal'i-sil"ate
Sabatier	sal"i-sil'ik
salicylate	sheel / shay'le
salicylic	shun'bine / shoen'bine (*oe* as *u* in "burn")
Scheele	se-len'ik
Schönbein	se-le'ni-us
selenic	sep'a-ra-to-ri
selenious	so-liut' (*iu* as in "cute")
separatory	spek"tro-skop'ik
solute	spek-tros'ko-pi / spek'tro-sko"pi
spectroscopic	sta-lak'tite
spectroscopy	sta-lag'mite
stalactite	ste-ar'ik
stalagmite	ste'a-rin
stearic	stoi"ki-o-met'rik
stearin	stoi"ki-om'e-tri
stoichiometric	te-liu'rik
stoichiometry	tel'liu-rus
telluric	tho'ri-um
tellurous	vant hofe
thorium	vol"you-met'rik
van't Hoff	vu'ler (*u* as in "burn")
volumetric	
Wöhler (Woehler)	

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The Organization of the Chemistry Laboratory Work at the John Adams High School

This article is an outline of the organization of the laboratory work in chemistry, adopted at the John Adams High School a year ago and followed closely with all classes. It has been found that under the plan to be described, laboratory procedures have been materially simplified, preliminary manipulations reduced to a minimum, and teacher-supervision made more effective.

This plan was suggested by the writer and was developed under the sympathetic guidance of Mr. Alexander Efron, chairman of the Physical Science department. The coöperation of all teachers was next enlisted, thereby assuring the success of the plan.

The basis of the plan is the physical equipment of the laboratory. In this room there are nine work tables, each having four positions at which students carry on their experiments. Each table is numbered, the numbers running from one to nine. The in-

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dividual working positions are designated by letters A, B, C, D, following the respective table number. Thus, for example, we speak of position 6-A or 6-B and find both teacher and pupil distinctly aware of the exact location denoted by the symbol.

Adjacent to the Laboratory is the Preparation Room in which there is a large operation table. On this table there are nine spaces marked off for nine trays. Both spaces and trays are numbered to correspond with the nine laboratory tables. On the shelves of the preparation room there have been prepared sets of nine bottles of chemicals required at some time during the term. These bottles are of four and six ounce capacity, with waterproofed labels on which appear the names of the chemicals and a Table number. In addition to this the bottles have colored necks to designate acids, bases, dry chemicals and neutral liquids. This has proved to be a valuable aid to students as it fixes in their mind that acids turn litmus red and bases turn litmus blue. Moreover, a bottle with a colored neck can be readily located if it goes astray.

The functioning of the organization starts automatically with the entrance of the student into the laboratory, which is clear of all chemicals and apparatus. He goes directly to his assigned position so that the attendance may be taken as soon as the bell rings. This is followed by a class discussion of the work to be done, or perhaps something else that the teacher has planned. Since there are no chemicals or apparatus on the tables with which a pupil will invariably tinker, the teacher finds that he secures better attention from the class.

When these preliminaries are over, the teacher announces that the student who on the occasion of this particular experiment, occupies, say, the B position at each table, is to be the squad leader for the entire table, and should proceed to the preparation room to procure the tray for his group. These trays have already been prepared with everything necessary for the experiment for the four pupils in his group.

The teacher has designated the "B" position, because during the preliminary discussion, he has noted by a glance towards a sign on the wall, "The Squad Leader for this week is "B." This sign is changed every week to read A, B, C, or D. All classes in the laboratory are guided by this sign. In this way all students have an opportunity to be squad leaders at least four times during the term.

At the end of the experimental period the instructor gives the squad leaders instructions to gather all the chemicals, clean the sinks and tables, and return the trays to the preparation room. Each tray, by the way, has an individual scoop to aid in the important matter of housecleaning. The class is now ready for the write-up of the experiment, or any discussion that the teacher feels advisable at this point. As mentioned before, this is accomplished without any disturbance caused by students playing with apparatus or chemicals.

During this lull in laboratory work, the scene of activity is transferred to the preparation room. Depleted items in the trays are replenished by the Laboratory Assistant and a member of the preparation room squad. This completes the "distribution" cycle of the laboratory work for any one class, and this cycle will repeat itself with every class using the laboratory.

On the other hand, the work in the preparation room follows a cycle which takes a full week to complete. The chemistry department is so organized that all classes of second-term chemistry finish their laboratory work before the first-term classes begin theirs. This arrangement enables the Laboratory Assistant to prepare for one group of classes while experiments are in progress in the other group of classes.

The routine that is followed usually starts about two days before the first scheduled laboratory day of either group. A card is posted in the preparation room by the Laboratory Assistant. The card lists the materials required for each tray for the next group. These materials are gathered in advance, during the period devoted to the experimental work of the preceding group, and placed in a duplicate set of numbered trays. After the last class of the preceding group has completed its laboratory work and the squad leaders have returned their trays to the preparation room, the trays are dismantled. Chemicals and apparatus are returned to their respective places in the preparation room. The newly prepared trays are then set on the numbered spaces on the preparation room table and thus automatically complete the cycle of one week's work as followed in the laboratory and in the preparation room.

In concluding, it might be mentioned that in addition to the educational and disciplinary values derived from this plan by both pupil and teacher, the chemistry department as a whole has likewise benefited because waste of materials and loss of apparatus have been materially reduced.

ARNOLD ZELVIN.
John Adams High School.

What One German Club Is Doing

The very alert group of girls who form our German Club have started this term with much enthusiasm. (Last term they gave three programs before school assemblies.)

I have found a way to direct this enthusiasm into a channel of activity which they enjoy and which at the same time requires much more activity from them than from me, their adviser. (We know they say that the skillful administrator is the one who gets other people to do the work planned by him. We also know that a club of any kind is most successful when its members, and not its advisers, are the ones most active.)

At the first meeting of the club in the new term, I had ready five little packages of books, representing five different German plays. In each package were enough books to supply each girl who would want to take a rôle in each play. Volunteer groups were formed for each of the plays.

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This means that twenty-two girls memorized dramatic parts. The play having the smallest number of rôles (three) was performed first. The others are to be given later at two-week intervals.

At other club meetings the girls who are particularly interested in our yearly magazine, *Bunte Bogen*, constitute themselves as a board of editors and select, correct and discuss contributions which have been received. At three extra meetings one of our teachers, Miss Büttner, is giving talks on Wagner and Brahms and on changes in Germany which she observed during her recent Sabbatical year abroad.

DOROTHEA ELTZNER,
Chairman, German Department.

Washington Irving High School.

A French "Boner"

Mr. Editor: Is the following not a "high point"? It was at least a mirthful one on a gloomy day. The lesson was on imperatives.

Teacher: "Cinquième verbe."

Pupil: "Cinquiémissons, cinquiémissez"; let us sink; sink!

M. L. R.

"I'm Unprepared"

Perhaps the two most disconcerting words uttered by students in the classroom are "I'm unprepared." This bald response, especially if frequent, tends to undermine the morale of the class and to pique the disposition of the teacher. Class time too is usually consumed while the teacher "settles the case."

It was precisely the frequency of such an unpleasant situation that prompted me to make a little study during the spring term of 1932. During that term, when a student came unprepared in any of my classes, I had him sign his name on a form sheet and write the reason for coming unprepared. Statistically there were that entire term in my five classes of about 160 students 91 cases of lack of preparation. This number included those who failed to do all of their assigned task, written or oral. The reasons for lack of preparation, as indicated on the sheet, were as follows: 23 students were too busy with other matters or other homework; 19 failed to copy the assignment, or copied it incorrectly; 13 were ill; 5 found the assignment too difficult; 5 lost either the assignment book, the text-book, or the homework itself: 5 forgot to do the homework; 4 were absent; 3 broke or lost their glasses; 2 were lazy; 2 fell asleep over their work; 1 had a death in the family; 9 offered no reason.

In this list there were a few second offenders, fewer third offenders, and if the Baumes law were operative in school two students would now be serving life sentences. Of course some of the students might have written false excuses, but I doubt if there were many such.

The following term I adopted a new plan. When a student came unprepared I simply handed him a mimeographed sheet which read:

Date.....

Dear Mr. .....:

Your son (daughter) came to school today unprepared in.....
and offers the following excuse:

.....

.....

As a parent you understand that failure on the part of your child to do homework usually leads to bad results at the close of the term. Kindly sign this note as evidence that you realize the seriousness of the situation. Whatever you can do in the way of coöperation will be appreciated.

Very truly yours,

.....
Parent's Signature

.....

The sheet was to be returned the following day properly filled out. That entire term in my five classes of about 170 students I handed out exactly 24 such "unprepared" sheets. I felt satisfied when I compared this number with that of the preceding term. The trick worked. The "unprepared" sheet addressed to parents served as a deterrent for many a student.

CHARLES I. FREUNDLICH.
Morris High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Erratum

The article entitled "What to Do with the Gifted Child in Secretarial Studies," which appeared on pages 18-21 of our issue for February, 1933, was erroneously credited to Mr. Edward M. Kanzer of James Monroe High School. The writer of the article was Mr. Benjamin Fromberg, Chairman of the Department of Commercial Education in that school. Our apologies are here tendered to Mr. Fromberg for this error.—EDITOR.

A Plea to Our Contributors

We greatly appreciate the interest shown by hundreds of teachers in this magazine, particularly as that interest is manifested by sending us contributions for our columns. May we intimate, as tactfully as possible, that our appreciation would be enhanced by several degrees if contributors would have their manuscripts always typed with *double space* between the lines and if they would use only 8" by 11" paper.—EDITOR.

A Short Classified Bibliography on Spain

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Mary Stevenson Callcott.

Latin in Italy

Under the inspiring leadership of Premier Benito Mussolini not only have new and important streets been opened up, old fora excavated and most valuable archeological remains of ancient Rome discovered, but a new and vitalizing impulse has been given to the wider use of Latin as an international language. The Institute of Roman Studies is sponsoring the undertaking whose Director, Carlo Galassi Paluzzi, announces these initial steps:

1. International congresses and conferences will be asked to publish their minutes and official statements in Latin.
2. Contact will be established with interested groups in all countries to coördinate the movement.
3. Contests will be held periodically for the best examples of written and spoken Latin.
4. Experts will be entrusted with compilation of lexicons containing the Latin translation of peculiar phrases.
5. All countries will be requested to encourage wider teaching of the language in schools and universities.

All teachers and lovers of an education which really educates will take heart anew at these forward steps. The increasing disuse of Latin among high school and college pupils in the larger cities of the United States—not so in smaller communities—has been occasioned not so much by the difficulties of the language as by the defective way it has been taught. Latin for the able youth is the one study without which there can be no real education. This new impulse cannot fail to impress both pupils and parents with the real need of mastering Latin.

Ernest D. Daniels.
Boys High School.

Ten Million More Pupils—Same Number School Buildings

Our one-room schools are gradually decreasing in number, and have been decreasing in number since 1918, the first year for which data are available, but approximately 60 per cent. of all public school buildings now used in the United States are still of the one-room type, according to E. M. Foster, chief statistician of the Federal Office of Education.

In the 10 years from 1920 to 1930, Mr. Foster points out, the number of one-room schools decreased at the average rate of 4,052 per year. From 1928 to 1930, however, the rate of decrease was only 2,297 per year. In 1918 there were 195,400 one-room schools in the United States; in 1930 there were 148,712.

It is interesting to note that the West North Central division of States, including Minnesota, Iowa,

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Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas reported having 46,186 one-room schools, 79.69 per cent. of all schools being the one-room type, a higher percentage than that of any other region. Next highest percentage of one-room schools is found in the East North Central division, including such States as Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, with 68.46 per cent. of all schools the one-room type.

Average Percentage

Of all types of schools, the average percentage of one-room schools in the United States is 60.14. New England, Middle Atlantic, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain and Pacific division States fall below this average.

Not considering the District of Columbia, because it has a city environment only, Utah had the smallest percentage of one-room schools in 1930, while South Dakota had the largest percentage, approximately 14 per cent. and 88 per cent., respectively.

Number of School Buildings

"The total number of public school buildings increased steadily from 1870 to 1915," Federal Office of Education records indicate. There has been a decrease since 1915. In 1930, Mr. Foster reveals, about the same number of school buildings were in use as there were in 1900, although about 30,000 new buildings came into use between 1900 and 1915. An equal number was discontinued from 1915 to 1930. Consolidation of schools and transportation of pupils are causes of the decrease in number of school buildings.

School attendance in public elementary and high schools has shown an increase of approximately 10,000,000 since 1900.

—*Release of the U. S. Office of Education.*

For Study in Spain

Summer Course for Foreigners

This summer, as in the past summers, the Ministry of Public Instruction of the Spanish Government will conduct at the Residencia de Estudiantes, under the auspices of the Centro de Estudios Históricos, its Summer Course for Foreigners. Courses planned particularly for students and teachers of foreign birth will be given by eminent teachers of the Peninsula. In the past, the majority of the 125 to 200 students in the four-weeks course have been North Americans. Daily lectures and recitations during the first five days of the week are combined with week-end excursions to places of historical and cultural significance. Most of the students reside in the dormitories of the Residencia. The official representation in the United States of this Summer Course is vested in the Instituto de las Españas of Columbia University. The official study and travel party of the Instituto is under the direction of Mr. William M. Barlow of Curtis High School, Staten Island. Inquiries about the party or about any matter connected with study in Spain may be addressed to Mr. Barlow or to the Instituto at the Casa de las Españas, 535 West 117th Street, Manhattan.

The International University

The International University of Santander, founded by the Spanish Republic, on the initiative of the Minister of Public Instruction, Don Fernando de los Ríos, is organizing a ten weeks summer course of general studies including scientific and literary subjects, primarily for Spanish students, but which may be attended by foreign students. The lectures at the International University will be given by the most eminent professors from Spanish Universities and will be attended by over two hundred Spanish university students. It is therefore a unique occasion for anyone desiring to get into touch with real Spanish university life at a time when all other Spanish universities are closed for the summer vacation.

In addition, the International University has arranged a special course for foreign students to be held from August 1 to 30 at the Palace of La Magdalena, the former royal summer residence. The program will include study of Spanish literature, language and phonetics, art and institutions. —*News Bulletin*, Institute of International Education.

REVIEW

An analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1927-1932

Compiled by Algernon Coleman, Professor in the University of Chicago. The University of Chicago Press.

Few American educators of recent times are so well known to modern language teachers as Professor Algernon Coleman, author of the very much discussed "Coleman Report." Therefore, this new book by him merits more than passing notice. Despite the fact that in the present volume he avoids the controversial spheres and simply limits himself to occasional mild and brief critical comments appended to the tail-end of objective summaries and analyses, the book is bound to be of interest and profit to progressive schoolmen.

As stated in the Foreword, Coleman's *Bibliography* "is practically exhaustive for the United States and Canada, and includes also the more important contributions to the subject from England, France, and Germany. It gives a digest of the contents of all books, articles, and reports which have been published, and of a considerable number of unpublished Master's and Doctor's dissertations, in a manner adequate for their understanding, even though in brief space. It seeks to do this without bias and in an objective spirit. Occasionally, where fairness to the user of the volume demands a critical attitude, the

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work under discussion is judged solely for the fulfilment of non-fulfilment of its avowed purpose."

This analytical inventory consists of 570 items by over 400 different authors. New York City teachers will be especially interested to learn that of the twenty-eight periodicals from which significant articles were summarized, our own HIGH POINTS ranks fourth in the number of articles chosen, the other three being *The Modern Language Journal, The French Review,* and *Hispania;* that the largest number of Master's Dissertations dealing with the pedagogy of modern languages comes from our City College; and that the New York City *Syllabus of Minima in Modern Foreign Langauges* (1931) follows in general the results of the scientific investigations of the Modern Foreign Langauge Study, while the New York State *Tentative Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages* (1930) shows hardly any influence at all of the eighteen volumes of researches and recommendations of the important American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, or, I might add, of any valuable experimental studies.

The 570 analyses are classified under the following headings: Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages; Psychology of Language Learning; General Trends in Language Teaching; Aims, Materials, and Methods; Tests and Testing; Correlation and Transfer; Training of Teachers; Foreign Language Teaching in European Schools. It is significant to note that of all these main headings and the many subdivisions, the subject of Reading in its various aspects, together with its essential complement of Vocabulary and Idioms, has called forth a larger number of studies than any other topic. It is also gratifying to note that most of the authors of the studies on Reading, although writing from the four corners of the United States as well as from such diverse and distant places as Japan, Russia, and India, are convinced, just as we are in New York City, that reading for comprehension and enjoyment is the paramount aim of modern language instruction.

Coleman's *Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching* is a worthy sequel to Buchanan and MacPhee's invaluable *Annotated Bibliography Methodology.* Both were published under the auspices of the Modern Foreign Language Study. The latter volume treats of the development of foreign language instruction during the fifty years prior to 1927, while the present volume takes up the story from that point and brings it down to the middle of 1932. Unlike the older volume, the more recent *Bibliography* does not evaluate textbooks nor does it consider significant trends of text-book construction. However, Professor Coleman informs us that the Committee on Modern Language Teaching (which is the present designation of the group that is carrying on the work of the Modern Foreign Language Study) is preparing a separate volume on recently published text-books and the newest tendencies in the field.

This convenient, well-organized compilation of current opinions, practices, and experimental data should prove very helpful to the many earnest teachers of modern foreign languages who desire to know what other progressive educators are thinking and doing to improve their teaching. Once again Professor Coleman has made a decidedly valuable and timely contribution towards our professional advancement which deserves to meet with a cordial reception.

HYMEN ALPERN,
Chairman, Spanish Department.
De Witt Clinton High School.

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Books concerned with educational matters may be sent for review to Miss Helen L. Cohen, Washington Irving High School. School text-books will not be reviewed.

The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11" in size. They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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THE school, then, cannot build a new social order nor should teachers combine as a group to penetrate from within. This is not a matter of courage or cowardice; it is a question of fact which all history of education has proved and which the study of any educational system, even the most radical and revolutionary, confirms. The school can only build the social order which society desires and derives its coloring from the social scene; it does not create or modify it but strengthens and gives reality to it. This condition does not detract from the task which teachers can perform and that is to devote more attention to the meaning of the culture and ideals, the hopes and ambitions which society expects to attain through the school, to discover the reasons for the break in gauge between school and society, to analyze the causes for the failure of the school to fulfill the duties which it has professedly assumed, in a word, to make the public more conscious of the ideals which it fundamentally does desire for its children, to dignify and enoble them.

For the teachers as a profession there still remains the imperative duty of visualizing and giving reality to the dream of America, to discover whether there is an American culture which can furnish ideals and reality for the school; without this, preoccupation with methods and curricula, with techniques and devices for the improvement of the school, and with developing a so-called science of education, is meaningless. Without embarking on a utopian vision of a new social order, the American school still has much to achieve, if it can instil into the minds of the growing generation ideals of freedom and equality, tolerance and open-mindedness, and an attitude of criticism and intellectual sensitiveness to the situation as it is, based not on sentiment and theory but on ascertained facts and knowledge; if it can cultivate enlightenment based not on scepticism but on inquiry and thought; and if it can develop an ideal of individualism which recognizes that one's own interest lies not in success at the expense of others, but insistently demands a sense of social responsibility and coöperation.

In this sense, because these are fundamentally American ideals, the school can build the social order; in a constituted society the social order is changed by a slow process whose manifestations are incalculable; the school reflects social demands but does not initiate social change. A new education can be developed when the public has determined what the nature of the new America will be; to reverse the process would be to plough the sands.

I. L. KANDEL

Professor of Education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, in his article, "Can the School Build a New Social Order?" The Kadelphian Review for January, 1933

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OBSERVATIONS ON READING*

IT is with some degree of hesitation that I speak to this body of expert schoolmen. You are so closely in touch with modern language teaching that I fear anything I may be able to say will be carrying coals to Newcastle and they may be of an inferior quality. However, perhaps I may say something to make my coming worthwhile, if I simply enlarge upon one or two aspects of this very big problem of reading that are already suggested in your new syllabus. Indeed, I might say that there is hardly any aspect of reading that has not been touched upon in that admirable guide for modern language teachers.

At the present time we have launched out anew on a course that aims to make reading, direct reading, the goal, and in as large amounts as are possible without sacrificing fair standards of thoroughness. We may not be as successful as we should like, but at least we shall have had a good try. It would in itself be a great step forward if teachers would wholeheartedly accept the reading aim and work towards it. Rice, in a monograph dealing with the achievement of California children, published by the Study, says, "that each teacher teaches, in the main, as he or she sees fit. One teacher believes reading to be the main objective and subordinates speaking ability. Another believes in grammar and spends a great proportion of his time in building up a systematic knowledge of the structure. A third believes that a student should learn a foreign language much as he picked up his native language, belittles any attempt to teach a living language by a method based on reading."

But conversation alone to the belief in the reading aim will not be sufficient. We must provide teachers with proper materials, with proper textbooks. A teacher may take courses in teaching, have syllabi provided him, but ultimately he will be guided very largely by the presentation indicated in the text-book that he uses. They, and not the principles he had heard or read, will be the controlling influence. The material is organized for him so that he is naturally greatly guided by it whether he is poorly or well equipped, whether he is lazy or overworked. If then reading is to be the accepted aim the books used must be as fool-proof as possible both for teachers as well as pupils and organized to this end. This applies to all kinds of books used in the course, beginners' books as well as texts for reading.

I should like to confine my remarks today largely to gradation as a factor in the organization of the reading

*An address given before the spring meeting of the Chairmen of Modern Language Departments in the high schools, March 23, 1933.

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course. If pupils are to acquire facility in reading, we must scrap prevailing ideas of gradation, particularly for those pupils who do not advance beyond the first two years. I do not see how it is possible to expect them to read with any real degree of skill unless we make far fewer demands upon them, particularly from the standpoint of vocabulary. Our present reading courses are too much based upon the traditional Latin course which compels pupils to plod slowly up a steep gradient due to the fact that, among other difficulties, they will have to meet so many new words in each text read.

Pupils presumably acquire as the result of studying a beginners' book a fairly good knowledge of its vocabulary. As the one chosen may contain little reading material, a Reader or a so-called simple text will probably be chosen either to accompany it or to follow. Now if reading is the aim, it would seem to be horse-sense to have a close agreement between the vocabularies of the two texts. The pupils should be able to capitalize to the fullest extent possible the highly important stock of words contained in the initial book. However, such will usually not be the case. If the books are by different authors, or even by the same author, as far as my knowledge goes, the relationship is anything but a close one. For example, the vocabulary of a very popular Grammar was checked against the words contained in a widely known Reader. It was found that about 20 per cent of the words were common to the two. And if the Reader is checked against a text which in the ordinary course of events might be expected to follow, again we find less than 25 per cent of the words common to the two. If we check the words common to the Grammar, Reader and text, only 10 per cent of the words are found in all three books. And when we realize that well over half of the words in any one text occur but once and well over three-quarters occur fewer than five times, we have a right, I believe, to conclude that no reading course, however well taught, if graded in this way as to vocabulary, will permit much improvement in the present rate of reading. I feel sure that the only way to increase the reading rate of pupils is by developing a kind of reading material that will keep within a much narrower vocabulary range than is now the case. I do not profess to know what gross reading vocabulary the average high school pupil can be expected to know as the result of two years' study. In another place I have tentatively fixed it at two thousand. It would indeed be desirable to experiment with a lower rather than a higher figure than this.

In the past few years since the epidemic of vocabulary studies, a number of books have appeared whose authors boast of the close relationship between the vocabularies contained in their books and those contained in the frequency word-books published by the Modern Foreign Language Study. But upon closer examination we find, particularly in German text-books, that the vocabularies are in reality not close and are much larger than their authors say. Although I admit this is an exaggerated case, the fact that a pupil knows *Feld* and *Herr*, does not justify one in counting *Feldherr* as a known word. Nor can we be too sure that English cognates for French and Spanish words will at once be recognized and therefore need not be counted, arguing that they will not be any added burden to the pupil learning to read. All experimental studies tend to show that we cannot rely too much upon the relationship between the mother and a foreign tongue. The French word for *âge* was missed by at least three per cent of pupils in a vocabulary test. I should therefore like to set 2,000 flat as the maximum, including close cognates and compounds in that figure. When one considers the range of meaning of many words, it will be found, I believe, ample for the average pupil.

On what basis shall we determine what words shall appear in the texts intended for reading? My answer is that they should be closely related to an accredited word-list. In spite of many criticisms and objections to word-lists, I consider those sponsored by the Modern Foreign Language Study to be one of the most important contributions of that whole investigation. I am willing to grant that for purposes of reading we might have a dozen equally good word-lists. But if a new reading course is to be launched we cannot do better than tie it, although not slavishly, to the objective word counts published by the Study.

An author who planned a whole course from the initial book through a series of interlocked reading texts would have, broadly speaking, an advantage in the development of a suitable reading course. Authors abroad have long since deemed it advisable to work out a course from start to finish, and this, I believe, accounts in part for the better results obtained there. Latterly this same plan is being pursued more and more in this country. I personally think that the best solution is for an author to provide all the organized material of all kinds necessary for pupils in at least the first and second years of foreign language study. The vocabulary could then rise slowly from the first reading material; the collocations could also be carefully graduated.

At the present time we divide reading texts, following the sequence adopted by the old Committee of Twelve, roughly into elementary, intermediate, and advanced texts. This idea of gradation will no longer do. It suggests, to be sure, a crude kind of gradation on the basis of plateaus or levels. We need, however, more than that. We need a number of texts all on the same level, all employing largely the same basic vocabulary. Instead of saying, "this is an elementary text," a publisher could state, "such and such a text keeps within the first thousand word-range," or "this text is on the 1,500 word-level." I believe that Hagboldt has the right idea in a forthcoming series of German texts. If a pupil reads five texts, 200 pages in all, that never rise

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above, say, the 1,000 word-level, is it not reasonable to suppose that by the time the fifth is reached his rate of reading on that level will have increased? Reading texts then that could be thus rated, whether published by this firm or that firm, would be found to be suitably graded at least as far as vocabulary is concerned and could be read in any sequence. All texts on the same level would contain a very high percentage of words in common and not as at present a 25 or 30 per cent relationship between one so-called elementary text and another. I quite realize some of the difficulties this entails and I know and appreciate at least some of the objections based either on real or sentimental grounds. It means that so far as the two-year course is concerned all reading texts must be either made to order or, if the regular short stories by French, Spanish, Italian, or German authors are to be used, they must not only be simplified from the standpoint of vocabulary, but in many other ways as well. It will naturally be easier to provide the reading material on the 1,000, 1,500, and 2,000 word-levels if it is definitely written with this end in view. It will be more difficult to bring an original French story, for example, into line, but I believe it can be successfully done.

Authors have not hesitated to construct reading material in books for beginners, but many people rightly feel that they want their classes to read some real French or Spanish. A greater objection is with regard to what many consider mutilation of an author's work. They say that simplification and virtual re-writing of a foreign author's work will not only take the heart out of a story, but is ethically wrong as well. Moreover, the reading course would then tend to become static. It would practically limit the reading to modified texts of authors who have long since passed to their reward. One might easily enlarge upon these and other points. As a matter of fact, I would advocate this kind of simplified textual material only for the average pupil in the first two years of language study. If the foreign language is to be pursued for a longer period, there are a number of natural texts which, if selected with care, might well be read without recourse to modification. Undoubtedly one would then try to choose literary texts, so far as they are appropriate, that are nearer to our own times.

I realize there is still further objection that many will raise. It is going to be difficult to keep constructed texts that have much factual content within the vocabulary range I have suggested. I am of course referring to reading material of the *Kulturkunde* type. Factual knowledge about a foreign people and small vocabulary do not readily go together. If we are not too ambitious, however, I believe something worth-while can be accomplished. It has already been found possible, particularly in beginners' books, to provide reading about the foreign people whose language is being studied which employs a small vocabulary consisting of words of high frequency. The material will have to

be kept simple as regards vocabulary and the facts easily assimilable as well, for there cannot be any detailed information or elaborate description. Much must be done by mere suggestion or reference which the well-informed teacher can expand. A reading course, however, such as I have in mind cannot, I feel sure, be successfully built round the central core "France and the French," etc. The simplified narrative story must predominate. If factual material of this nature is regarded as essential, it should be assigned as reading to be done in English during the first two years. The time to push the reading of texts dealing specifically with *Kulturkunde* is during the third and fourth years. By that time, the maturer and more highly selected pupils will have mastered the mechanics of direct reading and should be able to cope successfully with factual reading matter and the larger and to a certain extent more specialized vocabulary.

This plan of reading texts organized on the plateau basis is nothing new. You are undoubtedly acquainted with the series of English readers constructed by West on a somewhat different plan. With the work of Ogden and Palmer and, in French, with the simplified texts of Miss Eddy and others. They have shown that it is possible to offer pupils reading that is palatable even though the vocabulary range is narrow and largely confined to such words of highest frequency as have been determined by objective word counts. If there is any difference in my plan, it is that there should be a concerted effort on the part of many authors and editors whose texts are handled by different publishers to have their output conform to the above-mentioned principles. You will probably think it is a pipe-dream, that such coöperation is not only impossible but perhaps undesirable. Maybe! The fact remains, to my way of thinking, that there is no possible hope of finding a satisfactory solution of the reading problem, so far as the elementary pupil is concerned, unless we afford him vocabulary relief and a great deal of it.

The vocabulary problem, though fundamental, is only one step on the way towards simplification. If reading difficulties were simply vocabulary difficulties, we should long since have devised a technique that would have solved the problem. It is quite conceivable that a text may have a comparatively small vocabulary consisting of words of comparatively high frequency and yet be by no means easy. The great stumbling block is that in connected speech there are so many, many thousands of possible syntactical combinations. Idiom lists which we fortunately possess will be helpful in this process of simplification, and naturally difficult sentence structure will often have to be modified. We are sorely in need of syntactical studies to tell us what are the most frequent construction patterns, the causes of reading snags, and what are for pupils difficult collocations. No doubt it will also frequently be necessary, when a natural text is involved, to make some

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concessions with regard to the inclusion of certain words, for it will not be possible to exclude at times words that are on much higher levels. The story could not be told without them. But I believe they will be relatively few and will not violate the principle I have outlined. If necessary, help could always be given in the form of foot-notes or even by interlinear translation. Into these problems of detail I cannot go. Palmer, in a memorandum entitled "The Grading and Simplifying of Literary Material" throws some light on the matter.

Is it a confession of weakness and despair that we have to resort to manufactured and doctored reading even during the first two years of the foreign language courses? I do not know how you feel, but I for one should be contented if we could teach pupils to read with skill within the narrow range described. Surely the language study would then be of more real value to them than continuing with a kind of reading material that is obviously too difficult for them.

I should now like to retrace my steps and speak about the beginners' book from the standpoint of vocabulary. For while the gradation of texts from the points of view of vocabulary, structure, and thought will be of great help towards solving our difficulties, there will still be a need for a beginners' book in which the language to be learned is more definitely organized than any reading text could or should be. To the mere novice the new language seems but a sea of words as yet uncharted; some arrangement then seems required if the learner is not to flounder and ultimately sink. To change the figure of speech, one cannot expect the mere beginner to command a whole army at the outset. He must first learn how to control squads of words and forms, to make them execute at first only simple evolutions. I do not believe that a pupil at first learns to read simply through reading. The amount and kind of organization will depend not only on the language to be studied but also upon the degree of skill deemed necessary to make for sound reading. And it is my opinion that we have much to learn before we solve these perplexing problems. There is a great need of experimentation. For centuries now we have been very grammatically minded. It has been for the most part the tradition that the beginners' book should be closely tied to that body of knowledge, which, for lack of a better term, we loosely call grammar. As I know no better approach to suggest, I assume that the beginners' book is a sort of camouflaged name for what used to be nearly always called a Grammar. As a matter of fact, we still so call it.

I can here deal only in the matter of vocabulary, which, up to the present time, has never been reasonably well settled as to its nature, its size, and the degree of control deemed necessary. Up to within recent years each author has been a law unto himself when it came to the selection of words that were to be included in his beginners' book. He has picked them just as they came, as a well-known

author assured me some years ago he had done. And we know the results of such random picking; the words common to a group of beginners' books is few. If, however, a reading course for the elementary stage should be developed along the lines I have indicated, we ought to make some headway towards solving the problem of the vocabulary of the beginners' book in terms of the reading aim.

In general, there are two fairly distinct types of beginners' books. The first is a compendium in which the author endeavors within a comparatively brief compass to provide pupils with the language skill deemed necessary for the next, usually the reading, stage. It may of course contain some reading matter, but in relatively small amounts. It is in large measure a work book constructed along grammatical lines and containing a more or less elaborate machinery in the form of drills. The other type is a combined grammar and reader. If we think of our present state of affairs, relative to the reading aim, it would seem that the combination book has certain distinct advantages when it comes to correlating the vocabulary needed to afford adequate skill in the use of fundamental facts of grammar and that needed in reading. The author could decide within what frequency range the words in his book should lie, and then select a definite number for special practice in the form of exercises. It would be a homogeneous vocabulary divided roughly into active and passive words. Where to draw the line between the two, and particularly how to determine the make-up of the active vocabulary is by no means easy in a course which lays stress upon the oral means of approach to reading.

There have been a number of criticisms made against the word lists published by the Foreign Language Study on the score that they are defective as a basis for oral work; that environmental words are lacking among others equally important; that in general it was a reading list rather than an oral one. There are, I believe, just grounds for criticism if oral work is to play a definite part in the foreign language method, as many are convinced it should. Yet in a suggested list of 1000 active German words, published in the March number of the *German Quarterly*, I was rather surprised to see how many of these could be found in other compiled reading lists including the most defective, the Morgan-Kaeding *German Word-book* published by the Study. To be sure, the correlation between the first 1000 words contained in these lists and the active list just mentioned is not high. But if one checks this 1000 word active list against a larger figure, 2000, that I have suggested as the reading range, then the correlation is exceedingly close. Yet I must admit I am at present somewhat nonplussed when it comes to finding a wholly satisfactory solution of the active vocabulary problem in the beginners' book. If recognition grammar were generally accepted as the best means to prepare for reading, no real difficulties need arise. As I have said, a frequency list

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could form the basis of the entire reading course and from this the author could select important words for inclusion in the newer recognition types of exercises now being exploited. But if the pupils are to be taught an active control in which question and answer work among other language exercises are to play an important part in the development of that control, then some additions will have to be made to the objective frequency lists. It was partly with this idea in mind that a committee was appointed by the American Association of Teachers of German to revise the original German Word-book; not only was it to remedy certain glaring defects in the original list, but it was, at the same time, to make certain concessions to the principle of frequency so as to meet the general demand for words useful for classroom work in speaking. Similar concessions will undoubtedly have to be made in connection with the word lists for French and Spanish.

I should not like to leave the impression with you that I advocate any slavish following of word lists in determining what words should be found in reading texts, intensive as well as extensive, especially for the elementary stage. I am by no means a stickler for the 100 per cent agreement between them and the frequency lists. But surely frequency is a highly important factor in the selection of vocabulary. And if we tie the words of the successively read texts to some accepted list, at the same time delimiting the range, we can, if we want to, provide an abundance of extensive reading even at a fairly low level, say of 1,000 words.

Since writing out this talk, I have begun to wonder whether I have not exaggerated the need for extensive reading during the first two years of the modern language course. I notice, for example, that in your syllabus only 85 pages of extensive reading are expected of French pupils during the entire second year. That strikes me as a very low figure. One is hardly justified in calling it extensive reading even if some additional supplementary reading is done. This seems scarcely more than was done in years gone by. I may of course be wrong in thinking that more can be expected.

Before closing I should once more like to give very briefly the scheme I had in mind. The ideal combined grammar and reader would contain a vocabulary of about 1000 words, as far as possible those having the greatest frequency. The reading material would consist of two types, the intensive and the extensive, developing side by side after the first few weeks of the course. The vocabulary of each passage of intensive reading would be utilized to the fullest extent and combined with words used previously so as to provide a new and longer story that should be read with ease. Now and then one could introduce sparingly words that are to appear in a subsequent selection. As the course proceeded intensive reading would remain fairly constant as to amount; while extensive reading on the other hand should notably increase. The extensive reading proper, apart from that contained in the beginners' book, would involve a total vocabulary of about 2000 different words. These texts might be constructed on a number of levels within the 2000 range, starting with 1000, so that a pupil who had read three or four booklets at the appropriate level would be ready to cope successfully with the next higher. Finally, although I have seemingly advocated the simplification of original texts, it is my honest belief that we stand a better chance of success if the average pupil is taught during the first and second years to read textual material that is, in great measure, specially constructed for him, rather than simplified literary texts of foreign authors.

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ACHIEVING THE OBJECTIVES OF HISTORY TEACHING*

WORKING from the dictum of progressive educators that society and school cannot be divorced from each other, it necessarily follows that the tremendous advances which our industrial economy has made in recent years has rendered obsolete the pedagogical principles of yesterday. Predicated upon a static social structure, they ill meet the needs of a world of changing social values. History has taught us that the *sina qua non* of the preservation of any civilization is ready adaptability to change. Our educational system must, therefore, consider this social phenomenon in the reconstruction of its methodology.

The conventional recitation with its emphasis upon the attainment of knowledge, rather than upon thinking, is obviously passé. Its direct antithesis, the laboratory method, transcends the anachronistic hearing of recitations which makes of the teacher a martinet, rather than a director of the thought processes of his students. If reflective thinking is accepted as a worth-while objective, the teaching of history must be raised out of the morass of a dry, uncritical recital of unimportant data. The imagination of the student must be stimulated. This alone makes possible the evocation of creative ideas. The laboratory method purports to make history real, alive and vital. The student is in a workshop (library) surrounded by material and tools out of which he can fashion crystallized concepts. This, of course, demands a predetermined and intelligent supervision by the teacher.

Here no premium is put upon the collocation and absorption of facts—a time-hallowed, but unfortunate, educational objective. Pedantry must go if it makes wisdom impossible. "One

*This is the third in a series of articles designed to show specifically how the classroom teacher attempts to realize the objectives of history teaching.—ASSOCIATE EDITOR.

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must not only know, one must understand."

The laboratory method does away with false indoctrination and catechization. The student is compelled to search, to study, to weigh and compare. Independent and clear thinking is developed; and all of the faculties of the learner are brought into use. The hope of building an intelligent and socially minded citizenry is dependent upon these considerations.

The following are presented, not as typical model lessons, but as suggestions of the immense possibilities inherent in a progressive method, and, incidentally, represent an honest attempt to develop an intelligent appreciation of history.

I.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRACY

Ultimate Aim: To develop in the students an ability to interpret charts that express social science data.

Specific Aim: The development of democracy in Europe since 1789.

Procedure: The chart furnished you presents the development of democracy in Europe since 1789. Bear in mind that

a. The expression "European country" refers to England and the countries on the continent of Europe.

b. The expression "Continental country" refers to a country on the continent of Europe and *does not* include England.

Answer the following questions based on the chart by filling in the space provided:

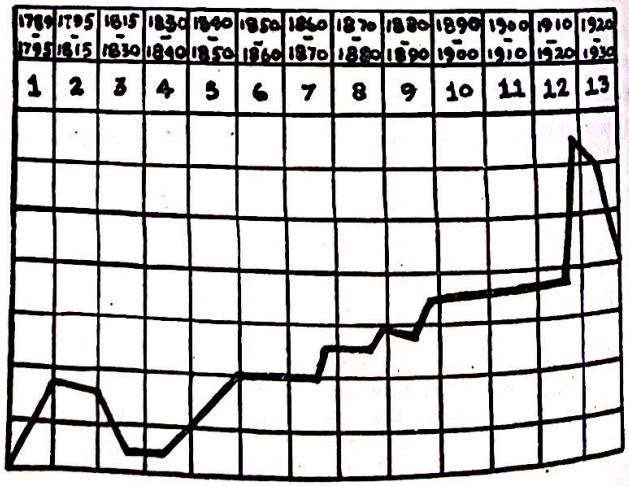
1. Name one document adopted by a European country which explains the rise of the line in column I.....
2. Mention the name of a person most responsible for the downward trend of the line in column II.....
3. Mention one body of men whose policies were responsible for the sharp downward trend of the line in column III.....
4. Name the person whose policies and influence are most commonly associated with the downward trend of the line in column III.....
5. Name a reform measure adopted by a European country which accounts for the rise of the line in column IV.....
6. Do the same for column VII.....
7. Do the same for column IX.....
8. Mention a change in a continental country which explains the rise in column XII.....
9. Mention a change in another continental country which explains the rise of a line in column XII.....
10. Name a reform adopted in a European country outside of those you mentioned in questions 8 and 9 which accounts for the rise in column XII.....
11. Mention a change in a continental country which explains the course of the line in column XIII.....
12. Name a person whose policies and influence are associated with the downward trend of the line in column XIII.....
13. According to the diagram, the decade during which democracy in Europe made the greatest gains was between the dates of.....and.....
14. According to the diagram, Europe in 1930 was (a) more democratic than it was in 1914; (b) less democratic than in 1914; (c) neither of these. Why?

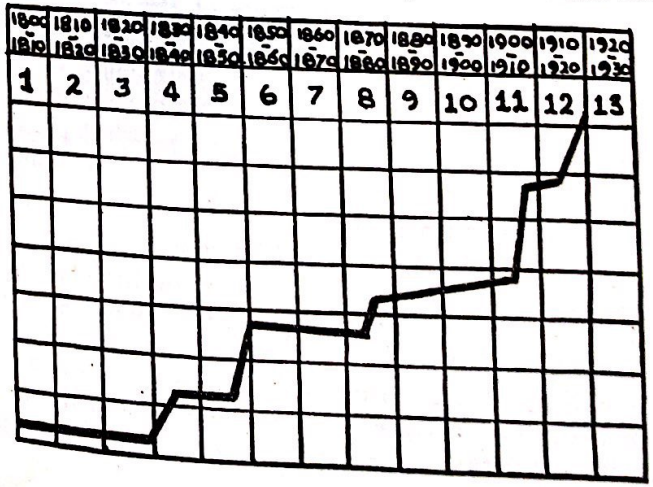
Final Problem: The activities of President Roosevelt during his first two weeks in office have caused the people to refer to him as a dictator and have led them to compare him with Mussolini. Do you agree with this comparison? Why? Do you think it would be desirable to substitute for our form of government the type of government that exists in Italy or in Germany today? Why?

II.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION

Ultimate Aim: To develop in the students an ability to interpret charts that express social science data.





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Specific Aim: The history of social legislation in England.

Procedure: The chart furnished you represents the development of social legislation in England since 1800. Examine the chart closely and answer the following questions based upon it:

1. The longest period during which there was no social legislation enacted was between the dates of.....and.....
2. The second longest period during which little or no social legislation was enacted was between the dates of..... and.....
3. The period during which, prior to the World War, there was most social legislation enacted was between the dates of..... and.....
4. The period during which England followed most completely the policy of *laissez-faire* was between the dates of..... and.....
5. Mention one law which is responsible for the upward trend of the line in column IV.....
6. Do the same for column VIII .....
7. Do the same for column XI .....
8. Do the same for column XII .....
9. The person most responsible for the upward trend of line in column XI was.....
10. The rise of the.....Party was to a large extent responsible for the enactment of a program of social legislation in England during the last twenty-five years.

Final Problem: To what degree would the present depression in the United States be relieved if we adopted England's scheme for social reform?

III.

Treaties of Alliances

Ultimate Aim: To develop in the students an ability to interpret and express social data represented by a map.

Specific Aim: Treaties of Alliances as an underlying cause of war.

Materials: A map of Europe.

Procedure: Below is a paragraph taken from Fay's "Origins of the World War." Read it and answer the questions below on the map provided you.

"The greatest single underlying cause of the War was the system of secret alliances which developed after the Franco-Prussian War. It gradually divided Europe into two hostile groups of Powers who were increasingly suspicious of one another and who steadily built up greater and greater armies and navies. These were the conditions which caused Germany to think that it was being 'encircled' by enemies."

Questions:

1. Put the letter "A" in the spaces representing the nations "encircling" Germany through treaties of alliances.
2. Place the letter "B" in the spaces representing the nations that completed the "encirclement" of Germany during the World War.
3. The maneuvers of what two national fleets bore out Germany's fear of "encirclement?" Place "C's" in the countries of the above-named fleets; put the letter "D" in the regions where the fleets would be stationed in order that the encirclement of Germany and her allies be realized.
4. Put an "E" in the country, a member of the Triple Alliance, which, because of her coastline, would fear the English fleet and would always qualify her alliance to the Central Powers in favor of not antagonizing Great Britain.
5. Place the letter "F" in the countries toward which Germany would probably turn to offset her "encirclement."
6. Place the letter "G" in the country whose governmental system made the Allied claim of waging war "to make the world safe for democracy" seem shallow and unjustified.
7. Place the letter "H" in the countries of today which, because of dictatorial rule there, make the foregoing Allied claim seem farcical and insincere.
8. Place the letter "I" on the land frontiers on which Germany would be fighting if her claim of "encirclement" were correct.
9. If you think her position was advantageous, place the number "2" there. Justify your answer on the paper provided, using the map as your text and source of information.
10. Austria and Serbia were rivals in the Balkans. Place the letter "J" in the country that had an understanding with Serbia to protect her against the aggressions of Austria.
11. Place the letter "K" in the countries that would be dragged into war because of alliances with Serbia's protector.
12. Name the region on the map that was the danger zone of war in 1914.
13. Name the region on the map created by the Treaty of Versailles that has produced another such danger zone.
14. Below it put the name of the country that was probably instrumental in or guilty of creating such danger zone.
15. Place the letter "L" in the spaces representing countries that would probably be allied to France today because of their hostility to Germany.
16. Rumania is a traditional enemy of Hungary. At the end of the World War Rumania received the strip of territory known as Transylvania from Hungary. Place the letter "M" in the countries that would probably be allied to Rumania because of their hostility to Hungary.

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17. Poland today as a nation was formed from strips of territory taken from three former Great Powers. Draw lines with arrow heads leading to the nations which thus might be allied against Poland.
18. Both Poland and Rumania received strips of territories from Russia after the World War. Draw a line with arrow heads leading to both Poland and Rumania. On the line write the name of the treaty which calls for mutual aid if Russia attempts to get these territories back.
19. Place the letter "N" in five countries that are being encircled today because of alliances that have been formed since the World War.

Final Problem: Assuming that you accept the introductory passage from Fay as a premise, discuss the probability of war because of the danger zones that have been created since the World War and because of the treaties of alliance formulated to maintain these zones inviolate.

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SAINT SCHOOL TEACHER

IN European art galleries a picture frequently seen which stands out conspicuously is that of Napoleon Bonaparte. Strikingly arrayed in royal robes, he is portrayed with a crown of leaves upon his head and an imposing, imperial sceptre in his hand. Place beside it a mental portrait of Demien de Veuster dressed in the simple raiment of a priest and teacher, with a silken cord around the waist of his plain black skirt. The man from Belgium who ministered to the lepers of Molokai seems to suffer from such a comparison with the man who became a world conqueror. If we think a little longer and if we view the portraits in the light of history, we undergo a mental change regarding the contrast. We recall that of everything Napoleon strove for, nothing remains. We are no longer impressed with the robe and sceptre or the pomp and power. We know that the life of the other man was not that of a scavenger. He sought to serve others and not himself. His portrait becomes surpassingly beautiful as we think of the high motives as well as noble principles for which he lived, labored and died.

Of all who serve humanity, no single social group sinks itself so out of sight in service performed as do school teachers. The good they do and the truths they teach are accepted the world over without return of ample material reward. The lives they live place them on the high plane of character builders, the majority utterly lacking in materialistic self-assertion.

When one observes a group of boys and girls rushing nervously from one activity to another, unwilling for the most part to think quietly about anything, does it occur to the onlooker that in the average child the appetite for food is not much different from the appetite for knowledge? Each child is decisive that something be given him to satisfy his hunger and he is ready to be mentally fed with what is offered, as it is offered. The mind of the child may be offended as readily as his function of digestion. And it is forgotten by the majority of us that one of the main reasons our minds are not spoiled is because of the wholesome and far-reaching influences of our school teachers.

Henry Ward Beecher offers a glowing tribute to his boyhood teachers who presided over the little white school house nestled in the heart of the New England hills. It was from this far out of the way place he found enrichment of his individual self that gave so much value and power to his life. "As the teacher is, so is the school," reads an old-time aphorism, and as a well-known educator recently affirmed along the same lines, "As the teacher is, so is the student for all remaining years of his life." Who is there today who has not benefited from the work in which school teachers are engaged? Who is there who has not gone back to the classroom to remember his teacher as the spring from which like the mighty Amazon he derived his power? Who, in the assembling of this array of idealized characters, has not included one or several of his school teachers? Next to the mother no other human being ever comes into closer association with child-life than does the teacher. Theories of education may come and go, but the character of the teacher is written indelibly upon the impressionable mind of the child. For five days out of the week, the teacher faces the child problem in the classroom, knowing full well that knowledge can never of itself be an end result in teaching. This may not agree with many theories held by the school teacher's critic, but in spite of theories it will always exist as a fact. The influence of the teacher goes beyond the classroom lessons to the child's physical well-being, his social aspects and his future vocation. The teacher seeks to inspire the boy to want a job in which he can be useful and at the same time enjoy life.

One reason why this country suffers today is because we have forgotten that the world at large is more indebted to Socrates than to Croesus; to Samuel Hahnemenn than to political and financial plunderers; to the Great Teacher than to the money changers in the temple. Most of our modern inventions and refinements which increase human comfort with the lessening of labor are material achievements. Our advancement is a commercialized one, characterized by high buildings, big corporations and million dollar deals. Too much time has been spent in building tiled bathrooms in workingmen's homes connected with networks of sewers, and too little time spent in cultivating and

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renewing ideals and aspirations that have been taught us as fundamentals by all the great teachers of all ages as well as our own individual school teachers.

As someone has said so well, "One saint in an age can make the whole life of that age qualitatively different." True measurement of progress is whether or not the great multitude has been lifted a millionth of an inch in a thousand years, and just that is what our teachers are doing for us, in spite of ourselves. The historian of the future will measure our advancement not by the height of our skyscrapers, but by the results our teachers have attained in the building of character, which is the true education of men.

Who but the teachers whose names glorify the pages of history have kept the world marching upward toward the light of truth? How much of this truth and wisdom would be left us if we did not possess philosophy and teachings of men like Socrates, Aristotle, Montaigne, Emerson, William James, Thomas Arnold, Mark Hopkins, Samuel C. Armstrong, and Mary Lyon? Literally millions of other teachers have left the clear imprint of truth as an unspoken and undying argument upon the souls of men. Jesus of Nazareth, Himself, was a teacher whose methods and principles for right living are fundamental in all good teaching today.

Approaching the theme fom another angle, let me repeat what was told me recently by a friend of mine, the present editor of *The American Agriculturist*, about a teacher, a principal for many years of a small country high school. This friend of mine was an awkward, bashful farm boy. Obliged to help harvest the fall crops, he was unable to start his courses in high school until late in the fall, after the village boys and girls were quite advanced in their year's classes. The boy visited the principal's home and, while waiting for him to come downstairs, the boy sat down in a chair and on the teacher's derby, completely ruining the hat. He had to take a grip on himself to keep from running away. The principal came in, noticed the hat, assured the boy that it was of no consequence, patted him on the back, and told him that he would personally help him make up his studies so that he could catch up in his high school classes. Later, this teacher gave my friend hours of extra time, helping him in many ways to procure an education, even to the extent of offering to loan him money out of his small salary with which to go to college.

During all the time this teacher presided over this school, it made a record for a school of its size for the large number of boys and girls who had been graduated and sent to institutions of higher learning. Today, after 30 years, there is a large local club in that community named after this high school principal, and men and women from every walk of life meet annually in their old home town to do honor to this great teacher.

Taking a potshot at the teaching profession is one of our modern indoor sports. All of us set ourselves up more or less as experts on education and on teaching methods, and when all other topics of conversation fail, we always land with heavy criticism upon the teacher. His vacation is too long, he has too much spare time, he is overpaid, he has too many newfangled methods, too many frills, too little readin' and writin' and 'rithmetic. Meanwhile, the teacher plods along, an example of praiseworthy conduct, unrecognized by adequate compensation, giving cheerfully of his sustenance to the poor and needy in his classrooms, providing food and shoes, as is the custom of school teachers in the city of New York. They toil in life's workshop, keeping "their faculty of effort" alive by daily gratuitous exercises. Minds that are soaked with money values and have no vision beyond the commercial realm fail to understand its meaning or even to discover the existence of this disinterested service. The service of the school teacher is not for sale any more than truth can be gotten or forgotten for gold. However, it will do them and us no harm to remember our school teachers and help them in their enduring to the end. Perhaps it is not within our financial ability to provide a life income for a school teacher as did the late William H. Todd, the well-known ship-builder; yet it is within our power personally to defend the record of the school teacher against all unjust criticisms.

ERNEST RISLEY EATON, M.D.

THE TEACHING OF LATIN*

THE universities are removing Latin from their lists of entrance requirements, but more pupils are studying Latin in the high schools of the country today than all other foreign languages combined. This is all the more remarkable considering the antiquate methods used in teaching the subject. One may fairly say that there has been no important improvement for four hundred years. There have been mechanical changes in text-books, better type, better pictures, rearrangement of topics. More or less collateral matter in English about Roman customs, personalities, weapons, and military tactics has been introduced. The teaching and learning of the language itself, however, remains about the same as in the days of Luther when, as he reports, a recitation in Latin was like a trial for murder.

Grammar is no longer committed to memory *in toto* as a snake swallows a chipmunk, but in the main the objective remains the same—to master "the grammar." Latin teachers today still labor under the delusion that grammar is the key to language. They have tried to rationalize their procedure with the help of a few catchwords, borrowed from an arid and sterile psychology, such as "formal dis-

*A paper read before the Latin Section of the Society for the Experimental Study of Education at its January meeting.

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cipline," "association of ideas," "training for power," "training to reason." They are still engaged in trying to erect a pyramid with desert sand.

Yet every now and then there arises a Latin scholar of distinction to protest against the killing process of Latin teaching. Such protests have come in cyclical periods, and if we attend closely we observe that every one of the reformers protested on similar grounds and was in possession, more or less clearly, of an identical psychological concept.

The protest of the great Latinists has been directed against the atomizing of the language. Learn the language in organic units, they urge. Absorb the language as it lives, not in dissected and rearranged particles.

This protest is heard first from the father of Latin grammar himself, from Quintillian: "Aliud grammatice, aliud Latine loqui," he wrote. "To write grammatically is one thing, but to write Latin is something else again" —an epigram which the grammarians who sit in school teachers' chairs find it impossible to understand. The objections of boys, weary of ceaseless drills in grammar, are brushed aside as the protests of dunces unable to "exercise their brains." How is it, then, that the same sort of objection is heard from the most brilliant of scholars and linguists?

The great Erasmus himself, the author of text-books that were best sellers for a century wrote ("De Ratione Studii"): "But I must make my conviction clear that whilst a knowledge of accidence and syntax is most necessary to every student, still they should be as few, as simple, and as carefully framed as possible. I have no patience with the stupidity of the average teacher of grammar who wastes precious years in hammering rules into children's heads. For it is not by learning rules that we acquire the power of speaking a language, but by daily intercourse with those accustomed to express themselves with exactness and refinement, and by the copious knowledge of the best authors."

He objects to the ignorance shown by pupils of the names of the commonest objects around them:

"Although knowledge of words, and a ready and proper naming of everything that occurs is an admirable and necessary foundation for learning, yet this is neglected above measure in the common methods of teaching, by which omission it happens that after children have drudged many years in the elements of erudition they scarce know the proper names of the several species of trees, fishes, birds, beasts or grain; even at home, the very furniture about them or the various necessaries which are there daily used, they know not how rightly to name in Latin."

Erasmus wrote "readers" for Latin students, intended only "to make easy and pleasant the once thorny path of learning," which became tremendously popular throughout Europe. The "Familiar Colloquies" discuss not only such topics as eating and drinking, ball-games and polite manners, when to cough and when to sneeze, but also

much deeper subjects, as the one in the dialogue between a youth and a harlot, in which the youth tries to convert the girl to a better life; or that in the shipwreck, where, in the presence of death, the intimate superstitions of the passengers come to the surface. This book ran through a hundred editions from the time of its first publication to the author's death, and its popularity continued for two centuries after it had ceased to be a text-book but had become "literature."

Did the school-masters adopt Erasmus' suggestions? Not if one may judge from the criticisms and the new methods presented by subsequent reformers. "I hate those who can brag of their rules of grammar and can neither write nor speak a language," wrote Montaigne. "I find the choicest men are they that most condemned rules."

Montaigne had learned his Latin from nurses and servants, all of whom had been ordered by the elder Montaigne to play the game of Latin-speaking, whether speaking correctly or not.

"There are those who know neither ablative, subjunctive, substantive nor grammar no more than does their lackey or any oyster-wife of the streets; and yet if you have a mind thereto, they will entertain you to your heart's content and perhaps stumble as little and as seldom against the rules of their tongue as the best master of arts in France."

Some sixty years after the publication of Erasmus's "Colloquies," Roger Ascham, the tutor of Queen Elizabeth, hit upon a unique variation of the basic idea we are trying to trace. After a few preliminary lessons on "the three concordances," Ascham was accustomed to translate a page of Latin or Greek to his pupil, carefully explaining the points that at first sight seemed obscure. He then let his pupil "sitting by herself where no man shall prompt" write the translation in a note-book. After the lapse of an hour, the pupil having given up her Latin book took a fresh note-book and wrote in it the retranslation of the same passage into the original tongue.

The teacher compared the pupil's Latin with the original, meting out due praise but finding little fault, for Ascham believed in the inspiration of success.

Elizabeth, says Ascham, "never took Greek or Latin Grammar in her hand after the first declining of a noun and a verb; but only by this double translation of Demosthenes and Isocrates daily, without missing a forenoon, and likewise some part of Tully every afternoon for the space of a year or two, hath attained to such a perfect understanding in both the tongues and to such a judgment as there be few in number in both the universities or elsewhere in England that be in both tongues comparable with her majesty."

It is hardly necessary to add that Ascham's double translation method had no chance of being generally adopted.

About the same time there appears in England another reformer, Dr. Joseph Webbe, applying for a patent upon a new method, which he called the sentence method. Webbe

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refused to impart his method in detail unless he were given the patent to protect his pecuniary rights. In his application to the High Court of Parliament for a patent on his method of teaching Latin he wrote:

"There are two sorts of Latin, whereof one is Grammar-Latin and the other Latin-Latin. By Latin-Latin I mean such as the best approved authors wrote, and left us in their books and monuments of use and custom. By Grammar-Latin I understand that Latin that we now make by Grammar rules; the first intention of which rules and their collection was to make us write and speak such Latin as that custom and those authors did, which was Latin-Latin; but it succeeded not."

Dr. Webbe's method would have produced "an incredible advantage to the whole nation," wrote an enthusiastic disciple, "but we are in this like tradesmen who bandy and confederate together to suppress any new invention though never so commodious to the commonwealth, lest thereby their own private gain should be obstructed or taken away."

Objection was made by some that Webbe's method made learning too easy; others protested that the method was unsuitable to slow-witted pupils. To this he replied that one can't make the learning of a language too easy; and as for dull pupils, they never have learned Latin by any method.

Again, it was asked: "If you take clauses out of authors and think of the meaning of the whole, how do you know what each word signifies?"

Webbe answered: "Construing word for word is impossible in any language, e.g., in the barbarous English of the Frenchman, 'I you pray, sir,' for 'Je vous prie, monsieur'."

It is better, Webbe contended, "that a scholar should remember the natural and received position of a clause by keeping the words all together, than understand the particular correspondence of the words, and thereby lose their proper places. For discretion and comparison of clause with clause will at length bring the understanding of the words whether we will or no; but nothing will bring the true position of these words again."

Webbe's method fared no better with the schoolmasters than did Aschams.

Another half century or so later we find the great Moravian, John Amos Comenius (Komensky), born in 1592, urging that words should not be learned apart from the objects to which they refer. He further shocked the grammarians by announcing that the complete and detailed knowledge of a language was quite unnecessary and that it was absurd on the part of anyone to try to attain it.

"Not even Cicero (who is considered the greatest master of the Latin language) was acquainted with all its details," wrote Comenius, "since he confessed that he was ignorant of the words used by artisans; for he had never mixed with cobblers and labourers, so as to see their handiwork and hear the technical terms that they used. Indeed, what object could he have in learning such terms?"

Boys should be given texts that appeal to them. "Those who place before them Cicero and other great writers waste their time, for if students do not understand the subject-matter, how can they master the various devices for expressing it forcibly?"

That was said about three hundred years ago, but Cicero is still read by those who think that he was a kind of Roman Walter Hampden.

A little later, in 1650, John Milton, no mean Latinist, objects in a letter to Mr. Hartlib to learning words apart from substance. "Hence appear the many mistakes which have made learning generally so unpleasing and so unsuccessful," writes Cromwell's Latin secretary. "First we do amiss to spend seven or eight years merely in scraping together so much miserable Latin and Greek as might be learned otherwise easily and delightfully in one year."

He objects, especially, to the preposterous "forcing the wits of children to compose themes." Themes are still being wrung from students in foreign language classes, especially in those preparing for Regents' examinations.

Locke, somewhat later, in his "Treatise of Education of Youth," says with relation to Greek and Latin exercises: "Don't let your son be forced to make Latin themes, declamations or verses—unless you design to make him a Latin orator or a poet."

The truth so clearly grasped by Ascham and Webbe, Milton and Locke, although neglected by school teachers and school systems, was rediscovered in the latter part of the past century by the Frenchman, Gouin, who presented it anew in his well-known series method, making the unit of instruction a group of related sentences, rather than a single sentence.

Gouin's idea has received a certain amount of bewildered attention in modern language text-books. It is now considered the correct thing to incorporate a "series" or two in every such book. The student, however, is helped very little by these concessions, neither he nor the teacher knowing what to do next. The Latin text-book writers for the most part remain blissfully ignorant of such low, unintellectual methods and refuse to tamper with the sacred ritual of parsing, synopses, principal parts, inflections and genuflections.

What is this truth, this principal of learning which can be seen cropping out in the suggestions of the reformers we have mentioned? It is none other than that which is known today as the Gestalt principle. Learn your foreign language in a context; learn it in action. You can't learn it by cutting it up into fragments, even though the fragments belong in some logical classificatory system, as "parts of speech," "forms" of the verb, "cases" of the noun, or "laws" of the subjunctive.

"Gestalt" is a new name for an old idea we are told. A new name makes an old idea new by setting it in motion. "Gestalt" may be translated "configuration," or "pattern," or the "unit," or "whole" of perception. But

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most writers leave it untranslated and the English reader, like the German reader, gets its special significance from the context.

A human face is a good example of Gestalt. What it is can be expressed best by illustrations. People speak of the expression of the eyes or of the mouth in a face. But experimenters have transposed sad eyes to smiling faces and, lo! the sad eyes smiled. Expression belongs to the whole face and not to one or another single feature.

A tune is not a mere summation of notes, but a unit, an indestructible whole. You may have the same tune transposed to different keys, just as you may have the same face enlarged or diminished, painted in different colors, its expression altered within limits, and yet it will be the same face. A sentence, a poem, a sermon is a Gestalt no less than a picture or a tune. Words in a sentence derive their meaning from the sense of the whole. "This is a capital story: Albany begins with a capital. It is a capital of the state. The capitol in the capital has a few Greek capitals. It took considerable capital to construct this building, in which a bill to abolish capital punishment was defeated."

Gestalt was the ruling principle of the impressionists, who discovered that details matter only to the extent that they convey a perception of the whole. A beginner in painting is inclined to draw every tree of the woods, every stone in the building before him. But most of us see not the trees, but the forest; not the stones, but the building.

The good writer thinks in paragraphs rather than in sentences. When you utter a sentence, words seem to come out of nowhere. You know them first after they have been spoken; as the driver of an auto in a pinch observes that he has done this or that after the action is completed. The particular action, like the word, is part of a context in which each individual fact is unnoticed until analysis sets in.

Many of us have taken lessons in driving with a golf club and have been surprised to find that immediately after the lesson we were worse players than before. The swing of the golf club is a Gestalt, a single rhythmical motion, and must be learned as a whole. Try to put the swing together by attending to foot-movements, pivoting on the hips, bending the wrists, holding the head and the eyes, "following through," and the scores of small items into which the whole swing has been analyzed and you get —a fluke.

As to the underlying physiological set-up of Gestalts, there is not at present complete agreement. The theoretical work of the original Gestaltists (Wertheimer, Köhler and Kofka) has been subjected to some destructive criticism. Gestalt, however, as a fact of observation, remains unshaken. We perceive Gestalts, we remember Gestalts, and we remember details as integral parts of organized wholes.

You may observe that once a task is completed you dismiss it from your mind, but leave a thing undone and it remains to plague you. A gap in any unitary discourse aches until it is filled up. This suggests why the Gestalt principle is of such enormous importance in the psychology of language learning.

This obviously is the principle that the great linguists have grasped and endeavored to apply in the teaching of Latin—Quintillian in his advice to write Latin not as it might be reconstructed according to rules, but as it was heard; Erasmus, with his insistence upon learning Latin from interesting stories about familiar subjects; Ascham, setting out from and returning to an original text; Webbe with his sentence method, and Gouin with his series.

Stated with reference to present circumstances, Gestalt in Latin teaching requires: (1) The abandonment of texts that are outside the field of interest of pupils — the history of Caesar's military campaigns, for example. (2) A transvaluation of the value of grammar, so that grammar shall be regarded not as the door to language, but as a set of traffic signals or mile-stones assuring the driver that he is keeping on the right road and turning at the proper points. (3) Sticking to models, in sentences and larger wholes, and being content with reproducing those models with very slight if any variations. (4) Learning whole sentences from the very beginning and, when in doubt, always referring back to a sentence-Gestalt rather than to a paradigm.

The transformation in classroom weather by these changes would be (and has been, in certain known instances) magical. It is not, of course, true that every dunce can become a good scholar, but observance of the true psychology of learning will remove from willing students the impression that they are engaged in twisting ropes of sand. Above all, what is learned in the classroom, whether much or little, will be Latin, and not the debris of pulverized classics.

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THE CASE OF ALEXANDER

ALEXANDER is a problem case. His English teacher feels strongly about him. She charges that he refuses to do his English either at home or in class; that he even refuses to bring his books. She may go further. She may complain of him as an insolent rowdy, who not only will not learn himself, but by his misconduct prevents the class from learning. She has done all she can with him; now, she feels, he must either reform or get out.

Alexander cheerfully admits all this. He doesn't like English or, usually, his other academic subjects. In most cases (remember, Alexander is a type, not a person) he'd like nothing better

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than to leave school and go to work. Sometimes he complains that the work is too hard for him—that he can't do grammar or understand "the book." Occasionally, however, he professes himself perfectly satisfied with his situation at school. Leave? Why? He finds school life agreeably relaxing to his nerves, jaded by the harassing demands of his social life. As for these little alarums and excursions into the dean's office for misconduct and loafing—why, they add the one touch of variety and excitement to a routine that sometimes threatens uneventfulness.

If you dig into Alexander's small dossier (and his high school career rarely goes beyond the second or third grade), you will usually find a record of uniform failure in all subjects, or of repeated failure in the same grade of English. Testing seventy Alexanders in a body, you discover that the Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability gives Alexander an average mental age of two years, eleven months below his average chronological age of fifteen years, nine months; and the Thorndike-McCall Reading Test, Form I, puts him three years, two months below. A home-made reading test administered to the seventy Alexanders and to twenty classes of unselected first termers gives similar results. On a scale of 10, Alexander scores 7.1, as against 9.3 for the others—only 76% as well.

Alexander, then is about three years below his grade and age level in intelligence and in reading ability. To give him regular high school texts and the regular syllabus is to doom him t a Sisyphus struggle with an impo sible task. Clearly, we must segre gate him and supply him with muc simpler reading and a special syllabu

Accordingly, the call goes out to a first term teachers. We ask them t note carefully that Alexander differ from the "slow" pupil. Usually th "slow" pupil, like Barkis, is "willin'." But Alexander is not merely "slow" he is also distinctly "unwillin'." Fur thermore, we require, as a check o the teachers' judgment, that Alex ander have a record, either of failur in all subjects, or of repeated failur in the same grade of English. We or ganize the seventy assembled Alex anders into two "X" classes. Inci dentally, the teachers' estimates ar strikingly confirmed by the readin and intelligence tests, given after th event. The comparative results hav already been noted. Of the seventy examined, only three rate at normal o above in intelligence, and only two i reading.

In laying out a syllabus, we mus put aside traditional ideas. Wha we must ask, are the most important and pressing needs, immediate an remote, of this Alexander person? On of the most urgent is, obviously, im provement in his reading. No one lacking mastery of the printed pag can expect to live with reasonable ful ness and intelligence in this age o print and democracy. Now, many published experiments seem to indi cate that the most practical way t such improvement is a long course— a year at least—of easy, rapid pleasur

reading in material well at the intellectual and emotional level of the pupil. For Alexander, our regular texts are out of the question. The attempt to force them on him has resulted in making him dislike school and reading. In a little questionnaire he is asked to fill out, forty-one of the seventy indicate English as their most disliked subject, and only three as their favorite one. He must, therefore, read books at the twelve or thirteen year level. But it would not be wise to ask Alexander to take them at the public library. He might be ridiculed; and then, too, his well-documented attitude towards any kind of home task makes it unsafe. Hence we proceed as follows.

We strain the financial resources of our school library to collect several shelves of attractive books for thirteen-year-olds, books with the widest possible variety of boy-appeal. Then after a talk on "The Fun of Reading," we ask Alexander to select, from a list of types on the board, those types of books he prefers. With these choices in our hand, we lead him to the library, and assign him a book of his choice. Back in class once more, we explain the reading diary he is to keep in his notebook:

TITLE_____ AUTHOR_____ KEPT FROM____ TO____

DATE	READ P..... TO P.....	NO. OF PAGES	NO. OF MINUTES	BRIEF COMMENT ON THIS PART OF THE BOOK

We assign the keeping of this record as the standing homework assignment till further notice. Two books a week, and a hundred pages a day, are the aims for the first half-term. We begin this program right then and there.

The next day, our check on this record (and such a daily check is indispensable) disappoints us. Many pupils have done nothing, for reasons as diverse as the moods of love. Others have crawled through four pages, five pages, seven pages, ten pages. Only a dozen have done fifty; only four (the confirmed readers), one hundred or more. We blame the unfaithful, act deep disappointment, and hint at the importance of this reading to promotion. But our praise of the faithful is almost hysterical. We mention them by name with long and honorable citations, and give them the privilege of going to the library at any time for an exchange of books.

Such steady, even-tempered daily pressure brings results. Within a week everybody (except five incorrigibles, who remain so) is doing at least forty to fifty pages; many do a hundred; half a dozen do two hundred.

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With everybody except the Old Guard reading, our next task is to improve speed. Alexander is doing less than half a page a minute of this childish stuff. So we talk up speed, demonstrate that it is just an easily-changed habit, hold some class practice, and suggest a goal of at least two pages a minute.

Is there cheating? Do pupils make unfounded claims? Probably. We poke good-natured fun at one boy who pleads poor memory when questioned about his reading. This has some effect; the boy joins in the laugh, and promises amendment. Our weekly story-telling day, based on this reading, also helps to keep Alexander down to earth. But is there any sure-fire way of ensuring honesty?

Another habit and skill which we feel Alexander should develop is the daily reading of a reputable newspaper. The importance of this is obvious, both for him and for the rest of us who have to live in Alexander's country and suffer the consequences of his acts. But the thing is difficult. Every non-tabloid paper we try—even *The American*—bristles with strange, long, hard terms that bore Alexander. Then, too, the important articles require a historical, geographic, and political background that he can lay no claim to. He feels at home only in the "funnies," the pictures, and the crime and sex scandals of the tabloids.

The importance of the need justifies our attempt. Beguiling Alexander with a siren talk into "shelling out," we place the class subscription for *The American* (it should have been *The Journal*) with the G. O. store. Then after spending a period becoming acquainted with the departments and uses of the paper, we begin reading the more personal narratives of social and political import, and after that attack the front page, and ultimately the editorials. We approach each article as we would Milton's "Minor Poems": motivation, explaining difficult terms, supplying necessary concepts, posing the problem, silent reading, comprehension check, and, finally, application or discussion looking to the forming of sensible opinions. The work is sometimes boring. Getting Alexander to understand exhausts him and us, and leaves little incliniation for discussion. Next term we shall try *The Journal*.

So much for the reading part of our program. In expressional work we begin with Oral English. Our first search is for a stimulating subject. After failing with "Hobbies" (which required outlining too difficult for Alexander at this stage), and with "Tales My Father Tells" (Alexander is too self-conscious), we strike pay ore in "Interesting Movies."

We begin cautiously. Alexander's morale, his self-confidence, so badly shaken by years of school failure and inferiority, must be restored. We ask casually if anyone has seen a good "movie." One "movie fiend" responds with a full-length, finished-in-oils account of one. The class listens rapt, and one or two others begin to correct details. But no one else offers an account that day. For several days we encourage, but do not require such reports; and we carefully refrain from criticism, accepting gratefully the most atrocious and inarticulate recitations. Gradually, as they find themselves free to talk or keep silent, a few more find their tongues.

The next step is to introduce organization and outlining. After demonstrating, dramatically, how impossible it is to build a house, take a trip, fight a battle, or do anything else worth while without planning, we practice outlining movies for parts of two periods. Then we tell "team-stories"; that is, each team consisting of three pupils gives a coöperative account of some "movie." This arrangement not only forces Alexander to use careful logic in dividing and subdividing the story, but it enhances his courage and confidence. The ensuing accounts are more numerous, more pointed, more fluent.

From then on, our progress takes several directions. First, Alexander must learn selection. His subjects are now limited. Instead of rambling through a whole story, he must confine himself to one aspect of plot, character, or setting. It may be "The Incident I Should Have Liked to Witness," or "The Character I Admire Most," or "An Incident Which Taught Me a Lesson," and so on. Another change is from a discussion of "movies" to that of his reading. "Movies" have served their turn.

The next step is improvement in sentence structure. It is easy to demonstrate the maddening monotony of "and." It is equally easy to explain, and to drill in, the use of "ing" beginning (the present participle) and of the "When, as, because, if beginning" (the subordinate clause). The next assignment is: "Now that your speech is outlined, write out five sentences of each type—sentences you will use in your speech tomorrow."

As finally standardized, the last step in preparing a "speech" is vocabulary work. Deficiency in vocabulary has been Alexander's stumbling block all along. Poor sentence structure and villainous grammar, however they detract from effectiveness, are no positive bar to understanding. But a word—if you don't know the word for something you have seen in a movie or read about in a book, you just can't say that thing, as Alexander has ruefully admitted more than once. Our vocabulary work consists, first, of finding synonyms for all kinds of "blanket" expressions used in context. More specifically, the day before a "speech," we develop at the board lists of "expressions" which the particular subject of that "speech" will probably call for. Alexander is also encouraged to run over his speech mentally, and to ask for "better words." Finally, he is instructed to write out ten sentences containing such "expressive words"—sentences he will use in his "speech."

All this preliminary work has several advantages. This continuous mulling over a subject gives Alexander that familiarity with it, and hence that confidence he so badly needs. It ensures definite training to every effort, and prevents the aimless rambling of so much "free discus-

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sion." It makes certain fundamentals of rhetoric thoroughly practical; drill leads directly to use. Finally, it leaves no room for failure, and hence for self-distrust. Instead of criticism after a performance, we have training before it. Alexander learns by his successes, not by his failures. Of course, this preliminary work, all done in class, eats up time; but the results, we feel, justify the means. Besides, Alexander's well-known attitude towards homework makes any other plan shaky. Then, too, his reading might be interfered with.

But with regard to grammar, to common errors, and to the mechanics of writing, we must report failure. Alexander yawns cavernously at the very mention of them. It is such work that has disgusted him with school, and that is familiar to the point of staleness. (Now, sentence work and vocabulary study are not quite so trite). We never could convince him that he ought to improve his grammar or his writing. He probably feels, though he is too inarticulate to say so, that writing doesn't fit into his scheme of things. A factory hand, an unskilled laborer, a truck driver—what will he ever write beyond a two-line scrawl from Niagara Falls or Bear Mountain? He laughs at the idea of writing an application for a job. The way *he* gets a job is by going from one factory to another. In short, we can't find the chink in his self-sufficiency. Next term, we'll try having him set up business, as a store keeper perhaps, and conducting his correspondence with his customers—the rest of the class. That may work.

But what seems to us far more important than Alexander's dislike of writing is his feeling about the society he lives in. Frankly, Alexander is not a good citizen. A pariah at school as far back as he can remember, he has become an Esau towards school, towards his teachers, towards authority in general. Authority denotes to him, not common protection, not cooperation towards a common end, but merely unreasonable and unnecessary bullying. For instance, he resents the restraints put upon him at school—resents them without the faintest inkling that they are necessary when so many people live at such close quarters as a classroom. He regards "cops" as natural enemies, as "crooks" and "grafters" who, like teachers, are paid "fat" salaries for doing nothing. He has no notion of loyalty to a bigger group than his family or his "pals," or of a duty transcending his duty to these, or of that enlightened selfishness which ties all men together. In his relations to the community, "All is fair in war." He will do anything he can "get away with," regardless of society's laws or society's interests.

Suppose—we ask—suppose he could run a profitable "speak-easy" with impunity; would he? Would he! Of the seventy voting, only one, a girl, timidly dissented. Suppose he chanced to see a murder committed; would he feel it his duty to inform the police? Certainly not! That is their business, not his; that's what they get "fat" salaries for! Besides, he might

be "put on the spot" if he "squealed"! Suppose his friend had committed a murder; suppose he saw a policeman attacked by a mob; suppose——. And the discussions that rage have the tone, so far as we can judge, of Al Capone's gang in council. And these youngsters, so utterly anti-social, have had at least five years of Civics in grammar and high school, not to mention years and years of history teaching that is supposed to make for good citizenship!

Now, the importance of this attitude of Alexander's needs no explaining. Such an attitude, it seems to us, needs only the occasion to wind up ultimately as crime. This attitude must be removed, and a more wholesome one implanted.

First of all, certain causative conditions must be altered. Alexander must no longer continue to feel himself at odds with society, as represented by his school and his teachers. We must avoid every suggestion that he is inferior, or "different." His school tasks must be such as to inspire him with a feeling of ease, of well-being, of confidence in the classroom. School restraints which irk him must be demonstrated, dramatically and practically, as being unavoidable, not merely in a classroom, but in any assembly of considerable size.

We must be careful, too, to set the example of courtesy and even temper. Granted we feel sure that Alexander is misbehaving purposely and knowingly, will it help us to grow angry, to take it as a personal affront, to shout, to threaten, and—worst of all—to show contempt? All this tends to keep Alexander an incipient criminal. What we need is the calm, scientific objective view of Alexander's misconduct. Alexander is a piano, which reacts as we strike the keys. If his reactions displease us, should we kick the piano or improve our fingering? Even if we feel that this human piano needs punishment as one mode of fingering, that punishment should be administered quietly (though of course, firmly) and, above all, without contempt.

Besides, let us be careful. Are we sure Alexander means to be insolent when he flings a pencil down on our desk, or jostles us in passing, or laughs that peculiar horse laugh? It may be only the unintentional boorishness of an ill-bred boy who knows no better. If we speak angrily to him, he *may* turn insolent. But if we point out quietly that his conduct is hardly good manners, he may grin sheepishly, and perhaps beg pardon. And, perhaps, in time he'll cease doing some of the things that irritate us so.

In these ways the demands of classroom discipline may be used to plant in Alexander a more wholesome attitude to school and to authority. But it is also necessary to alter his whole social philosophy—the whole system of his feelings towards organized society. We spend much time in discussing such questions as are listed above. We attempt to dispel the romance woven around crime and criminals by sensational pictures. Is a gangster brave? As brave as a west-

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ern bandit? As brave as a police-
man? We attempt to give Alexan-
der some vision of the need all men
have for each other's help; of the tre-
mendous cities and civilizations men
can build when working together; of
their helplessness when alone. Next
term, when this social point of view
begins to percolate, we shall attack
the more subtle and more generally
condoned forms of political and social
evil. Has a voter the right to sell
his vote? Or to pretend to sell it?
Has he the moral right to trade his
vote in return for aid in securing a
job? Even if he is of the same party,
and, especially, if he joins the party
for the sake of that job, should he
vote that party's ticket if, in his
heart, he feels differently? Should a
voter always be regular? Are
"bosses" necessary, beneficial? Who
is to blame for corruption?

It is hard, slow sledding. Fre-
quently the interesting discussion led
up to and carefully prepared for,
doesn't come. Or frequently one or
two Alexanders argue so shrewdly
for their perverted philosophy as to
put us at a loss for a ready answer,
however much we feel the wrongness
of their view.

And now, what are the results?
The last day of the term, we invite
Alexander to help us plan next term's
work. Will he please write, anony-
mously and in a disguised handwrit-
ing, his absolutely genuine and abso-
lutely frank opinion of our work this
term? In every reply except three,
Alexander expresses himself as satis-
fied. Of course, his opinion is not
worth much in some matters. His
natural desire to say the pleasant
thing must be discounted. We note
that the very words which state how
immensely he has improved in Eng-
lish show the same old atrocities. But
the moral tone of these letters is sig-
nificant. They are friendly and hope-
ful. Many say this is the first "square
deal" they have ever had, the first
term of English they have ever liked,
the first time they have ever spoken
before a class, or discussed matters of
conduct, or learned to enjoy reading.

To achieve a more objective meas-
ure of our gains, we give a little ques-
tionnaire, and compare the answers
with those to a similar one given at
the beginning of the term. In the
earlier one, only three had indicated
English for their "best subject," and
thirty-six had taken it for their worst;
in the present one, the figures are
forty-one and six. The question-
naires show gains in the amount of
reading done, in the number of Alex-
anders who select reading for their
hobby, in the number who read the
front page of the newspaper. The
answers to several moral questions in
the second questionnaire show quite a
general realization of that enlightened
selfishness which makes for good cit-
izenship. Form three of the Thorn-
dike McCall, if it means anything,
shows a gain of a year, achieved in
one term.

Shall Alexander be promoted?
With the exception of the five re-
calcitrants, assuredly. He is entitled
to promotion on the basis of his ef-
fort. Any other standard of judg-

ment is, in our opinion, unfair, and
would undo all the moral good we
hope we have worked in him. Some
day educators will stand aghast at the
memory that once, in the dim, unen-
lightened ages, thousands of Alexan-
ders were flunked, all over a whole
country, because they could not fill
the Procrustean mental bed of some
American high school.

H. C. BRICKER.
Grover Cleveland High School.

H. P.

H. P. forms the mystic sign under which instruction in the use of the library is given to students at Curtis. Students say that these letters recognize their plea "Help, Please!" Teachers aver that this formula stands for "Horse Power"—dynamic motivation. While the instructing librarian trusts that the library lessons are both helpful and powerful, her meaning for the letters will appear later. Meantime she confesses that the horse part of the power is to be taken literally.

The lessons are built about the horse as integrator of the field of knowledge in general, and of the high school curriculum in particular. Since a catalogue card for individual book-entry in a printed bibliography has not been found to lend itself well for use as a flying carpet on which to travel from country to country or from age to age, an animated quadruped has been chosen for those who would join the Hobby Riding Club, or, more prosaically stated, the group of students who some day would pass their required four-year English "Regents'" questions on the use of the library.

To make the students feel as much like discoverers as possible is the method we prefer to saying the dictionary contains this, the encyclopedia that, and the card catalogue all about something else. By the exploration method the various library "first aids" are as systematically reviewed as by the older method and the results of the students' technique are tested in the English composition or other report on the phase of the subject the individual student has chosen to explore. We aim to have the students include in this paper notes of the sources of information in good bibliographic form, so that those who start to earn their living immediately after high school will have this technique for their pleasure or profit, and those who receive further instruction will have started to "document," in the standard way, their historical, scientific, or other papers, in which they give references to the literature of the subject.

We prefer to begin the instruction the second term, that is, after the

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student has got used to the general complexities of citizenship in a community of several thousand persons, and soon enough for the individual to be able to use the technique throughout the high school course. But, whether the subject matter mentioned is a bird's eye view of what is to come in history, or whether the topics covered are a rapid review of a modern language already studied through several terms, the Library's aim is to emphasize the fact that a unified picture of the subject under investigation is to be got, as a whole, from the library exploration, to stress the interrelations of the various studies in the school curriculum, and the necessity for knowing sign posts and short cuts, in order not to become completely lost in the mass of ideas to be found in print even in a small library.

Glimpses into the greater libraries beyond the school walls are also given, such as of the city activities information to be found by civil service candidates in the Municipal Reference Library, the home economics and journalism material to be found at the Teachers College and the Columbia University School of Journalism Libraries, the music, advertising-art, and technical scientific collections in the Reference Department of the New York Public Library on Fifth Avenue.

The library ride starts with a reference to some recently published book, such as Will James' *All in a day's riding*, or *Tschiffely's ride*—and the "horses are off." The plan of the book arrangement in the Curtis Library is introduced as a kind of map to be galloped over, with occasional pauses for more details—as Tschiffely might pause to look at a sunset after he had climbed a special peak. As real persons with special bents, although all are members of the cavalcade, at the beginning each student elects to be a "Spanish cavalier," a Roman or Arthurian knight, a hippologist, a musical chevalier, or any thing that fits in with an occupation or hobby he or she may later prefer to emphasize. The organization of the Dewey classification is explained, as a series of convenient pegs on which to hang the information obtained. Since all are horsemen, we see first what our own school card catalogue has to offer under the heading "Horse," and then proceed to other book lists, such as the *United States catalogue*, and *Cumulative book index*, to other lists of books at the end of our *New international encyclopedia* or *Encyclopedia Britannica* articles, to the *A. L. A. catalogue*, and the *Book review digest* with its subject index, to the *Reader's guide* and other Wilson Company indexes available.

Along the way we find, if the Boys' Riding Club presented the Library with a certain sum of money to spend on horse books, just what we would like to buy, what we could buy, whether we would get illustrations in colors, how long the books would be, how recent they would be, where we would find evaluative book notes to the effect that, even though a book was older, it might be better for our purposes than more recent ones. Thus the practical significance of the imprint and collation details given in all standard lists, and the way to find the class and author number on the cards, and the books on the shelves, from this location number are discovered.

Meantime the *United States catalogue* has told us the name of the author who wrote the *Four horsemen of the Apocalypse*, the names of the other books written by the author of *Smoky* and through the Granger *Index to poetry* we have discovered who wrote "Sheridan's ride," and just what happens, according to Kipling, where "East is East, and West is West" when horse thieves are abroad.

Since the circus has just been in town, the question as to the horses' part in it arises and an acrobatic horseman looks, in the Wilson Company periodical indexes, for an article on this subject said to have been published in the last five years in the *Theatre arts monthly*. To add to the pictures by famous painters which illustrate this circus article, another investigator tries the *New York Times index* for pictures of the supposed quadriga horses atop the Vittorio Emannuele monument in Rome, and also for descriptions of the International Horse Show of Art held in New York City in 1932. Some one reports a Christmas horse-tail present to President Roosevelt and the name of the former steed, who wore the tail, is also pursued in the *New York Times index*.

Our practical horse raiser seeks helpful books, with annotated descriptions, in the *A. L. A. catalogue* and the subject index of the *Book review digest*, periodical articles on the relative pulling power of different breeds of draft horses, and information as to horse-racing laws in the *Public affairs information service*, known, for short, as the *P. A. I. S.*, and information as to the world records of fast trotters in the *World almanac*. He also seeks references, in the *New guide to reference books* compiled by I. G. Mudge, to agricultural helps such as the United States Department of Agriculture *Agricultural yearbook*, and notices of standard hitches for twelve horses in the United States Bureau of Standards *Standards yearbook*. He searches for the addresses and names of editors of magazines about horses in the subject lists in Ayer's *Newspaper annual*. To *Webster* he turns for the meaning of "tarpan," and to the Century *Cyclopedia of names* for the pronunciation of Przewalski's horse. He compares the Century *Cyclopedia of names* with that admirable new desk manual, the *Oxford companion to English literature*, and notes, especially, how to pronounce the name of Odin's horse, Sleipnir.

From book and poem lists we proceed to the other books of concentrated information known as "reference books." Webster's *International dictionary* tells us whether to say "steer-up," or "stir-up," and how the meaning of the word was evolved. The *Oxford New English dictionary* (Murray's) gives us information as to just why we call a bad dream a

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"night-*mare*," and our Roman knight informs us, through Webster and Harper's *Latin dictionary* and *Dictionary of classical literature and antiquitities*, of the Greek and Latin origins of the words "cavalry" and "equitation." The Romance language caballero explains the difference between a plains and a navy mustang, how the bronco got its name, while our musical horseman shows, not only how to discover the pronunciation of the dance called the *galop*, but also where the accent is on "Cavalleria rusticána. Through these questions not only have the foreign-language-English dictionaries come into play, but also the foreign-language dictionaries such as the *Petit Larousse illustré*, with its biographical and geographical section, and its explanation of such terms as *califourchon*.

The musical cavalier also looks for horses in music, in the Walkure music of Wagner, in Grove's *Dictionary of music;* he goes after horse songs, too, in the Sears *Song Index*. In this, with the aid of a student of German, he finds the "Reiters Morgenlied," the song whose first line is "Mein Schatz ist ein Reiter," the authors of the words and music of "Wer reitet so spät durch Nacht und Wind," and returns to Grove if he wishes a hunting "song without words," for a tone picture.

Not to be outdone by the musician, the journalist-to-be of the cavalcade begins on Cruden's *Concordance* to the Bible and Clarke's Shakespeare concordance. He finds that what a Hebrew seer thought a vain thing for safety, a Shakespearean king would give a kingdom to have. He compares Job's and Shakespeare's descriptions of an excellent horse. He investigates the significance of Elijah's horses of fire in the Jewish encyclopedia, and of Phaethon's wild ride, in Greek mythology and the perpetuation of the latter's name in the name of a modern carriage. From Hoyt's *Cyclopedia of practical quotations* he discovers Kipling's idea that

"Four things greater than all things are—

Women and Horses and Power and War."

Browning's idea of Muleykeh, Bret Harte's of Chiquita, Holmes' of "How the old horse won the bet," Byron's of "Mazeppa's ride," Scott's of Lochinvar's, Shadwell's of Caligula's horse "shod with gold and bitted with gold" and made a consul

". . . Afar on the Appian Way,
Blazing with diamonds like a star
Consul Romanus!!
S. P. Q. R."—

and of the famous dashes of Paul Revere, and from Aix to Ghent.

As a writer aiming at breadth of information, this horseman also familiarizes himself through *Who's Who in America* with the ranching experience of Will Rogers and Will James and, since he must know geography and history as well as biography in reference books, he locates Abingdon in Lippincott's *Gazetteer* and the Rand McNally or other atlas to see where the Saxons carved the horse in the chalk of White Horse Vale.

After the glimpses of "horse sense"

in the bibliographic tools and general and special books of reference, we tour the shelves in the order of the Dewey classification to see what we can find about horses. In the 100s there is little aside from a book or two on the animal mind, as philosophy and psychology, naturally, are not high school subjects. In the 200s—religion—we come across Bulfinch's *Age of fable* and discover which of the Heavenly Twins, Castor and Pollux, was famous for managing horses, and what part horses had in the naming of Athens and in the downfall of Troy. Here, too, is the *Ecclesiastical history of the English nation* by the Venerable Bede, which tells that horses were first saddled by the English in the reign of Edwin the Great.

As the 300s in the classification are varied, we find everything from horse economics and equine law to folk customs in Brand's *Popular antiquities*, where the appearance of the hobby-horse in the Abbot's Bromley folk dance (to be seen every spring at the Seventh Regiment Armory) is mentioned. The 400s have already received much attention in the reference books since the dictionaries may be considered philological books. We recall this fact, in passing, by referring to the distinction between the words "courser" and "corsair" (the name of a Curtis publication).

In the 500s, we point out horse fossils in the geologies, mention sea horses and books such as Loomis' *Evolution of the horse*, and then proceed to the applied science of the horse in the 600s—horse raising, training, utilization. Here are investigated the mysteries of horseshoeing, of horse products—pony coats, horse steaks, kumiss, horsehair products—horses as power, e. g., the origin of the term "horse power," horses as drawers of street cars and of canal boats, types of horses—Flying Childers, Justin Morgan, Maud S.—as described in Taunton's *Famous horses*, Washington Irving's classification of horses in his *Sketch Book*, and in the National Geographic Society's *Horses of the world*.

In the 700s, as in the 300s, again we have a great variety of materials—everything from painting to the sport of horse-racing. Because many of the most convincing illustrations are in books in the 700s, we spend a large amount of our time on these. While in the mythologies we may find reproductions of such famous paintings as Reni's "Aurora" showing Apollo's horses, in the books of the 700s we are sure to find Athenian cavalry in the frieze of the Parthenon, chariot horses on Titus' arch, the oldest known illustration of a horse cultivating the fields in the Bayeux tapestry, horses on coins and in Durer woodcuts, ladies playing polo in Persian 17th Century prints, artistic paintings of draft horses in Rosa Bonheur's "Horse fair," and of saddle horses in the portraits of Velásquez, Vernet, Meissonier, Van Dyck, LeBrun, and Makemono, and pictures of the innumerable equestrian statues of all capitals, such as Shrady's statue of Grant in Washington, or Verrochio's Colleoni in Venice. Many of

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these may be found in such anthologies as *Saddle and song* and in Pyle editions of the *Knights of the Round Table.*

In the 790s, we come across references to the *hestavig,* or horse fight (mentioned in Beowulf), which until recently was a favorite sport with Norsemen. Here also we find equestrian sports taking an important place in the 1932 Olympiad at Los Angeles.

In the 800s come all of the literary references to horses, many of which, in drama and poetry, have already been mentioned in connection with reference books. In addition, there are many delightful essays such as Amy Lowell's on the horses of St. Mark's, descriptions of knights in *Ivanhoe* and in the *Morte d'Arthur,* horses in Chaucer's *Canterbury tales,* in Arnold's *Sohrab and Rustum,* in *Tom Brown's school days,* classic bits of humor such as David Harum's horse trading; in the literature of classical languages there is the chariot race in Sophocles' *Electra,* descriptions of Caesar's cavalry, Virgil's description of the capture of Rhesus' horses; and, in modern languages, Storm's *Schimmelreiter,* Bavieca of the *Cid,* Aligero clavileno of *Don Quijote,* Rosinante of *Les trois mousquetaires,* Bayard of the *Orlando furioso.*

With the 900s our tour of the shelves ends. Here we find Cunninghame-Graham, in his *Horses of the Conquest,* quoting Cortes' followers as saying, "After God, we owed the victory to the horses." In accounts of the battle of Hastings, we have the Norman cavalry winning the day. Holinshed's *Chronicles* tell us how many horses Queen Elizabeth had, and Traill's *Social England* shows Chaucer and others on horseback. Lamb speaks of the horsetail standard of the Tartars, handed down from the times of Genghis Kahn, and in such series as *Longmans' historical illustrations, England in the Middle Ages,* appear many pictures of mounts for ladies and gentlemen for sport or for war, from the 11th to the 16th centuries.

We may easily imagine some future examination question on the use of the library phrased as follows:

When the following gentlemen appear, bring out the right steed for each, from the horses in the stables of the ages, to "witch the world with noble horsemanship"—Bellerophon, Achilles, Hiero, Alexander the Great, Caligula, Ruy Diaz, called the Cid, Renaud de Montauban, Mahomet, Rustum, King Marko, King Arthur, Cuchullin, Odin, D'Artagnan, Napoleon, Washington, Tschiffely. The steeds in the stable are—Bavieca, Bayard, Borak, Bucephalus, Incitatus, The Gray of Macha, Mancha, Marengo, Nelson, Pegasus, Phrenicus, Raksh, Rosinante, Sharatt, Sleipner, Spumador, and Xanthus.

When we think of the heroic images these names call to our minds, the third and most important meaning of *H. P.* appears. Our talks on the use of the library must be helpful. They must have horsepower. But, above all, librarians feel that the students must HAVE PICTURES. These may be graphic word pictures; they may be vivid tone pictures, as of Händel's "Harmonious blacksmith," or, best of all, they are actual pictorial representations. Because we have found that illustrated lectures are as much more popular as are "picture books," we always try to include opaque projections in our talks. Since at Curtis we have no special arrangements for darkening the Library, nor for changing from opaque (that is, mostly book and card) illustrations to transparent ones (of slides or films), we choose the most arresting printed illustrations obtainable in black and white or color. Our selection is made from the foregoing wealth of material according to the grades of the students, their electives and extra-curricular activities, and according to the number of periods that classes may devote to learning how to use the Library. So far as we may judge over a short time, we have the satisfaction of knowing that the information on the use of the Library is well remembered. This, we believe, is because the instructing librarian has taken pains to give a clear-cut, well illustrated presentation of the subject, grouped about one object—"with teeth in it"—from the point of view of her hearers' special interest.

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THE TEACHING OF ETHICS THROUGH POETRY

TO discover the Ideal in the Actual requires the seeing eye of the poet. Surely we need the vision now more than ever before, buried as we are in the depths of depression and materialism. Some would-be educators even wish to take poetry away from our present course of study, forgetting that education, in the very nature of the process, means a "leading out." A leading out of what? That is the vital question. Some of us believe it is the soul of the child which is to find expression, the qualities of mind and heart which determine his future. We have little enough ethical instruction in our public schools at best. If literature is to give way to business letters applying for the position of errand-boy or stock-girl, how are the boys and girls who have no cultured home environment ever to have the glimpse of that "light that never shone on land or sea?" Now that the world is in turmoil, is it not time in education to begin a crusade for beauty and the eternal verities?

Naturally, this kind of inspiration must come as a by-product in our classes. We cannot use literature for sermonizing any more than we can ruin a Greek tragedy by analyzing the syntax of unusual words. A suggestion in passing, a phrase here or there, will strike a responsive chord and the work is done. We teachers must make up our minds to leave results like this to Providence. We never

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fully know how much good—or harm—we do.

Let me take a few of the required poems in our present course of study. How can we use them for ethical teaching?

The poetic beauty of story and language in "The Ancient Mariner" should not be overshadowed by emphasis on the moral of the tale. If, however, young minds can grasp ever so slightly the truth that Love is the link between man and the Power behind the Universe, that all forms of life are a part of One Great Whole, they begin to have a faint conception of one of the greatest occult poems in literature. In the eighth term we have this same idea of "Nature's social union" in Burns' "To a Mouse" and "To a Mountain Daisy." The animals and the flowers are especially close to the heart of Burns, who seems to have the mysticism of the Far East in his reverence for all forms of life. We shall speak of him again later on.

In the second term, in the "Odyssey," we have the hero who overcomes obstacles, the hospitality that sees a god disguised as a stranger or a beggar, myths that hide universal truths. What is the real meaning of the adventure in the land of the Lotos-eaters and the trip to Hades? May it be that the great forces of Nature still have their guardian deities or rulers? Is there something we have lost to be regained as we progress further in evolution and become more worthy of the knowledge now hidden from a material age?

In Shakespeare's plays we are the characters. We are noble or base. With them we make decisions for better or worse. We see the working out of the law of cause and effect. We suffer or we rejoice according to our deserts.

In term four we have Gray and Goldsmith, some of us, together with poems of today. The "Elegy" gives the beauty of simple country life, the compensations of obscurity, and the fact that all must meet the change called Death, leaving behind pomp and material glory. In "The Deserted Village" we realize that the common man, the worker, is the backbone of any nation. As most of us come under that category, it is a comfort to realize our importance in the economic structure. Here, too, the village preacher takes his place in the galaxy of saintly souls along with Chaucer's parson and the God-like priest of "Les Misérables." Even "The Traveler," scorned by many pedagogues as hopelessly antiquated, shows that the only place to find happiness is in our own hearts. A very great Teacher once said, "The kingdom of Heaven is within"; while the Greek philosophers impressed the mind of a neophyte with the words "Know thyself."

"The Idylls of the King," in ten or six, furnish almost unlimited material for ethical discussions. Truth, honor, loyalty, unselfish service, courtesy, family duty, meeting difficult situations fairly and fearlessly, the sure penalty for wrong doing, are some of the endless themes so graphically told that they provoke discussion often

without suggestion from the teacher. To become effective as character training, though, they must be brought out of the abstract or imaginary situations and applied to the experience of the pupils. Discussions on school questions, for example, arising as an application of the abstract statement of an ethical problem, are an effective way of making pupils think practically and sincerely.

Term seven brings Milton's "Comus," where we again see "How charming is divine Philosophy." The power of goodness, the importance of one's thoughts, the supremacy of a developed soul over circumstances—these are only a few inspiring truths that may find fertile soil in the heart of a receptive pupil.

Nor must we forget the "ill-starred Burns," who did so much for animals and the common man, singing of brotherhood the world o'er, yet to be realized. His warning to withhold judgment, his sympathy for sinners, and the wonder that people make out as well as they do, considering their handicaps—all this is still needed today, more by us teachers perhaps than by the children, for in many ways we are in danger of becoming too self-righteous and over-critical.

I have not mentioned Shelley in his inspired quest for Spiritual Beauty, or Keats who asked nothing more than the loveliness of this earth, or Wordsworth and his "trailing clouds of glory," or the twentieth century singers to whom a "thing of beauty" is still a "joy forever." You all have your favorites. The children will catch your enthusiasm. But we must have the spark ourselves and "wing our work" if we are to fan the flame in those mysterious beings whom we sometimes call our stupid pupils. Not stupid, only unawakened, with minds centered on problems or burdens perhaps too heavy for young shoulders!

I sometimes put the question, "Is poetry an aid in business?" Some smile a bit indulgently as at a queer but harmless person with strange ideas. Gradually we lead up to the fact that imagination, the mark of the poet, is nothing more or less than the picture-making power of the mind. It is this constructive power—vision—that enables man to build for the future. He sees his store bigger and better, thronged with customers. His windows are the most attractive on the avenue. Car after car rolls up to his doors as prosperous patrons come to seek his wares. What did it? The poet's imagination, the picture-making power, which creates in the thought world the scene or event which finds expression on the material plane. The story goes that the great singer, Patti, as a child used to pretend that she was singing before a vast audience and after the song would present herself with bouquets. How many wonderful flowers found their way to her feet in later life! I used to know a solemn little child who would teach by the hour a class of two, her favorite doll and her equally beloved cat. Frequently the cat would go to sleep and her complaint used to be, "Mother, Treasure is such a sleepy scholar." "Sleepy

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scholars," alas, still cross her path. You have all heard how the boy Lindbergh carried his bicycle to the limb of a tree and mounted it, flying in an airplane on the wings of imagination. It would really seem that

"There's nothing good or bad
But thinking makes it so."

Some philosophers tell us that thought is a living current. We are radio senders and receivers, attuned to varying rates of vibration. If, then, thoughts are actual things "with healing, strength, and wings," or the reverse, how great the need to think only what is "true, honest, pure, lovely, of good report" that, like the poet, we may use this vibratory power of imagination to build structures of surpassing loveliness! In the thought world, at least, we can picture only the beautiful and maybe some day know the joy of visions realized.

Thus we return to our starting point, "To discover the Ideal in the Actual requires the seeing eye of the poet." Plato told his pupils that in the mental plane every conception is perfect. It is only the illusions of a material world that make this beauty seem imperfect. The poet or seer can penetrate the ugly exterior and know the radiance within. He can hear the harmony in immortal souls hidden by "this muddy vesture of decay." Carlyle calls the poet "the most precious gift that can be bestowed on a generation," and says, "We see in him a freer, purer development of whatever is noblest in ourselves; his life is a rich lesson to us; and we mourn his death as that of a benefactor who has loved and taught us."

Since, then, without vision a people perish, can we neglect the message of the poets to the youth of today? Our responsibility is great indeed if, instead of bread, we offer a stone. According to Keats, the course of study should be simplicity itself, for you recall his definition of ethics in education:

"Beauty is truth, truth beauty,—that is all
Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know."

MABEL P. SCHMIDT.
Morris High School.

A NEW DEAL BY THE ENGLISH TEACHER*

NONE of you can gainsay the fact that in times gone by much just criticism has been centered around the school curriculum and the methods of teaching. The immortal bard of Avon more than three hundred years ago doubtlessly expressed the sentiment of his own day when in the second act of "As You Like It" he wrote of

". . . the whining school-boy, with his satchel
And shining morning face, creeping like a snail
Unwillingly to school."

And up to the beginning of this century the same opinion unquestionably prevailed.

Have you not seen countless cartoons extolling the virtues of the "ole swimmin' hole" at the expense of the little red schoolhouse? Has not that unnaturally stiff, prim lady, the schoolm'arm of former days, been relegated to the limbo of the horseless carriage of yesteryear?

And when we look into the causes of this widespread ridicule of school life we do not have to go far to find much material for just criticism. Like the other subjects of the curriculum, the teaching of English has rightly come in for its share of condemnation. A recitation was a re-citation of the facts gathered from the printed page, in the same manner in which they were originally presented; in other words, the system known as "backing the book" was in vogue. The center of the educational universe was the subject and the approach was purely formal and logical, rather than informal and psychological as it is today. In the teaching of grammar, for example, stress was placed on the technique of expression rather than on function or use of words and ideas; sentences were analyzed at great length; words were parsed for no apparent reason; and the entire subject assumed the proportion of a drill in mental gymnastics. Many of you no doubt remember your own introduction to "Macbeth" and "Hamlet" as source-books for syntactical exercises. In composition work material was presented in a very formal manner, being based on stilted, unnatural situations rather than on the actual experiences of the student. In literature, the chief aim was mastery of content, rather than enjoyment, appreciation, taste, and style. Burke's "Speech on Conciliation With the American Colonies" was considered a storehouse of dry statistics to be reproduced verbatim rather than as a mine of material which, when considered in the light of present-day conditions, is both practical and helpful. The point of contact between the cold, printed page and living, breathing, current situations was disregarded.

And yet in spite of all the untiring efforts of former leaders in education, composition such as the following actually appeared on two Regents' examination papers of twenty years ago. The first is a synopsis of Longfellow's "Evangeline" and is reproduced verbatim:

EVANGELINE

Gabriel was Evangeline's feller. Evangeline was always chasing after him. When she got left behind on the shores of Arcadia she begun chasing as soon as she could. She chased him over mountains and valleys but she never got catched up with him. At last when she was thin and old, she found him laying in a poorhouse with a fever. She just had a minute's time before he died to lie his head on her

*A talk given over radio station WNYC, April 12, as a part of the weekly Board of Education program arranged by Mr. Winfield L. Rice, Acting Director of Civics.

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bosom and say, "Good-bye, Gabriel, I done my best."

The second is a vivid word picture of Millet's painting "The Angelus." Here it is:

THE ANGELUS

This picture was painted by Malay. It contains a man and a church steeple. The man and woman are very poor, they have been digging potatoes because they need them to live on. The potatoes look very small. Just at sunset they hear a bell ring, it is the Angellus, it means they must pray. So they bow their heads and pray for bigger potatoes.

So much for the older point of view.

And what of the present? How have we English teachers of 1933 profited by the mistakes of our predecessors? Before answering this question, we might briefly consider the aims of education. I think there are two: to provide an opportunity for individual growth and development to the end that every pupil may lead a happy and productive life, and to present means and purposes whereby each person as an individual will be enabled to render that service to the group for which nature has best fitted him. This dual viewpoint is seemingly paradoxical in that it is at once individual and social, but is easily explained by the fact that he renders the best service to society who is most highly developed according to his own natural individual capabilities. Social efficiency is now the ultimate end of education—an efficiency that emphasizes the realization of physical, moral, vocational, avocational, and civic potentialities and capabilities.

The new point of view considers the child the center of the educational universe. The teacher is no longer merely a receptacle into which the material given out the preceding day is re-placed. He is rather a counselor, an adviser, a guide who takes the pupil by the hand and directs him along the proper paths leading to the attainment of an education. The class hour is no longer considered a period wherein matter presented yesterday is re-presented in the same form and manner today. The school period is considered rather as a time for socialized discussion with the conduct of discussion transferred from the teacher to the group itself. Technique is subordinated to enjoyment. Responsibility is shifted from the shoulders of the instructor to those of the students who, in a number of years all too few, will be forced to carry on for themselves. Much more important than the massing of facts is the training for proper ideals, correct attitudes, and worth-while purposes. In other words, the new education attempts to reconcile the aim of the type of school we attended—culture—with the aim of the modern type—experience—and to train for leadership through individual initiative.

And how are these aims attained through the teaching of English in high school? My limited time prevents anything other than a very brief sketch of the most popular methods.

I might well begin by mentioning the socialized recitation in which the pupils, impelled by the social interest and need of the subject, carry on their own discussion under the guidance of the teacher. The pupils studying "Silas Marner" differ radically in their opinions regarding Marner's justification for leaving Lantern Yard when he knew in his heart and soul he was guiltless. A heated discussion arises. Some condemn the weaver for departing from the scene and for allowing himself to become a forgotten man, instead of remaining to battle for his good name. Others are just as insistent that Silas would not have received a fair trial because public opinion was against him. The wise teacher grasps this situation as a natural opportunity for debate on the morrow. The class is eager to carry on the discussion further. Sides are chosen, a chairman is appointed, judges are elected, and the stage is set for the next day's period. After the speakers have finished and a decision has been rendered on the following day, the chairman throws the subject open to general discussion. The class has thus carried on their own recitation; the teacher has served merely as a guide; the work has been socialized.

Closely allied to this type of procedure is the project method whose aim is intellectual growth through thinking and doing. Let us assume that the senior class, having just finished their study of poetry, are desirous of making an original anthology of verse—a volume which will serve as a pleasant reminder in the future of some cherished efforts in the past. Committees are appointed to decide on the mechanics of the book, its form, the types of poetry to be included, the nature of the illustrations, the editing, printing, binding, and distributing. Naturally the "give and take" of social contact will play an important part in this work, and not the least of the benefits accruing will be the experience of subordinating one's own opinions and desires for the greater good of the group.

A scheme for the individualization of instruction by encouraging each pupil to progress at his own intellectual rate is the Dalton Plan, used in many high schools in a more or less modified form. Its three underlying principles are freedom, social coöperation, and the budgeting of time—all most useful in modern society. Each classroom becomes a "laboratory" where the pupil may find proper "tools" to aid him in his work. Instead of day to day assignments as in the conventional classroom, "jobs," comprising a certain number of "units" of work, are given each week or month, and when these are finished the student is free either to pass on to some other unit of work, or to do as he wishes. The teacher becomes the pupil's helper, adviser, friend, and must not only make up the various "jobs," but check on their successful completion as well. The Dalton Plan is based on educational

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"piece work," a system that prevails today in our shops and factories. The more adept a pupil is at completing his assigned tasks, the sooner he reaches his goal—graduation. It is not a system that prepares for living; it is life itself.

In the past, when most of you listeners attended school, little or no attention was paid to the manner in which pupils studied. Assignments for the most part were given by chapters or pages and the process of obtaining information was a hit-or-miss one. Today not only study, but also supervised study (which in reality is supervised learning), has a technique all its own and the number of books on the subject is legion. Not only are we interested in the facts and in the manner of obtaining them, but also in the proper insights, appreciation, attitudes, habits, and moral traits which are the resultants of study. The pupil who learns to study properly develops a characteristic which will be most helpful to him in after-life—self-dependence.

A type of lesson whose interpretation has undergone a great change since the beginning of the century is the review lesson. When you and I went to school it meant a re-hash of the old material in the old way. The teacher, who had dictated at least one hundred questions on "The Tale of Two Cities" during the course of the term, slaved till three o'clock in the morning composing fifty additional ones to serve as a basis for the review lesson on the morrow. Today, we consider the review lesson one in which a "new view" is to be presented and, accordingly, make the class responsible for their own questions and answers through the medium of the socialized recitation.

Another type of lesson which is becoming more and more important in our progressive schools, especially in teaching literature, is the appreciation lesson. Because of the highly subjective nature of this type of study, no definite steps can be formulated, but the instructor's enthusiasm for his subject, careful preparation, sympathy for and knowledge of the heart and mind of youth, and understanding of the aim of appreciation, which is enjoyment, not technique, make this type of lesson invaluable.

In this little talk I fully realize that I have but scratched the surface of the infinite resources the modern teacher of English has at his command. Yet if I have shown you ladies and gentlemen of the radio audience that our aim is a combination of cultural, spiritual, emotional, and practical aims, that our material is God's masterpiece—young manhood and young womanhood—and that the glory of teaching consists in moulding this material so that the aims of education may be realized through proper method, my present efforts will not have been in vain.

GEORGE J. CRANE,
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HIGH POINTS

The Use of the Text-Book in Mathematics

At the interdepartment conference of the Textile and Seward departments of mathematics, held September, 1931, one of the chairmen made a plea for a more intensive and intelligent use of the texts in algebra and geometry than prevails at present.

The writer was so impressed with this idea that he has attempted to analyse (1) the reasons why we have departed from the use of the text, (2) ways of returning to the text, if desirable.

To get a perspective, suppose we go back to the late nineties. The writer's experience may be typical. We attended a small district school in the country, where one teacher in a single room instructed from thirty to forty pupils, ranging from five to twenty years of age. The various classes were called up one at a time to benches in the front of the room and recited what they had learned about the subject assigned in the previous session. The recitation was a test of text mastery.

When we changed to the academy, we found conditions much the same. In geometry, theorems were assigned to be memorized and a few exercises to be worked out at home. Both were to be produced on the blackboard the next day. In algebra certain problems were assigned to be solved. We were expected to learn how to solve the problems by examining the models at the head of the exercise.

All this tended to make the pupils *text-minded*. By this expression we mean that the pupils looked to the text's explanation of processes as their guide to success, and considered the teacher as an auxiliary to the text-book.

With the growth of our large city high schools, the teachers soon learned that if they pursued the "assign and hear plan," their pupils would fail in very large numbers. Therefore they have taken to explaining theorems and methods in geometry and exercises in algebra on the blackboard in front of the class while the pupils become, for the most part, passive recipients of this information. Sometimes the pupils write in note-books, sometimes not, depending upon the method of the teacher. Usually, there is an attempt to draw the pupils into a discussion and thus with their active participation develop definite ideas or concepts. Homework follows along the same lines. The effect of all this is to make the pupils *teacher-minded*. By this we mean that in the eyes of the pupils the teacher is the chief source of knowledge, and that the text is an auxiliary.

Under such a system, the passing of the pupil depends to a large degree upon the teacher. If the pupil is able to follow his particular teacher, and becomes interested enough and smart

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enough to work faithfully and intelligently, he passes. Otherwise he fails.

What is the result to date?

1. Pupils still fail in large numbers.
2. Those passing have little power.
3. The pupils receive no organized or complete knowledge of fundamentals.
4. The teacher teaches for the examination and tries to beat it.
5. Tests are largely memory tests.
6. There is a tendency toward rote work and deadening repetition.

From another angle:

1. The teacher may and often does talk too fast.
2. The pupil may daydream.
3. The pupil may be distracted by disorder.
4. The teacher cannot possibly emphasize points to suit the needs of each individual student.
5. The concepts fade rapidly because the teacher's voice is soon a memory.

The text is a *reality* that stays in print to be referred to.

When a teacher-minded pupil leaves the classroom, he leaves the teacher behind. If he imperfectly understood the exercises in class, how can he do his homework?

If, on the other hand, the pupil knows how to study theorems and methods in a text-book in geometry and model exercises in algebra, he has in permanent form, in print, to master at leisure, the necessary material for success.

The texts in algebra now in use are complete and present a body of knowledge so organized that any pupil who follows them carefully and intelligently will store up not only facts and methods, but achieve power that will be of use to him.

With abilities and principles so mastered, it will be easier and more effective to tune up for the Regents' examinations at the end of the course.

The writer is, however, not entirely satisfied with the texts in geometry he has seen from this point of view.

And now arises the larger question: How can we make our pupils text-minded in high school?

1. The teacher must believe in the ideal here held up. Such teachers will point their pupils that way.
2. Have the students read aloud in class the texts, explanations and model solutions preceding an exercise and discuss with them various points to secure greater understanding. Merely assigning for home study or silent seat work to read such and such pages is a waste of time.

This reading aloud is to be continued until the pupils show signs of reading intelligently themselves.

The manner in which this discussion is performed is all important. A hurried, desultory reading is fruitless. The pupils must be kept interested. The text chosen must be clear and detailed enough to make a complete and understandable picture.

3. Hold the ideal constantly up to the pupil and encourage him to refer to the text as a friend in need.

So we ask for a return to the text as the key to independence, as the key to strength, but under different circumstances than formerly. The teacher and class discussions are to play much different rôles. For is it not true that students of books are our real scholars?

WILLIAM HANCE,
Chairman, Department
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Seward Park High School.

A Health Exhibit as a Teaching Project in Health Education

Recently, the Department of Health Education for Boys of the Seward Park High School of New York City conducted a health exhibit as a teaching project in Health Education. This school has a well equipped room for such purposes. The exhibit presented practical information in an objective manner that stressed the visual method. The project was a novel one and the exhibit as a whole was made a definite teaching procedure.

The exhibits selected were practical. They applied to the everyday life of the adolescent, and were somewhat different from that generally presented as part of the course in hygiene.

The material was arranged to appeal to seasonal interests and to stimulate curiosity in games, skills, and practices partly or wholly unknown to the pupils before this exhibit.

Below are enumerated the various exhibits together with a brief description of the nature and content of the display.

1. The Sunburn Exhibit displayed a humorously illustrated poster of a sunburned bather. Charts carried instructions for the prevention and treatment of sunburn. Samples of carron oil, creams, and other remedies were displayed below the charts.

The possibilities for disability and even serious injury were suggested in this display and stressed the need for prompt treatment. The poster and charts were made by the school Art Department and the remedies were contributed by the Good Samaritan Dispensary of this city.

2. Posture Exhibit, showing silhouetteographs of posture of three general types of pupils.
   a. Thin type.
   b. Intermediate type.
   c. Stocky type.

On the poster of each type was indicated a silhouetteograph of excellent, good, faulty, and poor posture together with a description of the components that make up such posture. This exhibit was loaned by the New York Tuberculosis Association.

3. Poison ivy was displayed out of reach of the pupils. On the same level was a potted vine of Virginia creeper. Above the plants a poster gave susceptibility statistics which stated that two-thirds of all people are susceptible to poison ivy; also that it is wise to avoid trying to find in which classification the pupil belongs. Over the ivy and Virginia creeper

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plants were descriptive cards so that the ivy might be easily recognized. Above these, a Board of Health illustrated poster contained a section of the Sanitary Code relative to the destruction of poison ivy, poison oak and sumac. In an exhibit case below were the immediate or emergency and the general and more specific remedies for the treatment of poison ivy. The poster was contributed by the New York Board of Health, the charts by the Art Department of the school, and remedies by the Good Samaritan Dispensary.

4. Exhibit on Care of Feet. One vital chart compared the footprints of Charlie Chaplin with those of an athlete with a perfect arch. The charts and shoes were loaned by the Scholl Manufacturing Company and the Cantilever Shoe Company.

5. Poisonous Toadstools and Edible Mushrooms. Through the kindness of the Museum of Natural History, this exhibit of poisonous toadstools and edible mushrooms, together with cards indicating the difficulty of recognizing edible mushrooms, advised against the collection of this form of food at any time by amateurs.

6. Hornet Exhibit, showing a good specimen of hornets' nest and an additional case of hornets for identification purposes. Along with this exhibit were containers showing antidotes for hornet's sting.

7. Snake Exhibit. A garter snake was displayed opposite a poisonous copperhead. Posters called attention to the essential differences between the two; again, immediate and remote were indicatd on charts. Exhibits 5, 6, and 7 were borrowed through the courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History of this city.

8. An illuminated dental exhibit of X-ray films showed permanent teeth displacing temporary teeth. Other films revealed pyorrhetic and impacted teeth. Additional films were arranged to indicate the progress of decay where there were no outward signs of destruction of teeth. Colored charts displayed illustrations of many pathological conditions of the teeth and mouth such as Vincent's angina (trench mouth) and the technique for its arrest and cure, as well as stomatitis and other similar disturbances. In a case below was the Orthodontia Exhibit. Plaster casts of teeth showed malocclusions as well as normal occlusions. Particularly interesting was the cast of a young child's teeth showing its "open" bite; alongside of this cast was another which indicated definite improvement of this condition. This exhibit was donated by Drs. H. and J. Schleifer of this city.

9. Metropolitan Life Insurance Pamphlet Display. Particularly interesting were the pamphlets on "Milk," "Tonsils," and "Stories of Health Heroes—Jenner, Pasteur and Trudeau."

10. American Red Cross Exhibit.

a. Home Nursing. This exhibit displayed in miniature the preparation of common household remedies, the care and the feeding of the sick.

b. Campaign posters relative to the Red Cross annual swimming and life saving campaign urging all to learn to swim.

c. Charts on first aid and resuscitation, together with samples of various types of first aid kits and their contents. The contents of the kits were rendered pertinent by reference to charts displayed above.

d. An insignia display of the awards given to those who pass the graded life saving tests.

e. Instructions in the technique of life saving and safety on and in the water.

11. Pulmotor. A demonstration of its use was given each period This machine is part of the school equipment.

12. Camping Exhibit. This display consisted of a tent in a setting of artificial grass with a campfire realistically arranged, imbedded in sand and rocks, electrically lighted so that it seemed aflame. How to build a campfire for cooking purposes was the objective of one of the exhibits. All the paraphernalia of a camp, cooking kit, axe, logs and so on, as well as related athletic equipment such as surfboard, archery target, bows and arrows, and even a canoe, made up the display. How to leave camp, clean up and extinguish fires was emphasized.

13. Sport and Athletic Exhibit. In display cases were athletic equipment for the following sports: tennis, badminton, squash, golf, horseshoe pitching, quoits, archery, pelota, fencing, boxing, croquet and ring toss. Exhibits 12 and 13 were contributed by Alex Taylor and Company of this city.

14. The proper method of making a sleeping bag out of two blankets with its proper location in relation to the campfire was demonstrated.

15. Milk and Nutrition Exhibit. The Dairymen's League, Incorporated, Exhibit contained the nutritive elements of a quart of milk and an interesting graph on the growth of rats, showing the effects of coffee and milk on the rats, as well as the amount of gain in weight. A display of protective foods brought home the minimum requirements for certain types of foods for the growing student.

16. Model breakfasts, luncheons, and dinners with charts of Composition of Food Materials. These balanced meals were changed daily through the period of the exhibit, thanks to the coöperation of the school chef.

17. A display emphasized the annual medical examination and touched on neglect of colds, overwork, lack of rest, and the necessity for sleep in well ventilated rooms. Other displays and posters related to mental hygiene, recreation and to the preventive program of health. Some of the posters were worded like the newspaper want ads. Pamphlets were distributed relative to the incidence and dangers of tuberculosis. These pamphlets were published by the New York City Board of Health in conjunction with the Board of Education.

18. The New York City Board of Health Exhibit consisted in part of posters relative to the dangers of contact with poison ivy, and others stressed the necessity for a preventive

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program for the elimination of diphtheria. Safety posters relating to the proper use of inflammable liquids and the necessity of cleanliness in relation to health, were displayed in a definite pattern. Over two thousand pamphlets were distributed which referred to food and its relation to the teeth.

19. Another display case contained a table setting for dinner with cards containing questions relative to table manners and table etiquette and their answers. This exhibit was contributed by the Home Economics Department of the school.

20. The Safety Exhibit was unusual and gave practical suggestions regarding safety in the home, camp, street, playground and the factory. Safety rules of everyday life were given through the medium of other adequately illustrated posters. This exhibit was created through the cooperation of the Travelers Life and Accident Insurance Company, American Red Cross, National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, and the New York City Board of Health.

21. Tuberculosis Exhibit. This exhibit was loaned through the courtesy of the New York Tuberculosis Association.

22. Olympic Exhibit. An Olympic Exhibit surrounded the official Olympic poster with pictures in all sports. Among others were famous football teams in action, water polo, wrestling groups, and remarkable photographs of soccer and diving. In addition, there was an athletic form display of the various track and field events. These form pictures illustrated famous champions in action, indicating that their championships were based on real form and that they were not freaks, and that athletic success came through training. Among the champions were Thompson, Simpson, Osborn, Bracy, and Paddock. This exhibit was made possible through the courtesy of Mr. Daniel Ferris, Secretary-Treasurer of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, the *New York Times*, and the Acme Newspictures Incorporated of this city.

23. The final item consisted of twenty-four sheets which we distribute for pupils' information in connection with our hygiene activities whenever needed or requested by the pupils. They refer to the subjects such as athlete's foot and its treatment, constipation, boils, acne, overweight, flat and weak feet, general directions relative to the treatment of postural defects, and additional leaflets on dandruff, colds, bathing and other allied subjects.

At the beginning of each hygiene period, the instructor with a printed program in hand took his class to the exhibition room, led the pupils through the exhibits, explaining wherever necessary the message intended, and gave necessary demonstrations. This lasted twenty minutes. For the remainder of the forty-minute period, the pupils moved about at will as their interest and curiosity prompted, while the teacher answered questions asked by the pupils.

During the week of the exhibit, the

English department coöperated in the project by making the various exhibits the subjects for themes and assignments.

Two weeks after the exhibit, a true-false test was given to 1,437 boys in all grades to determine if the information contained in the various exhibits was retained by the pupils and to discover what carry over, if any, had occurred. As the total register of boys during this term was 2,049, the results of this test should be reliable as to the effect of this exhibit. Below is given a copy of the test. Each of the thirty questions relates to a definite part of the exhibit, and is designed to minimize guessing and to require specific knowledge for a correct answer. The resulting scores, term by term, and a summary of the scores for the school as a whole are shown in the subjoined tables.

The scores of the test after statistical treatment indicate that there was a definite carry over and that the exhibit served the purposes for which it was created.

The planning of the exhibit and the collection and compilation of material was largely done by Mr. Adrien B. Paret and Mr. Alexander G. Rudel of the Health Education Department for Boys in conjunction with Mr. Herbert M. Ross, the chairman of the department. Effective coöperation was rendered by the electrical, chemical, and biological branches of the school's Science Department, the English Department, the school lunch room, the school's workshops, and the custodial force. The scoring of the tests and their statistical treatment were completed by the author.

Health Exhibit Follow Up

Questionnaire

To the student: If any of the following questions are true, cross out the letter "T" with a line: if it is false, cross out the letter "F." Every question must be answered.

T F 1. Poison ivy can be recognized by its five leaves and black berries.

T F 2. The best way to make a bed for camping out with two blankets is to lay a folded blanket on the ground and wrap yourself in the other one after reclining on the first blanket.

T F 3. The pulmotor is a useful machine to revive people who are unconscious from submersion in the water or overcome by illuminating gas.

T F 4. A fast ball game played in Canada is called jai-alai.

T F 5. Milk is a nearly perfect food.

T F 6. Temporary teeth should not be filled as they fall out anyway.

T F 7. Exercise cannot help weak feet or fallen arches.

T F 8. Arches and supports cure flat feet.

T F 9. The irregular bite of some children—called malocclusion—cannot be remedied.

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T F 10. Food and nutrition are closely related and concerned with the teeth.

T F 11. Most mushrooms are edible and can be eaten.

T F 12. The proper manner of distinguishing the harmless from the poisonous snakes is by the hiss and color.

T F 13. The appetite can always be trusted as a guide to food that is well balanced in all food elements.

T F 14. Hornets' nests are brown and are found in low bushes.

T F 15. The best immediate treatment after contact with poison ivy is to wash the exposed parts with common yellow laundry soap and gasoline.

T F 16. A good lotion for poison ivy is lime water.

T F 17. Form has little effect on a champion's performance in track and field athletics.

T F 18. The annual health examination is of great value in the prevention of illness and disease.

T F 19. Lacrosse, water polo, fencing, and squash tennis are mild, inactive games for a young man.

T F 20. Tuberculosis is the great foe of youth and is contagious.

T F 21. Night air is injurious to the sleeper.

T F 22. Pressure between the wound and the heart, or above and below the wound, is a good rule to follow in the arresting of the flow of blood.

T F 23. It is useless to continue artificial respiration after one hour.

T F 24. Always put out fires and clean up around camp sites in order to avoid forest fires.

T F 25. Regular use of the tooth brush does not aid in the preservation of the teeth.

T F 26. The best way to get all vitamins into the body is by taking cod liver oil.

T F 27. A quart of milk daily is needed by a growing child.

T F 28. Oil placed on the skin before exposure does not reduce sunburn.

T F 29. In a model shoe, a straight line may be drawn from the inner side of the heel to the toe.

T F 30. The best way to walk along a country road is against the traffic.

In marking, deduct 3.5% for each question answered wrong.

Per cent scored.....

O. Class Sec. Hygiene

Name of Student.....

Name of Scorer.....

SUMMARY OF THE SCHOOL 1ST TO 8TH TERMS

Step Intervals %	f	d	fd	fd^2
94-98	53	7	371	2,597
90-94	75	6	450	2,700
86-90	297	5	1,485	7,425
82-86	168	4	672	2,688
78-82	178	3	534	1,602
74-78	179	2	358	716
70-74	131	1	131	131
66-70	212	0	0	0
62-66	48	—1	—48	48
58-62	22	—2	—44	88
54-58	30	—3	—90	270
50-54	13	—4	—52	208
46-50	10	—5	—50	250
42-46	1	—6	—6	36
38-42	3	—7	—21	147
34-38	5	—8	—40	320
30-34	10	—9	—90	810
26-30	2	—10	—20	200
	1,437		3,540	20,236

c equals 2.463
c^2 equals 6.0666
Median 79.179
Ar. Mn. 77.852
S. D. 11.32

SUMMARY OF SCORES

Year of school	Term of school	No. of boys	Median	Arith. Mn.	S. D.
1.	1.	31	71.50	71.60	10.52
1.	2.	31	67.55	60.52	14.48
2.	3.	243	75.93	76.04	10.14
2.	4.	410	78.57	77.58	10.44
3.	5.	243	78.45	77.44	11.16
3.	6.	201	81.04	78.90	11.88
4.	7.	109	83.15	80.64	12.16
4.	8.	169	86.15	82.68	10.44
All	All	1,437	79.179	77.852	11.32

ALEXANDER G. RUDEL.
Seward Park High School.

Vitalizing the Teaching of Elementary Business Training

Business Training is a young and favored child in our curriculum. As such, it is not definitely "pinned down," but is in a tentative stage, subject to improvement as we see the need for it.

Because the subject is so new, many questions have arisen in the minds of the people teaching it. How can we teach the duties of the Stock Clerk or the Receiving Clerk to a class of fourteen-year-old boys and girls who are not interested in these clerks? How shall we make them feel the need for the study of these topics, uninteresting in themselves? I have tried a method which I think has aroused a felt need in the minds of the students. Let me give an illustration.

Our class studied the sales-clerk by turning the classroom into a department store. The teacher was relegated to the background. The students took turns at being the salesman or the customer. These student sales-clerks actually went through with the entire sale, from the tactful approach to the wrapping of merchandise. As a department store, our classroom had many shortcomings. None of the students, however, were so unimaginative that they could not visualize pens when the salesman said: "These are very fine pens. We are having a special sale on them." After our salesmen concluded their sales, they made out the sales slips on the blackboard. The forms had been drawn at the beginning of the period. During the progress of the sale, the rest

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of the class was busy listening and noting points for criticism. A class discussion followed each sale.

The criticism was based on the following points:

1. Manners and speech.
2. Interest in the customer.
3. Creation of desire in the customer to possess the merchandise.
4. Closing the sale.
5. Making the sales slip—form and legibility.

Most of the salesmen and salesgirls were very good, although a number made flagrant errors. Few errors were overlooked by the critics, who had many suggestions to offer. The customers were not criticized since real life situations were desired and the "customer is always right." We certainly did get a variety of customers —sweet, vinegary, hesitant and miserly. I think that we had almost as many types as any department store.

It is true that certain aspects of the subject had to be taken up in class to a greater extent, for they were only touched upon in the sales. This was relatively simple since we had the actual sales to which we could always refer. There was correlation with many subjects in the study of the salesclerk. The speech of the salespeople had been corrected in the criticism. The calculations on the sales slips made for training in arithmetic. The discussion of appearance and manners was an excellent opportunity in which to consider the effects of lipstick, chewing gum, high heels and flashy clothes.

Of course, the sales-clerk as a topic has many possibilities, but what is done when the shipping clerk or file clerk is studied? The shipping clerk was especially difficult to teach, since I have classes of boys and girls. We all know that girls are rarely, if ever, shipping clerks. Yet they have to know how to pack and mark goods, the methods of shipping, and so forth. The topic was motivated by the study of the history and means of transportation. Since our classroom in Curtis High School faces New York Harbor with its freight yards, incoming and outgoing boats, we had the opportunity of seeing all the means of transportation. Most of the information was given by the students, and I was delightfully surprised to discover their varied knowledge. After this, there was a class discussion of the factors upon which the choice of the means of shipment depends. In order to learn the duties of the shipping clerk, and the meanings of certain terms, such as consignee, bill of lading, route and charges prepaid, the class traced shipments from their sources to the destinations.

This method is far from new. It is just another variation of John Dewey's theory of preparation for life. In the examples given, it was done by placing the students in imaginary business situations. It is so simple to do this, for the grocer on the corner may be utilized, or the milkman, or any of the businessmen with whom the students come into contact. Thus deadening facts become alive in the concrete situation, and the students feel a need for the study of a truly vital subject.

FRIEDA WEINSCHEL.
Curtis High School.

Course of Study for Mathematics Honors Classes

The honors classes at Manual Training High School are made up of the pupils whose average the preceding term in the same subject was 75% or better. In a recent study undertaken by the Mathematics Department the matters of content and method of instruction for honor classes were given careful consideration. The following is a description of additional content which, it is hoped, will be incorporated in the course of study for these special classes.

In elementary algebra, when we teach fundamental operations and factoring in our ordinary classes we are forced to limit ourselves to integral coefficients. In the honors classes we plan to include fractions and decimals in both these topics. Furthermore, more difficult fractional equations than those taken in the ordinary classes are to be included. In our work with exponents we shall not stop with numerical exponents, but go on to literal ones in order to train these pupils in the ability to generalize.

Another topic in the elementary algebra syllabus is numerical substitution in literal equations. Under this heading we have the opportunity to give the pupils a background of the actual meaning of some of these literal equations which are formulas taken from geometry and physics. It would be very difficult to do the same thing in any average class. However, in the slower classes we are forced to spend so much time on drill and repetition that we cannot allow ourselves the time to go into the more interesting phases of the subject.

Graphic solutions of problems, such as time-rate-distance, work, lever problems, all of which are now solved algebraically, offer additional topics to be added to the elementary algebra syllabus because of their practical value and their interest to the student.

In plane geometry we compiled a list of supplementary exercises taken from a different text-book and arranged by weeks to correspond with our present syllabus. This list does not involve any new theorems in geometry. It is intended as illustrative material for the topics in the present syllabus, and as an aid to a better conception of geometric thinking. These exercises are to supplement, or in some cases to replace, some of the exercises in our own text. Although they are all valuable, lack of time will necessitate many omissions from this list. The number of exercises studied will depend upon the calibre of the individual class and will therefore be left to the discretion of the teacher.

In compiling the list we looked for exercises possessing the following characteristics:

First: Exercises which do not lend themselves to the stereotyped methods and mechanical aids with which we are forced to arm our weaker students, i.e., exercises the solutions of which

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involve the elements of discovery and geometric intuition. In such problems success is accompanied with much greater satisfaction and joy to the student than the solution of exercises which require merely the application of a specific method. It is the latter type to which we must limit ourselves in the non-honors classes

Second: Applied exercises taken from the fields of physics, chemistry and astronomy. These are exceptionally valuable in that they offer such clear evidence of the close interrelation between mathematics and the physical sciences. Here again, these exercises are not too difficult to be enjoyed by the average pupil.

Third: Exercises involving functional relationships; for example, changes that take place in certain parts of a figure when certain other parts undergo given changes, or the effects on areas when one or both dimensions are varied in some specific way.

In intermediate algebra, since the present syllabus is much too crowded for our ordinary classes, the most desirable accomplishment that can be hoped for is to cover this syllabus more thoroughly. For an exceptionally fine class, however, the following additional topics are suggested:

1. Graphic addition and subtraction of complex numbers. In advanced courses in physics students will find practical applications for this topic.
2. Graphic solutions of problems.
3. The solution of simultaneous equations in three unknowns.

In trigonometry we hope to be able to add to our present syllabus one or more of the following topics:

1. The use of the slide rule, which many of our students will find valuable in their later work in mathematics.
2. Plane sailing, a practical and interesting application of trigonometry to navigation.
3. De Moivre's theorem, the proof of which offers an excellent illustration of the beauty and elegance of mathematical thinking.
4. Construction of logarithmic tables, to prevent the students from using blindly one of the chief instruments in mathematical calculation.

In advanced algebra, we have added a unit of statistics, which are used so extensively now in practically every field of knowledge that an intelligent appreciation of the subject is highly desirable. Another topic to be added here is a little differential calculus as applied to maxima and minima and to the turning points of the graph, and also differentiation as applied to the laws of motion, velocity, and acceleration in physics.

In general, the chief aim underlying these additions is to teach the subject more intelligently, instead of serving as drill masters as we do in our ordinary classes. In this scientific age mathematics is necessarily one of the most vital subjects in the curriculum. It is unfortunate that in the average classes our efforts to get students to pass Regents' examinations are accompanied with so many difficulties and obstacles that we have not the time for anything but the barest outline of the syllabus. In the honors classes we should be able to do more justice to our subject.

ROSE SHORR.

Manual Training High School.

Method of Instruction in Mathematics Honors Classes

Pupils who receive an average of 75% or over in any grade of Regents' mathematics in Manual Training High School are segregated the succeeding term in special classes, known as honors classes. Since these honors classes are composed in the main of students who eventually go to college, we try to adapt our methods of instruction with these groups to the methods generally employed in college. Our aim is to conduct each lesson so as to bring the student more to the foreground, challenge his independence in thought and preparation of the work. The teacher conducts the lesson so as to stress rationalization. He puts more emphasis on functional thinking and less on mere mechanical manipulation of numbers. He tries to get the pupil to be critical of his own work and that of his classmates.

As the pupil is led to build up the new proof or solution by analysis he begins to realize that more is expected of his initiative. He, himself, must be satisfied and convinced. In the honors classes original exercises are left to the student to be done as homework. The teacher takes up a similar type of exercise in class and lets two or three of the pupils guide the rest of the class in arriving at a successful conclusion. But the homework exercises must be tackled by the student without a dress rehearsal.

At first the pupil resents having to do so much for himself. He is so accustomed to being coddled that he is at sea when left to his own devices. After a little success, however, he begins to realize that he is gaining in power. After working at an original exercise in algebra, geometry, or trigonometry for the major part of his allotted time, when the solution suddenly does sprout he experiences what is known as the "inventor's thrill," which makes him feel like an Edison or an Einstein, puts him back in good humor, and amply repays the difficult struggle.

Sometimes the lesson takes the form of organized study. The teacher merely makes the assignment for the following day's homework and leaves the students to their own devices for fifteen or twenty minutes. Then the teacher interrupts the work and there is a flood of questions on the various exercises. These questions are answered, whenever possible, by members of the class. Critical judgment is again emphasized. The wish to do as well as his neighbor will stimulate greater effort. At the same time the teacher realizes where the main troubles exist and builds a lesson to be given in the near future, definitely planned to help overcome these difficulties.

Occasionally an entire period or part of a period is given over to teach "How to Study." This is needed

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especially by those preparing for College. Taking some particular phase of the work as an illustration, the teacher by a series of skillful questions gets the class to tell just how the preparation and successful solution should proceed, the proper use of text index and dictionary, where the pitfalls occur and how they can be overcome. This is intended to cultivate in the pupils the habit of relying on their own resources and ingenuity.

As the term advances the classes are given longer stretches of the supervised study so that eventually the pupils build themselves into college material with a better chance for success there.

In the regular classes there is so much need for drill, repetition, and review that it is practically impossible to give even the fractional part of a period to supervised study. It is almost always necessary to do the greater part of the new assignment in class. The little time that is left of the period is used for recitation and review.

The assignments for homework in these honors classes are more thought-provoking. In the non-honors classes we find it necessary to repeat a theorem or exercise for several successive days, but with the honors group there is not so much repetition of assignment. Time is thus afforded for more original work and more difficult problems and for correlation of mathematics with the physical sciences.

For the time being, we are using the same mid-term and final tests for honors pupils as for the others in the same grade. Eventually, we hope to conduct recitations and make home-work assignments in such wise that we shall no longer fear to face our alumni who return to see us during their short vacations from college to inform us that we do too much for them at Manual, thereby leaving them unprepared and unfit to digest the college menu.

JEANETTE S. GOLD.
Manual Training High School.

Teaching Something About Engraving in the Advertising Course

In teaching Advertising in the high schools it is proper to include in the course some work on engraving.

In this connection the teacher undoubtedly has access to a number of line cuts and half-tones that have been used by the school newspaper or magazine. While these can be passed around and explained, it is so much better to obtain prints of the engravings right in the classroom. All that is needed is some printer's ink, an ink roller, and a piece of glass on which the ink can be spread. The cuts can be quickly inked and pressed against some mimeograph paper. A fair amount of pressure is all that is needed to transfer the image.

A much simpler means of printing is possible. Press the engraving on to a well-inked stamp pad. Then firmly lay the cut on to a piece of paper. This is as simple as printing your name with a rubber stamp.

While the students will enjoy the experience of inking and printing the cut by hand, there is a further opportunity of making the work still more attractive. This is by means of permitting them to do the entire job, from beginning to end, by themselves.

Of course they cannot work with metal. Instead they have to go back to the first step, historically, in printing. Only instead of using wood, we find it easier to work with linoleum.

The work consists of the following steps:

1. Prepare the sketch or advertisement on paper.
2. Transfer the above to a sheet of transparent tracing paper.
3. Reverse the tracing paper. (In printing the reversed part comes out as in the original.)
4. Lay the reversed tracing paper on the linoleum block with a sheet of typewriter carbon paper between both.
5. Go over the tracing with a pencil. The sketch is carried over to the linoleum.
6. Our next task is to cut away with the proper tools those parts of the block which are not to be printed.
7. When the engraving work is completed, the block is inked. Only the uncut surface takes the ink, therefore only this surface prints.
8. After the first print is made examine it for defects. You will thus find that you can improve the cut by going over certain portions with your tools.

Battleship linoleum should be used. A number of students may be assigned to go around to some of the neighborhood linoleum shops. They can probably pick up left over scraps suitable for this work at a very low cost. It should be warmed slightly before using, to get the best results.

The tools can be bought at a very slight cost. The cutting blades are available at a size comparable to a penpoint and very conveniently fit into an ordinary pen holder. They can be bought for $1 per dozen so that for a few dollars the class is supplied with tools which may last for several years. I am referring here to the "Tif" blades.

In inking, spread a little printer's ink from the tube on a piece of glass. Use the roller, going over the ink until it is thoroughly spread out. Apply the roller to the linoleum first in one direction, then in the other.

Lay the block on the table, the inked portion upward, place a sheet of paper on the block, and apply pressure. Work the fingers over every part of the paper to get the best print possible.

MILTON RUBIN.
James Monroe High School.

Pan American Day Festivities in New York

Pan American Day, an annual occasion set aside by presidential proclamation in each of the twenty-one American republics, was celebrated this year for the third time. Nevertheless, the significance of this day, dedicated to the ideal of inter-American friendship, has already, so soon

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after its institution, penetrated into the consciousness of thousands of students in the City of New York. If one asked for evidence of such a state of interest in inter-American relations among our student youth, especially in the cultural phase of Pan Americanism, the manifold activities of an educational nature carried on by students in connection with the observance of this new ALL-American holiday would be ample to indicate that there has really been achieved an understanding, an appreciation and a sympathetic comprehension of what the Portuguese and Spanish speaking Americans signify in the general scheme of human civilization and especially in the panorama of the New World.

However, in order to measure fully the value of these festivities and the students' participation in them, it is essential to bear in mind that they are the direct outgrowth of an all-year-round program of inter-American education carried on through the forty-three chapters of The Pan American Student League of New York, which now includes in its ranks almost all of the senior high schools of New York in addition to two of its colleges and an alumni chapter, and has already made its entrance into the junior high school system. This League functions actively throughout the school year. It does not limit itself to several gala occasions that occur during the year. These merely represent certain high points in its annual career, that bring together into one assembly large numbers of students from every part of the city. Such gatherings are its city-wide conventions, held once each school term, in May and December. These meetings of the representatives of the chapters of the League, constituting its Student Council, followed by public sessions or luncheons at which many other student members and their friends usually attend, are today the Greater City's outstanding forum on Pan Americanism. There is no other body carrying on this educational inter-American program here on a scale approaching that of the League's work in the high schools and other educational institutions.

Credit for guiding and encouraging this extra-curricular activity, comparatively new in New York, is due the Director of Modern Languages in the High Schools, Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, and to the corps of faculty leaders, each of whom is doing his or her share most devotedly in widening the American horizon of our students as a contribution to the development of minds capable of grasping the problem of international life, that are so rapidly becoming more tangible than ever to each and every individual in our own national community as everywhere else on the earth. The faculty leaders include not only teachers of Spanish but also those of American history. To emphasize the fact that inter-American relations concern all Americans, the Pan American Clubs, constituting the League, are conducted in English, so that there may be no language barrier. Of course, study of the Hispanic civilization of America and the cultural life of Portuguese-speaking Brazil in a variety of entertaining and interesting methods is the program of each of these Clubs.

This year, as on previous occasions, the League held its Pan American Day celebration in coöperation with The Pan American Society of New York, under the chairmanship of Mr. John L. Merrill, the Society's president and a leading figure among the country's foremost Pan Americanists. Due to a conflict of the official date of April 14 with the first day of the schools' Easter Vacation, our exercises as well as those of the Society were held on Tuesday, April 11. There was an essential difference, however, this year in the character of the celebration. While heretofore the League members came as the welcome guests of The Pan American Society, listening to their program, this time the distinguished members of the Latin-American Consular Corps in New York and the eminent ladies and gentlemen of The Pan American Society were treated to a splendid student interpretation of the Spirit of Pan American Day given in a series of dramatic and musical numbers. Officially, The Pan American Society was the host, generously placing at the disposal of the League the magnificent Grand Ball Room of the Hotel Commodore, which was most appropriately decorated with the colorful banners of the twenty-one nations of America. The Society also used its good offices to obtain the coöperation of the 16th Infantry Band of Fort Jay, and of a troop of Boy Scouts of America to raise the colors of the American republics for a salute by the audience as the corresponding national anthem was played by the military band.

The student portion of the day's program was preceded by a luncheon of The Pan American Society, at which Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins represented the schools. The luncheon guests were addressed by Hon. Enrique de Ruiz, Mexican Consul General; Hon. John Bassett Moore; Dr. Jacobo Varela, Uruguayan Minister in Washington and Hon. José Richling, Consul General of the same Republic and dean of the Latin-American consular corps here. Mr. John Merrill presided.

At 2:00 p.m. the student celebration opened in the Grand Ball Room, which was filled to its large capacity with the rising generation of an All-America-minded youth, pledged to bring closer to realization Simón Bolívar's dream of an America united in friendship and inspired with a New World Spirit for peace and harmony among the nations. The preparation of this program, in which several schools participated, was ably managed by Mr. David S. Goldberg, Faculty Leader of the Pan American Club at Samuel J. Tilden High School. Mr. Wilkins and Mr. William P. Flower, Secretary of The Pan American Society, worked out together the schedule of quotas for the schools invited to send student delegations.

The following program was received with enthusiastic plaudits by the audience, which included the con-

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suls, members of The Pan American Society and their friends as well as the members of the Student League.

1. "Argentina" — By Students of Samuel J. Tilden High School.
   Prepared by Miss Ethel Lehrer.
2. "Lo Que Significa el Panamericanismo Para Un Estudiante Hispanoamericano" — Address by Federico de Córdova, First Vice-President of The Pan American Student League of New York.
3. "Cuba" — By Students of John Adams High School.
   Prepared by Miss Selma Schulman.
4. "What Pan Americanism Means to a North American Student"—Address by Miss Marie Hammer, Member, The James Monroe Chapter of the League.
   Mr. David Rosenblum, Faculty Leader.
5. "Mexico"—By Students of Curtis High School.
   Prepared by Miss Elizabeth Eakin.
6. "Songs of Brazil"—By Miss Yolanda Norrisa (Soprano).
   Courtesy of The Consulate General of Brazil.
7. "Award in the Chile-American Association Essay Contest"—By Col. A. K. C. Palmer, Director of the Chile-American Association.
   Winner: Herman Slotkin, of the Samuel J. Tilden Chapter.
   Mr. David S. Goldberg, Faculty Leader.
   Prize: $25.
8. "Greetings to the Pan American Students" — Dr. Sebastião Sampaio, Consul General of Brazil in New York.
9. "Seeing the Other Americas"—Address by Edward Tomlinson, Contributing Editor of *Collier's Weekly*.
10. "Salute to the Flags of the American Republics"—Boy Scouts of America Raising the Flags.
    National Anthems by 16th Infantry Regiment Band, Fort Jay.

In addition to this city-wide celebration by the League in coöperation with The Pan American Society, each school held its own exercises under the auspices of its local Pan American Club. As the dates naturally varied with conditions in each of the schools, it is nearer to the truth to say that in New York we have a Pan American Month rather than a Pan American Day. To give in detail each of these programs would require much more space than is available for this purpose. However, the following are cited because of their interesting character and because they can serve as models and suggestions for faculty leaders of clubs and teachers who may have occasion to supervise such programs.

AT BUSHWICK HIGH SCHOOL—MR. LOUIS BERKOWITZ, FACULTY LEADER

Assembly Program, April 12—Miss Rose Scheick, Chapter President, in charge.

1. President's Pan American Day Proclamation — Read by Harold Vogel.
2. Dr. Butler's Idea of Pan Americanism—Rosario Scatturo.
3. Tango—Danced by Josephine Pizzinger and Morris Morrocco.
4. Current Events in Latin America —Reviewed by John Michaelis.
5. South American Melodies—School Orchestra.
6. Latin-American Idea of Pan Americanism—Adele Sloman.
7. Latin-American Songs—By Members of the Bushwick Chapter.
8. Pageant of National Anthems—Miss Kulick at the Piano.

AT DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL. PROGRAM ARRANGED BY MISS R. FREUDENHEIM AND DR. I. MICHAEL LEVY

Assembly Program, April 24.

1. Scriptures.
   English by Major C. D. Frank.
   Spanish by Rafael Gold.
2. Salute to the Flag.
   English by Assembly.
   Spanish by Frank Castaldi.
3. América — Sung in Spanish by Spanish Glee Club.
4. Scenes from Don Quijote — A Marionette Show Directed by Dr. Levy.
5. "Moral Disarmament" — Address by Mr. Edward R. Murrow, Assistant Director of The Institute of International Education.
6. The National Anthems of the American Republics — Mr. Williams, Organist.

AT HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE—MRS. LEAH KAHNHEIMER, FACULTY LEADER

Chapter Meeting Program, April 13—Mario A. Rodríguez, President.

1. Meaning and Significance of Pan Americanism—T. Hammerman.
2. National Anthems—J. Politi at the Piano.
3. The History of Pan Americanism —By S. Kritz.
4. Latin-American Selections on the Harmonica—By A. Canales.
5. Argentina's Educational System—By B. Defrin.

In Evander Childs High School the celebration of Pan American Day had to be set ahead to May 5, because of the intervention of a mid-term examination schedule and the Easter vacation. However, this choice of a date is as original as the idea embodies in the elaborate program developed by the Evander Childs Chapter under the leadership of Mr. G. Torres Colón in coöperation with the Department of Social Sciences, under the chairmanship of Dr. Ernest D. Lewis, who has given splendid and able direction to the spread of interest among students not reached by the Spanish Department. Miss Harriet Proctor, Chairman of the Spanish Department, puts all the resources of her organization at the disposal of the Pan American Club and therefore it presented a program of unusual interest and content, including an address by the Adviser on Inter-American Relations of the All-Nations Association, Mr. Philip Leonard Green, on "New Pan Americanists." In addition the program

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featured numbers of Latin-American music and talks on various Hispanic-American themes by members of the Club, presided over by Lucille Horowitz. Dr. Lewis spoke at the close. This meeting program was amplified by special programs in the recitation classes of Mr. Colón, S. Weinstein, and Mrs. Adele Mazzoranna.

Honorable mention for programs revealing student initiative as well as capable faculty direction is also due the following schools: Port Richmond High School, Mr. Bruno G. Mattei, Faculty Leader, held its celebration on April 7 and staged a Romería with typical Hispanic-American setting. Under the leadership of Miss Emma Dolgin, co-Leader of the Seward Park Chapter, the Club gave a program of Latin-American dances in full costume, prepared by the club members, and music. The outlying borough of Richmond is represented by another active chapter at Tottenville High School under the leadership of Mr. M. P. Wallace. A program of music, talks by students and a flag pageant featured by the Pan American Day exercises.

JOSHUA HOCHSTEIN.
De Witt Clinton High School.

The Teacher and Crime Prevention

A short time ago many Civics teachers were invited by the Police Department of New York City to see the police line-up. The inspector who questioned those who singly or in groups ascended the platform tried to impress upon the teachers present the fact that many of the offenders were boys and men who had been through elementary and high school.

Few of those present, I dare say, left the room feeling that they were personally responsible for the wrong-doing of these young men who ranged in age from 19 to 25. And yet there must have been some among the 18 who were interrogated who at some time or other were the black sheep in school. What can be done to minimize crime through school efforts?

Let the writer cite a case of two. Let the reader draw his own conclusions.

John had just entered high school. He was 15 years of age, 5 feet 11 inches in height. He was not as bright as the other boys in his class, although he tried hard to keep the pace. Being given certain extra-curricular responsibilities, he attended to them remarkably well, but failed two subjects the first marking period. His official teacher saw his report card but did not reprimand the boy. One of his subject teachers asked the official teacher why this boy was permitted to do the extra-curricular work and suggested that the extra duty be discontinued and the boy persuaded or forced to do his school work. This was done. The boy became morose, did less school work and ultimately quit school.

This is not a condemnation of the teacher. It is written in the hope that some light will be thrown on the method used in this and many other instances. The writer firmly believes that in instances of this sort an appeal to the sporting instinct would have produced far better results, and when we say sporting instinct we do not mean to be sentimentalists. To be exact, here is a suggested method of attacking the problem.

John is asked (not after, but during school hours), "Won't you let us take you off the team until you can catch up with your studies? If you can catch up by the next marking period, you will not only be allowed to play ball again, but you will also be allowed to join the Science Club."

The writer has tried and found this procedure to produce good results. Many boys and girls need treatment before they ask for "another chance." To recognize or diagnose each case, take the time to treat it and get the satisfaction that comes from seeing the boy or girl prove the trust placed in him or her, is in itself pay enough. Don't you think so?

LOUIS FUERST.
Jamaica High School.

An Experiment with Third-Term Latin Students

I have long been of the opinion that, if only our Latin students—whether of normal or of sub-normal ability—could be made to pursue their endeavors under circumstances conducive to inspiring in them not only a feeling of pleasure consequent on some definite, worth-while achievement, but also a profound conviction that, because of the indissoluble connection of their studies with the ordinary experiences of their daily lives, they are, at no moment of their task, engaged in acts of impractical value, a revival of interest in classical learning would almost immediately be engendered in our secondary schools and in our colleges. Despite this long-standing opinion, however, it was not until September last that, obtaining for the first time what seemed material appropriate to my purpose, I resolved to perform an experiment calculated to determine the tenability of my view.

Instead of following the customary procedure of reading, with the class, the story of the Argonauts at the beginning of the third term, I decided to have the students make an acquaintance, at the outset, with one of the enchanting stories in the new text-book, "Second Latin Book" (by Ullman and Henry), that had just been given to them. Past experience had taught me that it was impossible—nay, even hopeless — through the medium of the story of Jason's adventure, to develop in the boys and girls a mastery of the correct approach to a well-balanced Latin sentence. For one thing, even the brighter students were found to resort to "cribs"; and, of course, a teacher's efforts at explaining the Latin sentence structure are rendered utterly null and void, if the students have determined, in the meantime, to pin all their faith and hopes on these reprehensible makeshifts. Moreover, I had become satisfied that the very story of the adventure supplies the average high school boy or girl with none of the "*thrills*" which so often—alas!— com-

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prise his or her only adolescent quest. Again and again the boys have said to me that the plot seems "unreal," "not true to life." Well, here in their new books at last, I felt, was to be found an enchanting story, one that would readily appeal to them; for does it not portray student life, the very kind of life that they are now living, the very body of experiences through which they are passing? Furthermore, not only did it lend itself to a systematic presentation of the grammatical constructions to be studied during the term; but, in the absence of "cribs," it provided the students with an excellent opportunity for independent and honest labors.

As the term proceeded, I discovered that nearly all of the students found increasing joy in their efforts. To their pleasant surprise, the study of Latin seemed not a source of fear and worry, but of unalloyed delight. They were happy at the thought of accomplishing day by day for themselves something unmistakably worth-while; and this accomplishment was combined with the still more enjoyable circumstance that they recognized, in the deeds of Publius and Furianus, an almost faithful reflection of the daily round of student life of this as of other ages. They feasted—in imagination, to be sure—in the Athenian cook-shops with these two youths whose parents had sent them from Rome to study with the illustrious rhetoricians and philosophers in the Attic seat of culture. How sympathetically they read the letter sent by one of the boys to his parents with a gentle request for ample funds with which to entertain his classmates—yes, and even his teacher! The event, however, that evoked their greatest enthusiasm was the "hazing" which the two Roman boys received at the hands of their fellows at the opening of the school term. Natural enthusiasm! Unquestionably; for what sophomore does not delight either in "hazing" a freshman, or, at least, in witnessing the "hazing"? In short, the Latin period became an active part of the everyday life of these third-term students.

Taking advantage of the keen interest that the boys and girls had been manifesting in the lives of the Roman students in Athens, I sought gradually to direct their attention to the vehicle through which the story found expression. The idea was constantly impressed on their minds that thought can be enriched and illuminated only in so far as it finds expression in elegant, melodious, and explicit language. Latin, I pointed out, is admirably fitted, in view of its inherent characteristics, to impart to the thought which it conveys such beauty and lucidity as will cause the thought not only to sound agreeable to the trained ear but also to persuade the minds of its hearers. In other words, I endeavored to convince the boys and girls that a great part of the pleasure that they were deriving from the narrative was to be attributed to the inherent genius of the Latin tongue.

This naturally aroused in them a desire to examine some of the characteristics of Latin that had hitherto been exerting upon them a marked—though unconscious — influence in their appreciation of the narrative. Thus arose studies of such topics as:

a. The Concreteness of Latin expression;
b. Its Lucidity;
c. Its Distinctness and Directness;
d. Its Precision;
e. Its Logical Character;
f. Its Realism;
g. The Embodiment of the Writer's or Speaker's March of Ideas in the Latin Word Order;
h. The Detached Sentence;
i. The Period.

While, in these studies, we made ample use of both the narrative before us and the exercises based thereon, I had fully resolved on introducing the boys and girls to Caesar's style. I wanted them to realize that their ability to *think in Latin*—which is the great *goal* of their study—depended entirely upon their diligent study and thorough mastery of the best Roman models. In this connection, it was important to them to understand clearly that, while the Latin of modern authors *might* be good, the Latin of Caesar and Cicero was *bound* to be good. After careful consideration, however, I decided not to introduce them directly to Caesar but, in their Prose Exercises, to have them translate into Latin English versions adapted from Caesar. In order to do effective work with these versions, they were made to study practically the entire vocabulary required for the fourth term. My hesitancy to have the students read Caesar directly was due to the fact that I feared that one or two who had not fully developed a feeling for Latin mode of expression might have been tempted to make short work of their difficulty by resorting to the very "cribs," the use of which I was trying to forestall.

I cite a single example to illustarte our study of the characteristics of Latin style. The students were asked to render in Latin the following passage:

> The chieftains of the state as well as the three sons of the king himself were received as hostages. All the baggage was delivered up from the city. Then Caesar received the enemy into surrender.

Only a period, it was explained, was to be used. The following steps were then carefully gone through:

a. Selection, as the *Principal Clause* of the Period, of *the last event in respect to time;*
b. Selection, as Subordinate clauses to be rendered as *Ablative Absolute phrases* or as *Temporal Clauses,* of all sentences describing events *prior to* or *contemporaneous with* the Principal Clause;
c. *Omission of such conjunctions* as were rendered unnecessary by the re-phrasing of the passage;
d. *Giving emphasis and distinctness to the subject* by placing it at the *beginning* of the Period, *not* in the *Ablative Absolute* or in the *Subordinate Clauses.* "Caesar," therefore, the logical

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subject of the entire passage, was to be put at the beginning;

e. Writing the Subordinate Clauses or phrases in their *logical time sequence;*

f. Re-phrasing of the expression "c h i e f t a i n s" as "*the first* (men)"; also changing "*as well as*" to "*and also.*"

This preliminary preparation having been completed, the students could then proceed with the translation proper:

> Caesar, obsidibus acceptis primis civitatis atque ipsius regis tribus filiis, impedimentis omnibus ex urbe traditis, in deditionem hostes accepit.

One result of the students' interest in Latin, consequent on our unusual method of approach to it, was that on Friday, December 16 last, the Latin Club, comprising many of the third-term students, presented in the auditorium a play written by one member of the third-term class. This play, performed as part of the celebration of the Saturnalia, dealt with the experiences of an American student who was forced, through circumstances, to go to Rome (for the purpose of the play, in its ancient setting) to imbibe Latin culture. It was excellently executed, and revealed how much knowledge the author had derived from his Latin study.

A still more important result—I might almost say, an astounding result—was the fact that, in a contest for a silver medal, I gave to six of these third-term students the Regents' examination for last January, and the highest mark attained was 90½. The competitors were not aware, of course, that they were answering Regents' questions; for, shortly after the beginning of the Regents' examination, I had hurriedly made typewritten copies of all the questions—except the last, dealing with historical matter—, which I gave to them.

It will be recalled that I stated, in an earlier paragraph, that the class was not permitted to read any part of the "De Bello Gallico." The students, therefore, had no conscious acquaintance with Caesar's style. They did learn, however, from our procedure throughout the term, how to "attack" any type of Latin sentence; and not only had they developed a fair knowledge of the technique of Prose Composition, but they had acquired an excellent vocabulary. With this preparation, they were able to render in almost flawless English the three farily difficult excerpts from Caesar's accounts of both the Gallic and Civil Wars. Their Latin Prose Composition, too, was in most cases almost perfect—in one case, it was perfect; while, in another, only half a point was lost. Let me mention, in this connection, that, in place of Question 7, which, as I have mentioned before, was omitted, I gave them the entire six Prose sentences in Question 4. Thus, for the eight points which they lost on the easy historical question, they had to work much harder on the extra two Prose sentences. It is noteworthy, too, that they completed their test within *two* hours.

The ratings of the six are as follows:

1.	90½
2.	88½
3.	81
4.	75
5.	68
6.	58

Very many conclusions, it is evident, may reasonably be deduced from this experiment. I leave these, however, to be drawn by the reader. I content myself merely with observing that the results of the experiment are pregnant with significance for our teaching technique in Latin. Perhaps I may venture the added observation that herein may be found an indication of a partial solution of the harassing problem that ever confronts the Latin teacher, namely, how to prevent students from resorting to "cribs."

I am not aware of a project of this kind that has been conducted on similar lines hitherto. If, therefore, this article shall be the means of pointing my colleagues to a path whereby they may inspire in the students a keener interest in the language so dear to the hearts of those of us who, in our eager and loving quest, have been rewarded with a knowledge of something of the Mind of Rome, I shall feel amply repaid for the effort involved in drawing it to the attention of all friends of the Classics.

WINIFRED RANKIN.
James Monroe High School.

The Club Council at the Abraham Lincoln High School

One of the subsidiary groups that comprise the Abraham Lincoln High School G. O. Council is the Club Council. This organization was designed primarily to take care of the clerical work necessary in regard to the chartering and supervision of clubs. Since the school's inception two and a half years ago, the Club Council has increased its functions in many respects, and is, in points of numbers and enterprises undertaken, the most active of all clubs in the school.

Besides setting a standard for issuance of charters to clubs, the Council has undertaken as its primary duties those two of increasing club membership so as to have every Lincolnite a club member, and of having mutual coöperation among all clubs. The work has proceeded slowly; but with new ideas being introduced every term, the success of the completion of these aims is rapidly becoming evident.

To be chartered, a club must have held a meeting under the supervision of a Faculty Adviser, who has previously announced his intention to the Club Council of forming a new club, and has been assigned a room by the Administrative Assistant. At the meeting, the roll is taken, and a check-up is made as to whether every club member belongs to the G. O. This is done since the club activity is an extra-curricula activity financed by the G. O. A constitutional committee is assigned the task of preparing a club constitution, based on models of other clubs which are furnished by the Club Council. The Club Council retains these constitutions and examines them carefully.

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And what, exactly, is the Club Council? It really is the super-club of the school as it consists of the President of every chartered club in the school. The Council meets every other week to discuss club problems such as the two mentioned above; how to increase membership; and how to have mutual coöperation among all the clubs.

To further these plans the following projects have been carried out by the Club Council, or are being undertaken:

1. The publication of a club insert page in the school's publication. This was worked on by members of the literary clubs, who did the actual rewriting; by the Camera Club, which took all photographs, and the art clubs, which prepared cuts for the issue. All clubs submitted a report of their own activities, and the write-ups were grouped under such categories as Science Clubs, Social Science Clubs, and so on.

2. The Club Exhibit of last Fall, which was sponsored and publicized by the Club Council. This exhibit showed the work of more than forty of the school clubs, and was attended by hundreds of parents.

3. The preparation of club programs by the various club groups, to demonstrate the type of work these clubs perform. So successful were these Club Council programs that the G. O. has introduced them into several school assemblies for the edification of the whole student body.

4. The formulation of a definite plan whereby all clubs doing a similar type of work get together to discuss their plans two or three times a term.

5. The working out of a definite club code and a list of suggestions to be given to every club. This code is based on observation of the work done by the various clubs in the school.

6. The observation and written reports of the various clubs by members of the Club Council.

7. The posting of bulletins in the Main Hall Corridor to inform students where club meetings are being held for that particular day.

8. The preparation by the various clubs of articles and materials for sale at next Fall's Club Bazaar. The profits of this enterprise will accrue to the Student Aid Fund.

9. The constant publicizing of interesting club activities through the channels of the school's publication, the *Lincoln Log*.

All of these projects have not, as this is written, been worked out to complete perfection. The combined meetings of clubs doing similar types of work is an innovation of this semester, for example, and the Club Bazaar will not be given until next term. But the fact that the Council has done so much and is doing so much has stirred up interest in its activities to such a degree that others than club officers attend its meetings and frequently teachers are present.

Through the operation of an organization such as this, the most worthwhile of all school extra-curricula activities (and I call clubs such because

every student can equally participate in them) can be greatly enhanced.

BERTRAND BURGER,
Adviser, Club Council.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Chemistry in Popular Periodicals

Several interesting and valuable studies are available of the type of science articles appearing in either newspapers or magazines. Caldwell and Finley,[1] in an analysis of the biology content of a number of newspapers, found that these articles relate to genuine public needs and interests. They state it as their belief that if the public did not require this information, the paper would not publish these items. Curtis[2] found, in a study of science articles in newspapers, that 41.4 per cent. of the items dealt with the biological sciences and 49 per cent. with the physical sciences.

An examination was made of articles on chemical topics appearing in a number of popular scientific and non-scientific magazines for a period of one year from June 1, 1931, to May 31, 1932, inclusive. It is intended here merely to show the frequency of appearance of articles on various phases of chemistry. Since these magazines are widely circulated, it is believed that continued studies of this kind may serve as valuable guides to topic emphasis in our changing chemical curriculum. Obviously, it is important that our pupils, when they leave school, should be capable of understanding material of a chemical nature appearing in the newspapers or magazines that they are likely to read. Studies of this sort, to be of genuine curriculum value, must be made over long periods of time, since many articles on one topic may appear in a relatively short time because of some recent discovery or occurrence.

The popular scientific magazines examined were:

Nature
Popular Mechanics
Popular Science
Scientific American

The popular non-scientific magazines examined were:

American Mercury
Contemporary Review
Current History
Forum
Good Housekeeping
House and Garden
Ladies' Home Journal
Literary Digest
Nation
North American Review
Reviews of Reviews
St. Nicholas
Saturday Evening Post
Survey

NOTE: Numbers given below represent frequency of appearance of articles on topic.

Topic	Scientific Periodical	Non-scientific Periodical
Metals	18	5
Gases, including poison gases	6	9

1. Caldwell and Finley: "Biology in the Public Press." Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University.
2. F. D. Curtis: "Some Values Derived From Extensive Readings of General Science." Columbia Contribution 163.

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Topic	Scientific Periodical	Non-scientific Periodical
Nutrition, including vitamins	6	13
Electrochemistry	5	.....
Medicals and Drugs	5	4
Atomic Structure	4	6
Photochemistry	5	3
Abrasives	3	.....
Textiles	3	.....
Use of Waste	3	2
New elements	2	1
Biography	.....	2
Agriculture and biochemistry	2	3
Enzymes	1	.....
Fuels and oils	4	5
Carbon	1	1
Plastics	2	4
Paints, pigments and lacquers	1	.....
Refrigeration	2	.....
Explosives	1	1
Radium and radioactivity	3	2
Crystals	1	.....
Glass	1	.....
Building materials	.....	4
Sugar	1	.....
Cleansers	1	1
Water	1	1
New synthetics	1	1
Hobbies, including chemical magic	5	.....
Halogens	1	.....
Crime detection	2	.....
Research	1	1
By-products	.....	2

SAUL S. HAUBEN.
Brooklyn Technical High School.

A Satisfying Experience in the Teaching of the "Idylls of the King"

There were three introductory periods. Two were given over to prepared discussion, by the students, of such topics as *King Arthur*, *The Holy Grail*, *The Round Table*, *Chivalry*, and *Victorian England*. The third was devoted to an account, by the teacher, of the Legend, following closely Tennyson's treatment of it in the five Idylls to be given detailed study in class. Coupled with this account were the reading of selected passages and the working out of a genealogical chart.

Then followed an assignment requiring the reading of "The Coming of Arthur" and the writing up of special topics, given row by row as follows: (1, 2 and 3) select at least six character-revealing passages, indicating page and line numbers and, briefly, wherein each reveals character; (4) select at least six passages distinguished by the vividness of the pictures they suggest, indicating page and line numbers and, for each, the picture imaginatively seen. Pretend you've been commissioned to portray the picture on canvas; and (5) select at least six passages for their beauty of language or imagery, indicating page and line numbers and, for each, the nature of the beauty discovered.

The reports on this assignment were made on a single day in three classes. In the first, the students were requested to report on the topics assigned. Voluntary discussion was lively and proceeded somewhat as follows. After ascribing certain traits to a character, the speaker would refer his classmates to, and read, the lines revealing them. The results were disappointing. Discussion, though animated, was disjointed. The Idyll was ridden roughshod.

In the second class, this choppiness was avoided by confining discussion to one character or topic at a time. Again the results were disappointing. There was something overworked, futile, about character discussion. In addition, the cumulative beauty and effectiveness of the Idyll were quite thoroughly lost.

I left that second class with firm resolve not to subject the third to a like experience. At lunch I cogitated and masticated. The success of both efforts sent me to the third class with renewed hope and vigor. The ensuing period was so thoroughly enjoyable and the results so satisfying that I decided to record them, on the immodest assumption that such a record might, somewhere, sometime, prove profitable to someone.

I announced to the class that I proposed to read the Idyll and that I would pause frequently in my reading, so that students who had, in doing their homework, selected lines already read, might explain why they had done so. Explanations were, if anything, rather too abundant and were, happily, confined to discussion of the narrative rather than to its restatement. In fact, I deliberately ruled out the possibility of such restatement by telling the story of each subdivision before reading it. For example, in a later period, I told the story of one such subdivision somewhat as follows:

"Now Gareth didn't rush right off to Arthur's Court, even though his mother had said, 'O. K.' But one night, when all was quiet, and Bellicent's sad eyes were closed in sleep, Gareth and two servants, all dressed as farmers, softly stole from the castle and set out for Camelot. And after they had walked for a long time, they could see, far off, the spires and turrets (that is, the towers and steeples) of the City of Camelot. But even as they watched, suddenly the spires and turrets and everything disappeared. This so frightened Gareth's two servants that they turned to him and said:

" 'Oh! Mr. Gareth, Camelot seems to be a swell town, but . . . but it just occurred to us that we forgot to wind the cat and put the clock out before we left.'

"Now, let's see how Tennyson tells the story."

How gratifying was the absorbed interest with which the class then followed the reading! In all, I managed to get through almost half the Idyll, to give thirteen students an opportunity to make fairly extended, oral contributions, and to keep forty students voluntarily interested.

In conclusion, if I were asked to state four essentials for successful teaching of the "Idylls," I would list the following:

(1) Before assigning an Idyll, or part of one, for home reading, relate its story and read selected passages,

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preferably highly dramatic ones.

(2) Assign, together with the reading, the selection of passages on the basis of their poetic beauty, descriptive power, or character delineation.

(3) In class, read the Idyll, pausing at appropriate points for two reasons: (a) To permit class discussion of the lines read; and (b) to tell the story step by step.

(4) Bear in mind, at all times, that *superior* students have *great* difficulty understanding the archaic language of the "Idylls."

JULIUS BERNSTEIN.
James Monroe High School.

Extra-Curricular Activities at the James Monroe High School

No longer is the mere acquisition of knowledge considered educaton; the emphasis is now upon the development of the individual so that he can take his place in society and contribute to its welfare. He has a civic responsibility to which he must be trained. Secondary education must afford a liberal education to all. This means that we must break away from tradition which is keeping secondary education shackled, for what is the aim of education? In the last analysis, character is the final goal. The question arises, is character the result of nature or nurture? Character training must recognize the individual's own power—self, and also his contemporary life, his contact with his environment. We must therefore teach coöperation, loyalty and honesty through the activities of the school. Character training is successful when the child has a chance to develop from within and when we recognize his latent possibilities and give him an opportunity to cultivate his individuality in such a way that thereby he will be of greater service to others. For this reason we have introduced extra-curricular activities into the high schools.

The extra-curricular activity program at Monroe has been in operation for more than two years and in that time the "point system" adopted has proved very advantageous. Students are encouraged to participate in activities, but the students who are inclined to "run for every office" to "gather all the plums" are prevented from doing so by the rules of the point system, to be explained later. Students who are physically handicapped are directed into activities which are not detrimental to their health and a close check-up is made on the activities in which such students participate. Several teachers of the Health Education Department are on the Extra-Curricular Activity Board. The scholastic record of every student engaged in any kind of activity is carefully checked and complaints from subject teachers are registered with the teacher in charge of activities guidance. In some cases the student is required to give up the activity, and in other cases, where it is found that the activity may be of great benefit to the student, special help is given through individual scholarship aid by other students. In this way many students have taken a greater interest in their school work because they have realized that we want to help them.

Last term nearly 3,000 activity cards were filed, representing more than 1,200 students who participated in extra-curricular activities, showing that each student on the average participated in about two activities. This does not include the annexes. The figures show an increase over the previous terms, and indicate that the students feel something is obtained besides the regular curriculum. Furthermore, the opportunities for development of leadership have been increased.

An interesting factor is the matter of dean's cases (boys only). Of the students engaged in extra-curricular activities, only 72 were discipline cases. These 72 cases included such minor infractions as failure to carry a program card, using a wrong exit, coming late to class, and the like. It does not necessarily follow that extra-curricular activities are the cure of discipline cases; it may be that the troublesome student does not engage in any activity other than annoying his teachers and fellow classmates. On the other hand, the fact that there was a decrease in the number of cases as compared with the previous term, might lead one to suspect a correlation. However, only a more thorough investigation could satisfactorily answer the question.

The "point system" worked out and used at Monroe classifies all activities of the school into six categories under the headings: (1) executive, (2) literary, (3) dramatic, (4) teams (athletic and non-athletic), (5) clerical, (6) squad and club membership.

No student may participate in more than two activities in the same category per term, and all activities are divided into five main groups, A, B, C, D and E, depending on the importance of the activity and the amount of time devoted to it. Students are thus restricted also in the number of activities in which they may participate, not only in the types. This gives many students opportunities to participate in an activity and prevents a student from becoming a "joiner."

Part of the "point system" is herewith reproduced to illustrate how the plan operates.

Every activity in Group A counts 5 units and a student may carry only one activity in this group, which is composed of

President of the General Organization,

President of the Senior Class,

President of the Service League,

Editor-in-Chief of the *Monroe Mirror*,

Vice-president of the Service League,

Captain of Patrol Squad,

Assistant Captain of Patrol Squad,

Managing Editor of the *Monroe Mirror*,

A principal part in a major school production.

Each of these activities is classified as executive, literary or dramatic. A student holding an office in Group A

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may carry 7 units in other groups in addition to the 5 of the first group.

Every activity in Group B counts 4 units and only 2 of this group may be used in one term. Group C counts 3 units, Group D counts 2 units and Group E 1 unit. A student may enter 3 activities listed in Group C, or 4 in D, or 5 in E, but at no time may there be more than 2 activities of the same kind (executive, literary, etc.), and in no case may a student combine his activities to exceed 9 units except those students of Group A who may carry 12 units. At the end of the term credits are assigned to the various activities ranging from 5 to 50, in multiples of 5. These ratings become a part of the student's permanent school record.

Guidance work in this field is comparatively new, but, when worked out, it ought to prove of inestimable value to the student and to the school.

EUGENIE C. HAUSLE,
In Charge of Extra-Curricular Activities,
James Monroe High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

The Coöperative Test Service of the American Council on Education

Until quite recently, high schools have been unable to obtain standardized objective tests for testing pupil achievement in high school subjects which were not unsatisfactory in several respects. High school people should be interested to learn that more satisfactory tests are now available for most of the academic subjects taught in secondary schools.

These tests are produced by the American Council on Education through its Coöperative Test Service, directed by Dr. Ben D. Wood of Columbia University. The production of the tests is financed by a grant from the General Education Board.

Some of the outstanding advantages of the Coöperative Tests are:

1. There will be ten comparable forms in each subject so that it will not be necessary to repeat the same form of a test in any school within a period of ten years in order to carry on a periodical testing program as a basis for guidance work. This point will be readily appreciated by school people who have tried to carry on such a program when only two, or at the most, three forms of any test were available.
2. A new series of tests in all subjects is to be issued about the middle of April each year for ten years. Therefore, they are not available for any possible irregular use by either teachers or pupils before the spring testing period. Also, the tests will be sold only to properly identified school officials and, by special arrangement when desired, will be shipped so as to arrive at the school on any given date.
3. The tests are as uniform in mechanical make-up and in administration procedure as the different subject-matters will permit, so that pupils are not faced with tests of different size, appearance and arrangement in each subject or with widely varying administrative techniques.
4. The results are more nearly comparable than can be obtained usually by using tests from several different sources.

The 1932 and 1933 series of the Coöperative Tests are now available and further information concerning them may be obtained from the Coöperative Test Service, 500 West 116th Street, New York City.

Closely affiliated with the Coöperative Test Service is the Educational Records Bureau at 437 West 59th Street. The Bureau is a non-profit-making, self-supporting organization for educational service. It sponsors an annual spring testing program for both elementary and high schools and furnishes scoring and record service at cost to schools that want such service. It also solicits the coöperation of all schools or school systems carrying on testing programs with a view to establishing adequate norms for the tests used. Write to the above address for more detailed information concerning the Bureau.

The Social Science Teachers' Association Meeting on the Revision of the American History Syllabus

This brief summary of the proceedings of the meeting of April 8 is offered in the hope that it will bring to the entire teaching body, and to social science teachers particularly, a realization of the importance and vitality of an organization still in its infancy. There is no doubt, also, that the topic which was considered is in itself of special significance at this time.

In opening the meeting the chairman emphasized the fact that changed conditions in American life made revision of the American History Syllabus necessary, yes, inevitable. As a matter of fact, a committee of first assistants in social science was already at work on the problem.

What implications have the recent changes in America or the new outlook, created by problems such as the world has never before faced, upon the formulation of such a syllabus? With what philosophy of history or preconceived notions of social purpose, if any, must we approach this task of revision?

The Association was very fortunate, indeed, in having Louis Hacker, the well-known co-author of "History of the United States since 1865" by Hacker and Kendrick and a collaborator in the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, as the principal speaker of the morning. Lucian Lamm, chairman of the history department of the Franklin K. Lane High School, led

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the discussion which followed Mr. Hacker's stimulating presentation.

Mr. Hacker immediately plunged into his main thesis. The syllabus required changing because of the changes in what he termed the "American climate" since the war. These changes were so vital, so far-reaching in effect, that it would be better to say that we had witnessed the passing of "an age, not a decade." It was, therefore, absolutely necessary that we stop and question the bases of the previous syllabus, the intellectual philosophy which guided its preparation.

The speaker made it clear that, in his opinion, the chief purpose or philosophy of the old syllabus was to stress the operation of *political* forces —the triumph of *democracy*. It is permeated in all its parts by this political interpretation of history. In furtherance of its basic philosophy, the syllabus depends upon a system of rationalism which attempts to explain the rise of the middle or capitalist class in all countries as both the cause and result of political democracy. This, then, is the central theme. Democracy, therefore, is sanctified as the *summum bonum* of social striving. From this it follows that freedom of speech, suffrage, representative government, *laissez faire* and all the other trappings of political democracy become the very heart of the old syllabus.

Of course, the speaker readily admitted that, in a large measure, these principles were undoubtedly behind many of the social and economic developments of the previous "age." As a matter of fact, when we viewed conditions right after the World War, we might perhaps be justified if we examined them with equanimity. While it was true that here and there certain abuses did arise, we could with considerable justification feel that the principle of democracy had created a highly satisfactory social order. At that time we could hold fast to our old syllabus with smug satisfaction.

Although there was considerable questioning of the political philosophy of the previous decade in former years, never before was it on such a wide scale as it is today. There are many who now realize that the time has come to adopt a different theory of history, a new philosophy of social action, upon which a new syllabus must be built. "In place of political democracy as a guiding, pervasive interest, it should be our purpose to teach and interpret American History entirely on the basis of economic development." As for the old philosophy, we must now admit that it did not shape our economic institutions, but was merely one expression of them.

When we consider, among other things, the changes wrought by technological progress in recent years, the economic interdependence of nations, more apparent now than ever before, how else can we understand the America in which we live except on the basis of economic interpretation? We must retrace our steps and "point out how America evolved from a small agrarian community to a great capitalistic, imperialistic system." We must stress not only the story of the growth and concentration of wealth and industry, but even more the history of the development of our present theories of ownership of wealth, and this as the very keynote to an understanding of our present *mores*. We must make the effort to explain the concepts involved in such questions as why the American Federation of Labor parted with the Knights of Labor, why the I. W. W. arose in American life, what the present position of labor is. How else, Mr. Hacker asks, can we appreciate the importance of finance capitalism? How can we understand our international position today, unless we realize that after 1915 the United States was changed from a debtor to a creditor nation with investment needs abroad?

The speaker, in the course of his presentation, made a vigorous and courageous attack upon a problem, which had been troubling social science teachers for a long time, a problem which goes to the very heart of syllabus making, namely, *indoctrination vs. objectivity*. He asserted that scholars do not now want to wipe out indoctrination. On the contrary, they believe that it is absolutely necessary. Objectivity will not help us in the social sciences. We cannot and should not attempt to struggle through a maze or labyrinth of facts in the hope that they will point to some connecting thread, some underlying Zeitgeist or Weltgeist. In the social sciences we must work on deductive principles. We must start with a preconceived theory of history or philosophy of social action. Further, one cannot escape the fact that consciously or otherwise indoctrination is always present. Objectivity in social science is therefore nothing more than a fiction.

A syllabus cannot be free from indoctrination or propaganda. This is of course true of the old syllabus. It is now merely a question of changing the old form of indoctrination which made political democracy the result of American striving to a new form, more vital, more consonant with changed conditions.

The speaker who opened the discussion which followed Mr. Hacker's presentation expressed the view that the new syllabus must contain fewer details. It must lay stress on habits, skills and attitudes; it must contain more of the world background; it must emphasize social history to a greater degree and certainly more of the history of social thinking in accordance with the ideas of Rugg. Literature, art, and the like should not be taught in separate units. There should rather be an integration of all forces or factors in the development of a unit. The syllabus must also make provision for the specially able pupil who must be trained for leadership. Adequate emphasis must be placed on recent and current events. Mr. Lamm concluded by calling attention to two basic propositions. First, social science must be a preparation for the future as colored and controlled by technological advance. Second, more important than the syllabus in achieving the above objectives is the teacher. A

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more vital social science in our secondary schools must therefore be conditioned on a re-education of the teacher himself.

Only a very sketchy outline of the interesting discussion which followed from the floor can be here attempted. Among others, the following questions were put to Mr. Hacker:

(1) Will not indoctrination cause social science to lose its character as such and become an adjunct of religion?
(2) Who shall determine what shall be indoctrinated?
(3) If this is the function of the teachers of social science, what should we do if the community refuses to subscribe to our philosophy?
(4) Should the school adopt a new function in the social order? Should it promote revolution?

The danger of starting out without a careful definition of terms became immediately apparent when Mr. Hacker attempted his answer to these questions. The term indoctrination had obviously had a different meaning in the minds of many in the audience, for the speaker began his reply with the statement that his presentation contained the answer to the questions asked. He therefore reiterated that what was necessary in the construction of a new syllabus was the substitution of the economic interpretation, as he had explained it, for the political one.

In conclusion it may interest the general teaching body to know that the Association of Social Science Teachers is making definite plans for civic coöperation by social science teachers. This movement is predicated on the belief that those who teach for leadership in society, for social attitudes and coöperation, must themselves be leaders and active participants in work of worth-while social significance. Tentative plans have already been laid for the functioning of social science teachers in such civic matters as charter revision and election service.

JACOB L. BERNSTEIN.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

Why Go to Chicago?

What will teachers find at Chicago where the Century of Progress Exposition is held this summer?

There will be a well-planned exposition, the theme of which is the demonstration of the dependency of industry and commerce on the pure sciences. This is illustrated by a number of carefully worked out laboratory displays showing exactly how a process or phenomenon would be demonstrated in the school room or laboratory. In another place, these same processes, as they have been adopted by commerce and industry, are shown. For example, the laboratory and commercial production of pig iron from the ferrous and ferric oxides may be demonstrated. These demonstrations have been thoughtfully selected and prepared, in most instances by teachers in colleges and universities. They are not merely spectacular, but truly scientific.

These exhibits have been divided into seven subject fields; Astronomy, Physics, Mathematics, Chemistry, Biology, Geology and Medicine. For teachers, many new things in presentation and approach can be learned from them.

The University of Chicago offers summer courses to teachers. Its School of Education is sponsoring several conferences. One, that of the Administrative Officers in Institutions of Higher Learning, plans to discuss "Permanent Readjustment in Higher Education to Meet Changing Social Conditions." Another, the Institute for Public School Superintendents and Principals, expects to discuss "Public Administration and Supervision." Mr. James M. Stifler, Secretary of the University, indicates that many of the exposition projects are correlated with the work of the University, and have been worked out by members of the University staff.

The Adler Planetarium is one of the few fine ones in the world. To students of astronomy, this beautifully synchronized set of projectoscopes is indeed a delight. When the lights are turned off, the visitor sees, projected on the dome-shaped ceiling, the firmament. More remarkable still is the fact that the positions of the stars, moon and sun, as they were one hundred years ago, or will appear one hundred years hence, can be shown by simply manipulating the projectors. This mechanism was produced by the Zeiss Optical Company, and is the only one in America.

The National Education Association will meet in July at the exposition, and the Intercollegiate Musical Council will hold a meeting there during the same month.

Those interested in Art will find the Summer School of the Art Institute of Chicago an attraction. There has been collected by the Art Institute, in connection with the exposition, "the most important exhibition of European and American paintings and sculpture ever assembled in this country." The proposed work at the Institute includes such courses as Methods of Art Instruction, School Crafts, Modeling and the several types of drawing.

Dr. Henry Crews, former professor of Physics at Northwestern University, who is Chief of the Scientific Exhibits of the Exposition, has this to say concerning the fair:

"The aim of our staff is to interpret to the American people the spirit of the National Research Council Committee, as inspired by Dr. Burgess and Dr. Jewett. In attempting this, we are attempting to demonstrate the theme of the fair and to make plain what is meant by scientific method, which, after all, is the outstanding achievement of the last three centuries. To show phenomena rather than apparatus is not easy, but that is what we are attempting; to show the processes of life rather than museum specimens is still more difficult, but that is what we are attempting. . . ."

The Rosenwald Museum of Commerce and Industry is patterned after the famous Deutsches Museum in Munich. Here, the story of man's progress is graphically told. The vis-

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itor with serious interest can spend many profitable hours in this museum.

Available for students, too, is the Field Museum and the Shedd Aquarium. Both are long established and rich in materials for study.

Announcements of reasonable prices for hotels and restaurants have been made. Transportation will be cheap. The University and the Art School have announced special courses and lectures. It may be well here to remind the reader that Chicago is on Lake Michigan and that a fine boat service to Cleveland, Detroit, Canada and other lake ports is available. Teachers who care to combine a summer of serious study with a vacation will find the Chicago Exposition worth while.

K. W. EBELING,
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

High School Teachers at the Chicago Meeting of the National Education Association

The May issue of *Secondary Education*, which is published by the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, contains much matter of interest to high school teachers. Especial attention is given to the present emergency in education. Valuable articles appear under the following headings: "Providing for Individual Differences Among High School Pupils," "International Relations in a Rural High School," "It Takes More Than Victories to Make Sport," "Radio in Secondary Education."

In addition to some minor articles, *Secondary Education* includes the tentative program of the Department of Secondary Education, in connection with the Chicago convention of the National Education Association. The program centers around two general meetings and eight round-table conferences, dealing with the National Survey of Secondary Education. Many men and women connected with the work of this National Survey will present their viewpoints as specialists. High school teachers will lead in discussions of the papers presented.

The program has been arranged by President Ernest D. Lewis of the Department of Secondary Education, with the assistance of Emma McCredie of the Lindblom High School, Chicago, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—JULY 3

After a General Meeting, the Department will Divide into Eight Round-table Conferences.

General Meeting, 2 p. m.—Stevens Hotel, Grand Ballroom:

Presiding, Frederick T. Wilhelms, Bowen High School, Chicago, Ill., President, Chicago High School Teachers Association.

Report of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education—James B. Edmonson, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

"The Changing High School Curriculum"—

Leonard V. Koos, School of Education, University of Chicago, Associate Director of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

Discussion—Joseph B. Orleans, George Washington High School, New York, N. Y., and Chairman of the Committee on the Integration of High School Studies of the Department of Secondary Education.

English Round-table Conference in Coöperation with the National Council of Teachers of English, 3:00 p. m. — Stevens Hotel Room 423 A:

Chairman: Mrs. Mabel Tillson Garrette, Crane Jr. High School, Chicago, Ill.

"English in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

Dora V. Smith, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn., and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Leaders of Discussion: Stella Center, John Adams High School, New York City, former president, National Council of Teachers of English; Frederick Houk Law, President, High School Teachers Association, New York City.

Science Round-table Conference in Coöperation with the Department of Science Instruction, 3:00 p. m. — Stevens Hotel Grand Ballroom:

Chairman: Willis A. Sutton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Ga.

Section A

"Nature Study in the Schools"—

Elliot P. Downing, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Leader of Discussion: Theodosia Hadley, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Section B

"Science in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

Wilbur L. Beauchamp, Department of Education, University of Chicago, and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Leader of Discussion: Allen R. Moore, Director of Natural Sciences, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill.

Mathematics Round-table Conference in Coöperation with the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 3:00 p. m. — Stevens Hotel:

Chairman: E. C. Hinkle, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

"Mathematics in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

Edwin S. Lide, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Leader of Discussion: William Betz, Department of Mathematics, Rochester, N. Y., and President, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

Foreign Language Round-table Conference in Coöperation with the National Federation of Modern

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Language Teachers, 3:00 p. m.—Stevens Hotel:

Chairman: Arthur A. Bovee, Principal, University High School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

"Foreign Languages in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

Helen M. Eddy, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Leader of Discussion: Lilly Lindquist, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, Detroit, Mich.

Social Science Round-table Conference in Coöperation with the Department of Social Studies, 3:00 p. m.—Stevens Hotel, 250 Lower Tower Ballroom:

"Social Studies in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

William G. Kimmel, Executive Secretary for the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, American Historical Association, and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Leaders of Discussion: Winfield L. Rice, Acting Director of Civics, High School Division, New York, N. Y.

Music and Art Round-table Conference, 3:00 p. m.—Stevens Hotel:

"Music and Art in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

Anne E. Pierce, University High School, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education; Forest Grant, Director of Art, High School Division, New York City.

Leaders of Discussion: Lilla Bella Pitts, Grover Cleveland Junior High School, Elizabeth, N. J.; Estelle Hayden, Director, Art Department, Public Schools, Des Moines, Iowa.

Commercial and Vocational Branches Round-table Conference, 3:00 p. m.—Stevens Hotel:

Chairman: Emma M. McCredie, Lindblom High School, Chicago, Ill.

"Commercial and Vocational Subjects in the Changing Curriculum of the High School"—

Victor H. Noll, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; Lloyd L. Jones, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, and Franklin J. Keller, Director of National Occupational Conference, New York.

Leaders of Discussion: Anne C. Woodward, Somerville High School, Somerville, Mass.; J. O. Malott, Specialist in Commercial Education, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; Howard L. Briggs, Director, Department of Vocational and Practical Arts Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

LUNCHEON

July 4, 12:30 p. m., Stevens Hotel

SECOND SESSION—JULY 5

General Meeting, 2:00 p. m.—Stevens Hotel, Grand Ballroom.

Presiding, Ernest D. Lewis, President, Department of Secondary Education.

"Relations Between College and the Public High School"—

P. Roy Brammell, School of Education, Connecticut State College, Storrs, Conn., and Specialist, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Jerome Kerwin, Dean of Education, University of Chicago.

George Works, Dean of Students and University Examiner, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Leader of Discussion: Mary E. Courtenay, Dean of Girls, Lindblom High School, Chicago, Ill.

The Second Session Will Be Followed by the Annual Business Meeting

How Schools in 1,095 Cities Have "Cut Their Cloth"

How America's city schools have been affected in the present economic crisis is revealed by the Federal Office of Education. Inquiries addressed to more than 3,000 school superintendents in cities having a population of 2,500 or more brought information on school budgets for current expenses, school budgets for capital outlay, teacher-salary budgets, school building activities, length of school term and educational activities eliminated or curtailed.

The report, Office of Education Circular No. 79, prepared by W. S. Deffenbaugh and Emery M. Foster of the Office of Education staff, shows among other facts and statistics the following summary of adjustments made in many instances by city schools to meet decreased resources.

Teacher salary budgets lowered in some cities to as much as 40 per cent of last year's budgets.

Increased number of pupils per teacher in elementary schools, junior high schools and senior high schools. (In more than 50 per cent of cities reporting.)

Decreased number of teachers 2.4 per cent, although enrollment increased 1.3 per cent.

Planned for a shorter term (91 cities).

Decreased text-book purchases 16.8 per cent. (Approximate decrease, $5,487,177.)

Bought 12.6 per cent fewer elementary school books.

Bought 31.2 per cent fewer junior high school books.

Bought 20.7 per cent fewer senior high school books.

Decreased capital outlay in two years 57.6 per cent.

107,000 pupils attending school "part time" because of inadequate school building facilities.

59,000 pupils are housed in portable or temporary buildings because of lack of classroom space in regular school buildings.

Postponed repair of existing buildings. (In about 25 per cent of cities reporting.)

Curtailments in School Activities

Naturally, since the school exists for

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imparting knowledge to the pupils, the curriculum is generally the last thing to be touched by the Nation's school economy program. However, more than half of the cities reporting to the Federal Office of Education had eliminated or curtailed some school activities or services.—*Release of the U. S. Office of Education.*

Please Sign Your Contributions!

Articles sent to the editor should be signed on the last page by the contributor. The article entitled "Gestalt and Geometry," which appeared on pages 62-63 of our April issue, was prepared by Mr. Samuel Salzman of the Brooklyn Boys' Continuation School.—EDITOR.

REVIEW

The Great Technology: Social Chaos and the Public Mind

By Harold Rugg. New York, John Day Company, 1933.

There was the implication of a challenge to this country's future in Matthew Arnold's remark: "The test of your democracy will come with the exhaustion of your public lands." The time has come; our public lands are practically exhausted. Therefore, we cannot solve present problems by the time-honored American way of sending surplus labor westward, thus ending the surplus and at the same time providing expanding markets for the return of "good times." The present depression, which began as a stock market crash, has become an international crisis with political, social and educational aspects as well as economic. It is not surprising, then, that leading minds are grappling with the problem from various points of view, explaining the present from the past, suggesting routes through which we should pass toward recovery.

But the engineer considers the problem from the point of view of the generation and distribution of power. Similarly, economists see the problem from the viewpoints of the price system; the political scientist from the viewpoint of the organization and administration of government. What is needed is an integration of economics, government, engineering, education and history, an integration which will view the social crisis steadily and as a whole, and which will provide the basis for decisions and plans of social policy for production and distribution of goods. Such an integration is attempted in this book by Harold Rugg, who is no novice in this process, as he has to his credit a series of text-books wherein the various social sciences have been blended into a unity so that the student can see social problems in their larger relations.

In general, Professor Rugg believes that the present crisis is not just one more depression from which we will emerge into prosperity, according to the well-known theories of the business cycle, but really marks the end of an epoch. He presents a series of problems which must be faced now before a new social order may arise. The solution lies along the path of education of adult and youth, to indoctrinate them with the idea that the scientific methods, so successful in production, must be applied to social problems.

In the early pages of the book are documented six reasons for considering this depression more than an incident in a cycle. These reasons are as follows: (1) This depression is more prolonged. Practically all previous depressions have been short-lived. In most cases the first signs of recovery were noted within two years. This crisis, however, is now in its fourth year with very few hopeful signs in view. (2) It is world-wide and more violent. This needs no evidence here, for the newspapers have printed enough to verify a hypothesis held by some impracticable academicians that the world is an interdependent whole with an economic nervous system extending to all parts of the globe. (3) Trade-destroying tariffs have been raised between trade-starved peoples. This symptom of pathological nationalism which has assumed the proportions of an epidemic, is to a large degree due to the leadership of the United States which has taught the world how trade can be paralyzed in the name of patriotism. (4) Large stocks of merchandise were on hand in 1929 and have not as yet been consumed. The stocks on hand at the beginning of previous depressions were used up within a year or a year and a half, and the consequent demand for more goods started industry on its upward path. But almost four years have not been sufficient to deplete the stocks on hand in 1929. (5) An undue burden was placed on the economic system by the World War and the Treaty of Versailles. The former had all the evil effects on the economic system that wars generally have on the economic structure. Versailles, however, introduced the economic concepts of reparations and war debts on a world-wide scale and their reactions on the flow of credits destroyed the finely adjusted balance of international payments. It is more than a mere coincidence that history's biggest war was followed by history's biggest depression. (6) The development of machine technology, referred to in Modern History texts as the Second Industrial Revolution, made possible the over-production mentioned above and introduced technological unemployment by its new and more efficient method of generating and distributions energy in its various forms.

Many options present themselves as a way out of the muddle, but they all can be reduced to three: "rudderless, drifting inaction; emotional assertion of class rights with some degree of design; scientifically designed reconstruction of society." Needless to say, the author prefers the last course of action.

Before giving descriptions of various plans of social reconstruction, the author gives an account of industrial development since the First Industrial

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Revolution. This account consumes about one-third of the book.

In general, his historical account is acceptable in its development. He recognizes the trend during the past century and a half away from *laissez-faire*, greedily accepted by industrial leaders one hundred years ago, to the modern age with its tendency toward social control. However, I could not help feeling that his ideal was not Thucydides, the impartial, but Tacitus, the Judge Advocate, pleading his case at the bar, for at times his understatement, or overstatement, while very rhetorical, loses its force when checked with more reliable sources. For instance, on page 51 Dr. Rugg gives the population of England in 1800 as 7,000,000 and on page 80, the population in 1811 is given as 12,000,000, an increase of 71%. However, the Statesman's Year Book gives the population as 8,900,000 in 1801 and 10,000,000 in 1811, an increase of only 12%.

His point of view may be given in his own words: "As a result of the century of effort men were given fairly competent machines to aid them in producing a livelihood. Power-driven machines to raise, harvest and prepare their food; machines to make their clothing; machines to build, furnish, heat, cool and clean houses; machines to transport people and their things. Machines — power-driven — to send messages, to carry on business, to make records, to printing reading matter, to entertain. Thus, the foundation was laid for the power production of goods.

"But machine technology could not have been achieved by the invention of engines and machines alone. Two other sets of ideas contributed to it equally . . ." (p. 42). The first of these was the concept of corporate control; the second, *laissez-faire* and with it the "myth" that government rules with the consent of the governed.

This whole system led to economic anarchy. Since the aim of the leaders was not the greatest good of the greatest number, but maximum profit in terms of dollars, there was no social design of the system for social ends. Rather was the future often mortgaged for the sake of immediate gain. And the result of it all was 1929 and after.

After any crash comes the task of reconstruction and the author considers various choices in the last half of the book. He first presents synopses of various plans (those of Beard, Chase, Soule, LaFollette, and Swope) which are elaborated more fully in the Beard's "America Faces the Future." Not one of them, it may be noted, assumes a need of making drastic changes in the nature of the economic system. All of them, on the other hand, provide for far greater social control through statutory creation of a National Economic Council to act as a planning board with power to regulate the basic means of production which, in general, remain under private ownership.

From all this, Dr. Rugg deduces fourteen axioms considered indispensable to a new synthesis of economic reconstruction wherein the technical operation of industry will be reconciled with democratic control. Some of these may be mentioned briefly.

1. An economy of abundance is possible with the present level of technological development.
2. Wages and prices cannot be set in terms of workers' productivity. Some other unit of purchasing must be found.
3. The national economic system must be controlled and operated as a single unit.
4. Reconstruction must recognize that dynamic populations are becoming static.
5. A stabilized social order demands a new set of units of exchange.
6. Only real wealth must be produced and distributed. An unduly large surplus must not be allowed to the well-to-do.
7. The national economic system must be reconstructed to provide for central control of the whole enterprise.

Up to this point, the author is at his best. Not so convincing is he, however, when he offers specific plans. One of his plans, for instance, calls for a National Council of Cultural Reconstruction, which would call for the modest sum of two or three billion dollars *each year* to be obtained from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Compared to this our present wonderland of bureaucracy would be very Lilliputian indeed! It is enough to recall that total appropriations for the fiscal year of 1933 were about four billion dollars and that the deficit is still with us.

In discussing educational consequences of the crisis, the learned doctor soon gets back into his stride. Education of adult and youth, that is to say, education of the whole being for life in a technological order and not merely training in literacy, is considered the key to social reconstruction, for education occupies a strategic position in the social order.

Education is in a state of flux; there is much unrest since the World War. This is not unexpected, for great social movements and crises have always been accompanied by a critical re-evaluation of educative aims and processes. The Renaissance was responsible for the reorganization of secondary education; the Reformation, for universal elementary education; the French Revolution for development along national lines; the scientific movement's influence on industry and its concomitant economic nationalism paved the way for vocational education.

The above are examples of piecemeal reconstruction. Dr. Rugg visions an educational reconstruction which will make the process life-long and though he offers a program for youth, he is as much concerned with the education of those beyond school age.

His program, the ultimate aim of which is the creation of human personality, divides itself into two phases: the scientific, to teach the technique of problem solving (the search for facts, hypothesis, verification, etc.),

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and the aesthetic, to teach appreciation. "No matter how efficient its technology or humane its government, no culture will be truly great if it does not instill a high order of appreciation in the people." The central intellectual core of his curriculum is an introduction to changing civilization and cultures, the title, incidently of one of his texts. It would be "social science . . . plus some of the materials and activities sometimes grouped in English literature and science."

Although this book must be read with others, notably "America Faces the Future," edited by Beard, to get a balanced view of the problem, this work is nevertheless significant, not so much for the problems it settles, as for the problems it leaves unsettled—problems which must be faced in attempting an intelligent criticism of our economic structure. Matthew Arnold's challenge remains unanswered.

SIDNEY D. PALEY.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

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PROGRESS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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TEACHING makes the teacher subordinate to organization. Therefore important school changes come often more easily when a whole system is moving in the same direction. Teachers' meetings, unless the participants are content to remain civically ossified, must discuss what are the political needs of now, and must resolve what changes the teachers will make. Superintendents, meeting with representatives of teachers, must clarify the doctrines of tax-supported schools and lay out plans for making the daily exercise work toward civic betterment.

Superintendents and teachers planning district conventions must recognize the absurdity of the old programs which have given this preponderating theme so little attention among the matters of less importance.

The management of teacher-training institutions must give every student thorough inoculation with the overwhelming political duty of the tax-supported public school and equip the teacher graduates with intelligent ability to work toward the civic aim.

These are the chief discouragements appearing in recent educational literature. In spite of my absurdly optimistic temperament, I find the situation desperately serious.

But in spite ot ali the evidence of undesirable qualities developed in teachers by teaching, these men and women are not so debilitated by unfortunate traits as are ministers, lawyers, business men, politicians or any trade or profession I ever came in contact with. During all these years I have known intimately some pitifully wizened souls holding places intended for teachers. But I could match each one of them with two or three contemptibles in each of the other walks of life. An outstanding fact of every group of teachers I have worked with during forty years is that they could be led to higher ground. What does teaching do to teachers? The undesirable things I have quoted. But teaching also, as I have seen year after year, creates a hunger to be of value to the world, a desire to be in the procession of progress, an affection for the human stuff that keeps walking into school year after year and walking out to make up the nation. Teaching has taught teachers that teaching has to be organized, that loyalty to the organization is the only respectable course. Organize, with the coöperation of representative teachers, the public schools on their original foundation of political preparation, supervise the new teaching fairly, applying to it the same corrective measures you have given to reading and arithmetic. You will at least escape the present nasty charge that you never intelligently or actively tried to carry out the promise that the founders made for you.

WILLIAM McANDREW

In his address "What Teaching Does To Teachers," given at the 15th Mid-year Education Conference, Michigan State Normal College, January, 1933, and published in **The American Schoolmaster** for May 15, 1933.

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THE CHOICE OF TEACHERS DURING THE DEPRESSION*

BEYOND the swirling rapids of the East River there stands in a quiet tree-shadowed courtyard the only monument to an educator of which New York City boasts. Behind the statue lies a low wooden building dating from the 18th century. In front of it rises a tower reminiscent of Magdalen College in Oxford. Through the archway beneath the tower one catches glimpses of the life of the town flowing busily and noisily past this sheltered close. The town is a descendant of the Dutch village whose fathers built the little low-set frame school house behind the statue. That is possibly why the bronze Erasmus, a replica of the original in Rotterdam, seems so perfectly at home in his new environment, as he stands, intent upon his book, a look of inscrutable benevolence on his keen face. Here you have a man neither young nor old, yet perennially youthful, eager for life and knowledge, *turning* the pages of the book he is reading as he stands backed by antiquity, facing modernity

The statue of Erasmus may be said to represent an ideal. It recalls a man of definite standards, profound scholarship, keen wit, wide and varied experience of life, himself a teacher in a time of unrest and upheaval. It suggests that there is a certain permanence of ideals of which the school is the guardian, somewhat as the monasteries of the Middle Ages were the guardians of the old ideals of learning, of hospitality, of the honesty of manual labor.

This parallelism between the ancient monasteries and our schools today has dictine Monasteries," says Robinson, "furnished retreats where the scholar might study and write in spite of the prevailing disorder of the time." What of our schools today? I have in mind a boy whose father is slowly dying of a malignant growth. The mother and sister both work. The boy himself works from eight at night to four in the morning, sometimes, in an emergency, to six or eight in the morning, then comes to school, as to a retreat where he may "study in spite of the disorder of the time." I have in mind a young girl whose home has been without heat for most of the winter and who has studied her lessons in the evening by the light of a candle because there was no money to pay for electricity. She finds school not only a retreat for study, but also a refuge that meets her actual physical need of light and warmth. In these days there are literally hundreds of such children, and of other children whose escape from an intolerably unhappy emotional situation at home lies within the shelter of the school.

*Delivered before the Modern Language Conference on the Improvement of Teaching During the Depression, Teachers College, Columbia University, May 13, 1933.

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How are we to choose the men and women who shall teach these as well as the more fortunate children? Not, primarily, because those men and women want a job or need one. In times of depression we read a great deal about the injustice of keeping on the older teachers and so keeping out the young ones. As if age and justice had any relation to each other in such a case! Or, especially, as if the schools existed merely to furnish jobs! Teaching is of necessity a highly individualized art and not simply a wage-earning occupation. "Not every one that saith unto me, Lord, Lord, shall enter into the kingdom of heaven," and not every college graduate who clamors for a job is fit to be a teacher.

One's attitude toward any question is inevitably influenced by one's previous history. You will recognize this statement as a premonitory symptom of an approaching attack of reminiscence. In the early days of this century, then, the choice of a teacher for a New York City high school was to a very great extent at the discretion of a principal. To illustrate: A young friend of mine, recently graduated from Vassar with Phi Beta Kappa, was at that time finishing her second year of teaching in a small boarding school in the Hudson River valley. She learned through the superintendent of schools in her home town of a possible vacancy for the coming year in Erasmus Hall. By the same gentleman the principal of Erasmus Hall, Dr. Gunnison, was informed that my friend Miss X. would consider favorably exchanging the seclusion of the Hudson River town for the lure of gay Flatbush. There was an interview in the principal's office in the old 18th century building, to which Miss X. went with a very rapid pulse, though greatly fortified by a brightly shining Phi Beta Kappa key and all the credentials she could muster. Unfortunately, Dr. Gunnison ignored the key and brushed aside the credentials rather cavalierly, saying:

"Oh, yes, that's all very well, but what can you do?"

Before my goggled-eyed young friend could manage to stammer that she thought she had spent the last few minutes telling him all that quite prettily, he went on:

"You see, it is my belief that the school should be a social centre, that the four years of high school should be years of happy social intercourse for the pupils, and I want teachers who can contribute a great deal more than mere classroom work. I wish you played the fiddle."

"Why the fiddle, Dr. Gunnison?"

"Because it can be transported without a truck and four or five men to handle it, and because I'd like to have you play in the school orchestra."

My friend looked past Dr. Gunnison and the old mantel-piece with tiles imported specially from Holland. She saw the gracious old sycamore trees shading the lawn that stretched to the pleasant old street. Everything looked attractive to her. Then she remembered, with a flash of inspiration, that in her long-gone childhood she had insisted on having a violin and on practising it to the agony of her family and the wrath of the neighbors. Falteringly she said: "Perhaps I *could* play the fiddle, I used to years ago." Always afterwards she said she got the job because she could play the fiddle. This was literally true, though there were certain formalities necessary to legalize the award.

This is what was done at that time: The principal desiring the appointment of a certain teacher recommended him—or her—for the city examinations. Without such recommendation no one was admitted to the examinations. These were given on two successive days, pedagogy the first, your subject last, three hours to each session. If you had come from out of town, the examiners very kindly arranged upon request to give you the oral examination on the afternoon of the second day. It seems incredible, doesn't it? Life was so simple, in those days. Simple and direct, too, was Dr. Gunnison's expression of opinion regarding the pedagogical part of the examination:

"You say you haven't had a lot of courses in pedagogy? Don't let that worry you. Just get De Garmo's *Principles of Teaching* and cram up on the nomenclature and you'll get by. You know enough of the practical side of it."

After these three examinations you had, of course, a physical examination. Then you spent a long morning teaching, under observation by Dr. Gunnison, his assistant, Miss Turner, some teacher of your subject, and anybody else the principal thought might enjoy the show. Finally, having survived these various ordeals, you met the local school board, of which Mr. Richard Young was at that time president. They were very august and serious-minded gentlemen—apparently—and you felt like a very small and wriggly cabbage-moth impaled on a pin as you sat at the long mahogany table during the interview. After they had read aloud the confidential letters from the good-natured souls who had permitted you to refer to them, and had questioned you and discussed you quite dispassionately in your uncomfortable presence, you were glad to flutter out into the free world again. But you almost always got the job, because you never took the *first* examination unless the principal thought you would do.

Dr. Gunnison had rather definite ideas as to what would do for his school, and went to considerable pains to find the teachers who could give him what his school needed. He did not always wait for them to come to him, but in the early days of developing Erasmus Hall High School he frequently went to other towns to observe the work of able teachers and to interview them. Always he had in mind the valuable social qualities which he believed were essential for his purpose. "Your scholarship and your ability in the classroom I take for granted," he is quoted as saying. "Your tact and sympathy and sense of humor I should like to be assured of." "I wish you weren't so—serious in class," he said to a sober-minded young man. "Why don't you smile more?" There was a

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story current of a man who came to apply to Dr. Gunnison for a position. After setting forth the items of his excellence of equipment, the candidate said:

"I must not forget to tell you, sir, that I neither smoke nor drink."

"That's quite all right," replied the Doctor cheerfully. "I do enough of both for the whole faculty."

"She is an able woman," he said of one candidate, "but her health is poor. We cannot take on a hospital."

One needed robust health, for indeed it was no sinecure, teaching in Erasmus Hall thirty years ago. The first year my friend Miss X., was there she taught the regulation number of periods, played second violin in the school orchestra, coached a basket ball team, and was adviser to a sorority that met every fortnight. In addition to this she was expected to accept every invitation to class spreads, which were frequently of weekly occurrence. Sinecure or not, you knew when you took your job that your extra-curricular activities were an important part of it, and you came to value your social contacts with your pupils for the insight into their spiritual and intellectual needs that you gained from them. Dr. Gunnison had always so valued them, and had scoured the country to find teachers who met his need.

Because he realized, whether our present dignitaries do or not, that there is very great danger of in-breeding in the school system of a big city. It seems on the face of it so logical that the graduates of the high schools shall go on to the local colleges and universities and training-schools for teachers, and then come back to train other generations to graduate from the high schools and go on to the local colleges and universities and training-schools for teachers and then come back to train—and so on, just like the locusts going in and carrying off another grain of corn! Yet one staggers before the appalling perspective of sameness and monotony. There is unquestionably an invigorating quality in the infusion of new blood, the adoption of a different view-point. But the procedure through elementary school to university and back is pretty generally followed by our young people. They have, in consequence, no actual experience of life outside their own town. Very few of them even go outside of New York City to teach before becoming candidates for appointment to our local schools. Apparently they believe with Romeo:

"There is no world without Verona walls,

But purgatory, torture, hell itself!"

No matter how great their scholastic achievement they lack the broadening experience of contact with viewpoints of other regions. They remain parish-minded with the provincialism of a metropolis.

What, then, are we to do about the choice of teachers in a time of depression? Well, remembering that the teacher is the Keeper of the Gate, that we have behind us a precious past and before us a noble future, let us, hardening our hearts and stopping our ears to the clamor for jobs as teachers from the needy of the city, realize that our responsibility is to the children who come thronging to us for sanctuary in these disordered times and select with care those men and women whose endowments promise to meet their needs.

How select them? The technique of selection seems to me unimportant, convinced as I am of "the sterility that is inherent in a technique and the magic that flows from a philosophy." But I am quite sure that when they *are* chosen, their minds will be open, like the book of my bronze friend Erasmus, and that, like him, they will always be ready to turn over the page.

BEATRICE SHAW MCGILL,
Chairman, Department of French.
Erasmus Hall High School.

PRESENT STATUS OF INTELLIGENCE TESTING

What Is Intelligence?

As a preliminary to this discussion it will be worth while to take a moment to get a clear understanding of what the psychologist understands by intelligence. Like most terms in which psychology couches its proclamations, it has come into the laboratory from the street. In non-technical usage it means ability to meet the situations of life successfully, and especially to acquire new experiences and make new adaptations economically. No question is raised as to whether such ability is of ancestral origin or whether it is constructed by experience. Within some thirty years the word has acquired for the psychologist a distinct technical meaning. Even in this limited field of technical usage, however, there is not complete agreement. So illusive is the thing denoted by the word in its narrow technical sense that it is difficult to find enough agreement among experts to justify a definition. The conversion of language from popular to scientific use always leaves upon terminology the taint of loose thinking. Furthermore, the manifestations by which we observe intelligence in those around us are the manifold forms of behavior by which they display this assumed capacity, and such external activities often throw a screen about inner factors such as motive, objectives, and adaptations of actions to purposes. To illustrate: an individual who hears a witty story may laugh mimetically with those about him, and the next moment turn to a companion and ask, "What was the point of the story?" Judged from behavior this dullard responded to the cue as quickly and generously as the quickest-witted there gathered, and yet his slow mentality failed utterly to click to the subtle cue. Another source of obscurity that this term shares in common with all other abstract general terms is that the name seems to create an entity. An identical difficulty is characteristic of the word *instinct*, which has become such a conjuror of ghostly abstractions that careful psychologists and biologists are on the eve of dropping it from their vocabularies. It is the tissues of imagination that abstract terms have

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woven in the past that gave rise to the outcaste faculty psychology, that myth-maker of the days happily gone by. At the outset we shall lay aside the implication of some obscure and abstract power lurking in the *hinterland* beyond biological phenomena, and regard the word *intelligence* as a term that summarizes the striking single trait of quick and successful behavior in meeting the amazingly complex and shifting situations of environment. I know of no verbal formulation better than that of Woodworth, modestly advanced as merely tentative:

"Acting according to the situation in hand, with use of what has been learned before, but also with due regard to what is novel in the present situation, and to the whole situation rather than to some striking part of it." ("Psychology," Rev. Ed., p. 24)

This definition stresses the following features of intelligence behavior: (1) facility in adjusting to the present situation; (2) application of accumulated experience to the present problem; (3) recognition of points of deviation of the present situation from those roughly similar to it in past experience; (4) mental adjustment to the whole stimulatory situation rather than to some particular, perhaps minor, but exciting aspect of it. One aspect of human intelligence that this definition implies but does not sufficiently emphasize, in my opinion, is the ability through imaging of means that are not directly conveyed by the stimulatory situation to make mental conjectures of solution before a behavioristic application of the imagined means is tried out. This use of images is a kind of rapidly functioning mental trial-and-error. It greatly enriches the resources of our human problem-solving, economizes our energies of both mind and body by dispensing with the actual physical try-out of the several ideational suggestions by substituting a mental try-out that leads to abandonment of futile suggestions in favor of those that will work better, and thus facilitates the most economical and efficient behavior when the moment of action arrives. This feature of intelligence is well illustrated in the suggestions that guide in perfecting inventions, and is given a beautiful laboratory demonstration in the study preceding a chess move or in the preliminary pondering in anticipation of the direct attack on an intricate mathematical problem. In order to incorporate this last important point I hazard in fear and trembling the following definition:

Intelligence is the native capacity to meet problems of both behavior and thought with native and acquired resources, so that adjustment can be made to their crucial difficulties through mental and physical manipulation of means with the greatest economy of effort.

My definition brings to the fore one other point on which there is now pretty general agreement that Woodworth fails to advertise sufficiently, namely, that intelligence itself is native or inborn, though most of the tools through which it demonstrates itself are acquired. At present there would be, I think, practically no

dissent from the view that for biologically-minded psychologists intelligence is a transmission of inheritance, working no doubt through neurological instrumentalities that function as bodily maturation proceeds.

The Opposed Theories as to the Factors in Intelligence: Spearman's; Thorndike's

Current opinion as to the components of intelligence is alined under the leadership of Spearman and Thorndike. Spearman's theory is known as the "two-factor" theory. One of these factors he symbolizes by *g*, which refers to the so-called "general" intelligence tested nowadays by the more famous intelligence tests; while the other, more obscure factor he designates by *s*, which alludes to a supposititious factor that invigorates each behavior or performance. For example: the *s* manifested by subject A might be an artist's unusual sensitiveness to color-tone, while the *s* of his brother artist B might be feeling for form or else composition. Spearman, armed with the mathematician's training, does not find it inconsistent with his two-factor theory to introduce two other symbols, making a sum of four. In his book, "The Abilities of Man," published in 1927, he introduces into his formula two modifying tendencies that he considers to be constantly operative, just as a varicolored spotlight will change the appearance of a dancer. These are an element worked out by Garnet and symbolized by *c* and another differentiated by Webb that is symbolized by *w*. To summarize Spearman's formula: *g*=a general factor analogous to the *energy* of physics; *s*=any single specific factor (multiple *s*'s may cluster in an individual intelligence); *w*=volitional stability (Webb speaks of it tentatively as "persistence of motives" and "consistency of action resulting from volition or will"); *c*=freedom from inertia or quickness of response. It would seem to the lay mind that Spearman's theory has changed subtly into a four-factor theory to be formulated thus: *intelligence* = *gs* modifiable by the variant *wc*. Spearman summarizes the effects of maturation or aging on intelligence thus:

"*g* increases from birth—at first rapidly, then more and more slowly—until not later than 15-16 years (and perhaps much earlier) its growth definitely ceases. Thereafter it normally retains its maximum level unaltered right up to the end of life (or, at least, to the onset of senility). The lines of different individuals run parallel to each other; that is to say, whoever is ahead of another at some early age (11 years, or perhaps still younger) will normally retain this advantage for the rest of his days. For the *s*'s the life history cannot be traced on such simple lines, since these *s*'s themselves are far from simple. At the core of each is what may be called a pure, innate specific aptitude."

Thorndike's theory is called the *Multi-factor Theory*, and he explains it thus:

"The hypothesis which we present and shall defend . . . asserts that . . .

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the higher forms of intellectual operation are identical with mere association or connection forming, depending upon the same sort of physiological connections but requiring *many more of them*. By the same argument the person whose intellect is greater or higher or better than that of another person differs from him in the last analysis by having, not a new set of physiological processes, but simply a larger number of connections of the ordinary sort."

Thorndike symbolizes a connection by *c*; it would seem to follow that all one has to do to measure an intelligence is to take a census of its *c*'s.

Résumé of Intelligence Test History

The universally known pioneer work in intelligence testing was the elaboration by Alfred Binet and his assistant Simon of an age-level test for backward Paris school children. This testing began at the turn of the century. The tests were standardized and revised in 1908. They had by this time aroused the interest of American experts in the mental-defective field. Dr. H. H. Goddard, then connected with the Vineland, New Jersey institution for the feeble-minded, was the leader who exploited them in this country. He revised them somewhat to adapt them to our American ways. Other revisions have since been made, the most widely used being that of Terman, known as the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon scale. It is a remarkable tribute to the genius of Binet that no more accurate measures have been devised for ages 2 to 12, and that this is still the only test that gives a direct I Q, the intelligence index given by all other tests having to be equated to the Binet-Simon. One difficulty of administration with these tests is that they are individual and thus require much time and patience to get results. It was felt that if a satisfactory method of group testing were devised, this handicap would be largely overcome and a much wider use of the testing device could be made. It was our entry into the World War in 1917 that spurred on American psychologists to work out group testing. The need of sorting out recruits on levels of adaptability that would permit them to profit by the kind of intensive training-camp regimen that was appropriate to their degree and kind of intelligence was the incentive to group testing technique. Since many of the recruits had poor schooling two tests were devised: the "Army Alpha", a group test for literates, and the "Army Beta" a group for illiterates. The latter variety of test, which has since been developed in other forms, is known as a performance test. One of the most commonly used is the Pintner-Patterson Performance Scale.

Two difficulties have confronted test-makers: one is to devise a means of testing infants, who should be the most useful subjects for securing data on strictly native behavior, owing to the fact that experience has as yet affected them relatively little. The difficulty in testing infants is obviously to get test material that will encounter measurable and steady reactions. The other difficulty is to devise tests for adults in intelligence maturation. In this case the difficulty is to find testing elements that minimize the experience factor. It must be apparent that if the generally held opinion is correct that so-called native intelligence reaches its complete maturation toward middle adolescence, it is hazardous to introduce the only available test materials that must by that age have become deeply overlaid with experience, and to make the somewhat gratuitous assumption that we can lift off the load of learning and find beneath a deposit of inherited intelligence. Despite these difficulties some progress has been made in both directions. The American phychologist Kuhlmann has revised the Binet tests downward so as to provide fairly successful test materials for infants at the 3-months, 6-months, 12-months, 18-months, and 24-months reaction levels. The Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test is very well adapted to children just entering either the kindergarten or the first grade. There are several other less known tests covering the same field. Many ambitious endeavors have been made at the upper end. The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Test constructed under Terman's supervision provides two super-age tests beyond the 14-year range, one for "average" adults and one for "superior" adults. One of the most widely used group tests for secondary school students and collegians is the Otis Group Intelligence Scale—Advanced Examination; also his Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability—Higher Examination. Other well-known tests for this age-range are Thurstone's Test IV—Psychological Examination for College Freshmen and High School Seniors, and Thorndike's more recent (1927) test called "Intellect CAVD." In this test Thorndike relies largely on the products of academic and other social learning. The elements of this test are indicated by the four letters of the code-title, which mean respectively *completion, arithmetic, vocabulary,* and *directions*. Mention of this test reminds me to emphasize again one point that has already been alluded to, namely, *all intelligence tests are under the necessity of using the products of normal and universally prevalent learning to get at the underlying intelligence indirectly on the assumption that experiences not acquired when the environment favors their acquisition indicate a deficiency in inborn capacity to acquire them*. This assumption underlying intelligence testing makes of school learning-environment a slowly operative intelligence testing device; hence the age-old academic assumption that those who fail to learn under school motivation are mentally dull may be said to be well-founded. However, as will be mentioned more at length in the critical summary, there are pertinent factors in the school atmosphere besides mentality that may encourage or impede attainment.

Practical Uses of Intelligence Testing

Intelligence scores have some practical use in sociological studies and

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vocational selection. A recent investigator, Burt, made a study of juvenile delinquency and intelligence by investigating 200 juvenile delinquents in comparison with a control group of 400 non-delinquents of the same age and social status. He found 7.6 per cent of the delinquents mentally defective and only 1.2 per cent of the non-delinquents so affected. However, the delinquent groups showed a normal intelligence distribution from I Q under 70 to high I Q's in the 120-140 range. Healy's extensive and careful studies of Chicago delinquents show a similar wide distribution, indicating a negligible correlation between delinquency and defectiveness. As an example of these sociological studies to which allusion has been made I cite two tabulations, the first a picture-drawing performance test given to children ranging from four to ten in California, and the second an intelligence test study of very young children of different occupational groups.

Drawing Test

Parental Stock	*Average I Q*
Jewish	106
Scandinavian	105
Chinese	103
American	100
Japanese	100
German	99
Armenian	92
Iatlian	88
Mexican	87
Indian	86
Negro	83

Occupational Groups

Father's Calling	*Average I Q*
Professional	116
Manager—Proprietor	112
Clerk—Salesman—	
Retailer—Mechanic	108
Farmer—Baker—Printer—	
Chauffeur—Barber—	
Waiter	105
Semi-skilled factory	
operatives—Teamsters—	
Porter—Servant	104
Unskilled laborer	96

But the most wide-spread use has naturally been in schools. A study of such uses has been made from questionnaire reports received from 21 cities of over 10,000 population. The findings are arranged below in order of frequency.

1. Homogeneous classification.
2. Supplementing teacher's estimate of pupil's ability.
3. Diagnosis of the cause of failure.
4. Selection of subnormal groups.
5. Extra promotions.
6. Comparative study of school systems.
7. Admission to the first grade.
8. Placement of entrants from other schools.
9. Regular promotion.
10. Scaling relative teaching efficiency.
11. Selection of supernormal groups.
12. Diagnosis of success.
13. Demotion.
14. Changing teaching methods.
15. Determining class marks.

16. Selection of supervised study groups.
17. Vocational guidance.
18. Determining the number of courses in the curriculum.
19. Determining the selection of the high school curriculum.
20. Admission to high school activities.

An interesting study of the relation of the I Q to school marks is given in a table based on the analysis of over a thousand cases in the Providence public schools.

School Mark Status

I Q Score Range	*Per cent Failed*	*Per cent Condition*	*Per cent Passed*	*Per cent Good*	*Per cent Excellent*
Below 70	40	54	6	0	0
70-79	24	60	16	.0007	0
80-89	4	31	55	9	.009
90-99	.0005	11	67	20	1.5
100-109	.006	6	39	45	9
110-119	0	3	19	57	19
Above 120	0	0	14	33	48

Another short tabulation shows the relation between intelligence and alertness to danger.

Intelligence group	*Per cent injured*
A	33
E	32
C+	51
C	64
C—	71
D	100

Reliability of I Q for Diagnosis and Prognosis

Intelligence testing has been widely used in schools to diagnose learning difficulties and to prognosticate scholastic probabilities. Judgment differs as to its worth. Arguments have ranged all the way from the *laissez faire* attitude of lethargy of the old-fogy type of pedagogue to the battle royal between Bagley and Terman. Bagley maintains that handling pupils on the basis of intelligence expectations is a procedure of educational determinism that steals from youth under the name of science its inalienable right to an equal chance. If all men are created free and equal, why take from them at the threshold of life a fair start by labelling some stupid? Terman replies by calling his opponents would-be miracle-mongers who would conceal under a coating of soft and sentimental words the stubborn fact that nature makes differences that no sophistry of educational optimism can erase. It is a kindlier educational policy to face these inborn variations in ability and provide experiences adapted to their most fruitful exploitation than to gloss them over by sentimentalities that are totally out of keeping with natural law. Let us leave the verbal dispute and look at the statistical evidence. The following table indicates some of the correlations that have been found.

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Correlations between Entering I Q Scores and High School Ratings

	(r)
I Q and Average Achievement	.495
" " English	.70
" " Social Sciences	.42+
" " Mathematics	.49—
" " Science	.46
" " Foreign Languages	.63
" " Commercial subjects	.43+
" " Manual Arts	.19—

It will be noted that the highest correlations are in the linguistic field and the lowest in manual arts, suggesting that I Q's are better measures of intellectual than of manipulatory and feeling abilities.

As to prognosis, Terman's studies of high I Q's by the follow-up plan would indicate that I Q's give a reliable basis of prediction when they are at the high end of the scale and unusual factors of circumstantial interference are left out of account. In general he and his co-workers have found that high I Q'd individuals have made good in other than purely academic situations. They more than hold their own in the business and professional worlds, on the athletic field, at the social gathering, and in most of the enterprises of after life.

It will be of interest, however, to quote a few opinions of some practical teachers who are not enthusiastic over the deliverances of intelligence testing in order to give a balanced picture of opinion. The views quoted are a few selections from statements made by some 300 teachers and principals who represent fifteen departments of instruction from kindergarten to senior high school. The data were obtained by pupil-teachers who were perhaps able to get a somewhat franker response than awe-inspiring administrative officials could elicit.

Commercial teacher: "No use; they don't correlate with anything."

Classroom teacher: "Tests take too much time; we should study the child."

Modern language teacher: "Don't need these tests; I test by conversations."

Woodshop Teacher: "Not much use; telling is not doing."

Attendance teacher: "I Q tests are dangerous; rarely detect skippers."

High school principal: "Do not show will or determination of pupils."

College faculty member: "I can tell what mark to give when I see the work."

High school English teacher: "By looking at a girl's face I can tell what her mark should be."

Tenth grade teacher: "They do not detect potential criminals."

CRITICAL APPRAISAL

In conclusion, it will perhaps be appropriate to give a summary of personal opinion about these tests so far as they bear on school work.

(1) It is probable that in their present form they have reached the zenith of popularity; this does not imply that they will not still be widely used, but merely that they will not continue as a dominant note in the pedagogical fashion show.

(2) As instruments of measurement they are deficient in exactitude because as Thorndike has pointed out they lack both a zero point and exact equated graduations—a deficiency that scientific measuring devices cannot tolerate.

(3) The great majority of intelligence tests are either entirely literate or preponderantly so; this weights them too heavily with abstract and symbolical material.

(4) Even the more behavioristic performance tests either resort to pictures or to artificial pastime materials such as puzzles, and therefore do not present the practical life situations which, generally speaking, motivate the most adroit reactions.

(5) The artificiality of the testing situation is likely to be suspected by even the very stupid and the very young; hence reactions are more likely than not to lack the normal response "set" which is so valuable in appraising human behavior of all kinds.

(6) These tests indicate "intelligence" almost exclusively in its intellectual aspect. The writer is personally inclined to doubt whether there is such a thing as a purely intellectual mental activity. We certainly see in all forms of problem solving from the cross-word puzzle to the inventive creations of higher mathematics, science, and philosophy a marked accompaniment of emotionally conditioned motivation. Dogged determination to solve the riddle despite bafflement is the great potential back of all human achievement. With the exception of such clumsy pioneer efforts as the Downey Will-Temperament Test the emotional-volitional factor is not measured. It may be hoped that intelligence tests will be invented which will include this neglected factor; but they lie in the future.

(7) Since intelligence tests are strictly time-limited, they do not provide sufficient experimental outlet for either mental or manipulatory trial-and error. It is now generally conceded that all problem-solution, both the trivial and the crucial, resorts to trial-and-error; indeed, that short-cut solutions by so-called insight are simply expeditious trial-and-error in the experimental chamber of a richly stored imagination. Intelligence tests should be devised and administered so that this universal thought-and-action-pattern may be given ample play.

THE OTHER SIDE OF THE PICTURE

The above criticisms are not meant as grounds for repudiating intelligence testing. It has rendered signal service, and with probable improvement in test-construction, standardization, and administrative technique, much more may be hoped. At present the following seems to be the most useful service that intelligence tests can render to schools:

(1) Homogeneous grouping for the purpose of similar methodology, progress-rate, and curricular adaptation. For this purpose intelligence tests should be supplemented by aptitude and attitude tests. Grouping must avoid inferiority fixations.

(2) As a basis for vocational guidance. Misfits are a heavy social liability. They could be largely avoided by sympathetic testing.

WILLIAM J. TAYLOR.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

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AVAILABLE VISUAL AIDS IN THE TEACHING OF FRENCH CULTURAL MATERIAL

THE visual aids in the teaching of French cultural material in the senior high schools of New York City, offered gratuitously by museums and organizations of the city, will be treated under the following topics: (1) Special Exhibits (including photographs); (2) Lantern (colored stereopticon) slides; (3) Motion picture film, both 35 mm. and 16 mm.; (4) Lectures by members of the Museum staffs; (5) Special guide service, school service and opportunity.

The museums and organizations whose aid is discussed in this article are the following: The Metropolitan Museum of Art, Fifth Avenue and 81st Street; The American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West and 77th Street; the Official French Government Tourist Office (Office Français du Tourisme), 4 East 52nd Street; and the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique (French Line), 19 State Street; all located in New York City.

THE OFFICIAL FRENCH GOVERNMENT TOURIST OFFICE

The Office Français du Tourisme, operating under the Ministère des Travaux Publics, République Française, is not a "travel agency," but a bureau of official tourist information about France. It was established in 1920. The OFFICE has a large and constantly renewed supply of the latest tourist literature about France, copies of which are given free to inquirers. For the convenience of would-be tourists, it has also a few good guide-books (chiefly in English) and maps for sale at cost, and also special road maps for motorists. It also has a collection of thirty-seven motion picture films, loaned free to any New York school, and a collection of fifty-three sets of stereopticon slides, each set having about sixty slides, also for free loan to our schools.

SPECIAL EXHIBITS, INCLUDING PHOTOGRAPHS

The Metropolitan Museum of Art has more than twenty galleries filled with objects of interest to students of French. It is therefore not possible to list their contents. The collections range from jewelry and weapons of the time of Charlemagne to the work of present-day painters, sculptors and craftsmen. As to the many photographs and colorprints that are lent by the Museum to the schools, their number is being increased almost weekly, and it is therefore impossible to supply lists or catalogues of such material.

The American Museum of Natural History has among its special exhibits anthropological material from French Congo, Africa. Also of particular interest are the reproductions in the Hall of Man, of the prehistoric paintings found by M. Norbert Casteret in the subterranean caves at Les Eyzies, Dordogne, France. The finding of these paintings and sculptures of 50,000 years ago is described in detail by M. Casteret in an article in the *National Geographic Magazine*.

The American Museum of Natural History has some of the *National Geographic* photographs mounted and available for distribution to the schools. They are at present cataloguing the prints which are ready for distribution, and have not yet sent out to the schools any notice that these aids are available for them. The mounted prints are sent out in celophane bags to protect them and are classified in the same manner as their series of lantern slides.

The Office Français du Tourisme has innumerable beautifully illustrated booklets of the various regions and important cities of France.

The French Line will supply picture-plans of their most important ships, including the "Normandie," the largest ship in the world. They also have a very large collection of illustrated booklets.

SLIDES (COLORED STEREOPTICON)

The lending collection of the Metropolitan Museum of Art comprises more than 52,000 lantern slides and 12,000 photographs, consisting of reproductions of architecture, sculpture, paintings and decorative arts, furniture, textiles, casts, maps, charts and electro-type reproductions of ancient coins.

There is no printed catalogue, since the collections are being added to constantly.. Application forms for loans are furnished on request and a selection of material will be made for those who cannot come in person, complying as far as possible with their demands. There is one prepared set of slides of interest to students of French: "Jeanne D'Arc," from Domrémy to Rheims.

The American Museum of Natural History has an enormous collection of colored slides. Some of these are *not* accompanied by manuscript. The slide groups *not* accompanied by manuscript are the following:

G 94 Life in a (French) Congo Village
G221 The (Panama) Canal Zone, The French at
G 30 A trip through Belgium
G 28 Normandy and Brittany
G234 Cities of Northern and Central Europe
G235 Europe's High Mountains
G238 The Mediterranean Region
G239 Industries and Products of the Mediterranean Region
G 97 Africa
G 34 Famous Canals of the World (including the Suez, built by the French)
G279 Famous Explorers
G 48 Early Discoverers and Explorers
G304 The Middle Ages
G 63 Paul Revere's Ride
G288 Yorktown
G 53 Inventions of the Early 19th Century

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G185 Great Inventors
G136 The World War

The following illustrated lantern slide lectures are accompanied by manuscript giving detailed information:

Set No. 15, Story of Aviation
31. Silk, — Origin, Culture and Manufacture
64. Canada,—Coast to Coast
32. Early New York
1. Western Europe
*17. France,—Paris
*18. The French Riviera (La Côte d'Azur)
*38. Climbing Mont Blanc
2. Panama Canal (Work of the French at)

The lantern sets of the Office Français du Tourisme have each about sixty slides. They are not accompanied by manuscript. They are as follows:

Set No. 1. Nord de la France
2. Meuse, Champagne, Ardennes
3. Touraine, Orléanais
4. Ile de France
7. Armorique
11. Bourbonnais, Berry, Sologne
12. Bourgogne, Morvan
13. Alsace
14. Jura
15. Dauphiné
19. Vallé du Rhone
21. Vivarais, Velay
23. Région des Causes
18. La Côte d'Azur
24. Des Cévennes aux Pyrénées
27. Limousin, Quercy, Périgord
28. Landes, Pays Basque
29. Corse
30. Algérie
31. Tunisie
42. Sur les Vieilles Routes de France
45. Tourisme Nautique, Fleuves & Rivières de France
46. Tourisme Nautique, Côtes et ports de France
49. L'Hotellerie française autrefois et aujourd'hui
51. Paris
52. Maroc
53. Exposition Coloniale Internationale, Paris, 1931

* Prepared by the writer for French classes in senior high school.

Motion Picture Films

The film comes in two widths, 35 mm. and 16 mm. The former may be shown only in an enclosed fireproof booth and by a licensed operator. The 16 mm. may be shown in any classroom.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art has a dozen films:

A Visit to the Armor Galleries (2 reels). These pictures give in historical sequence authoritative and vivid knowledge not easily obtained in any other way. Knights in authentic armor perform many feats on foot and horseback. Furthermore, the great beauty of design of armor and the armorer's skill in modeling in steel are clearly brought to the attention of the spectator.

The Hidden Talisman (1 reel). Here one sees the ghost of a 15th century French lady searching for a talisman.

Chronicles of America Photoplays. The films of interest to students of French are: Jamestown; The Pilgrims; The Puritans; The Gateway of the West; Wolfe and Montcalm; Declaration of Independence; Yorktown; Eve of the Revolution; Frontier Woman. These are all of three reels each.

The American Museum of Natural History has the following in the 35 mm. width:

Across the St. Gothard Alps (2 reels)
Basques, The French Pyrenees (1 reel)
Berber Tribes of North America (3 reels)
France, Ports of (1 reel)
Lace Makers of Central France (2 reels)
Land of Evangeline (1 reel)
Landmarks of Early Explorations and Settlement of North America (2 reels)
Magic Minas (Basin, Canada) (1 reel)
Normandy and Brittany (2 reels)
Oil Lands of Europe and Africa (Germany, France, Spain, Algeria, Morocco) (2 reels)
Paris (4 reels)
Perfume and Wine Industries in France (1 reel)
Wolfe and Montcalm (Chronicles of America) (3 reels)
Silk, from Cocoon to Spool (1 reel)
Syria (1 reel)
Yorktown (Chronicles of America) (1 reel)

The following films are in 16 mm. width:

Wanderers of the Arabian Desert (1 reel)
Cod Fisherie (½ reel)
Normandy and Brittany (2 reels)
Land of Evangeline (1 reel)
Versailles (1 reel)
Children of Africa (1 reel)
Forest People of Central Africa (1 reel)
Bedouins of the Sahara (1 reel)
Silk, from Cocoon to Spool (1 reel)
Wolfe and Montcalm (3 reels)
Yorktown, (1 reel)

The Office Français du Tourisme has thirty-seven films, 35 mm. only, all of one reel, except Normandy-Brittany, which is two reels:

1. Le Havre
2. The Valley of the Seine, near Paris
3. The Valley of the Seine from Rouen to the Sea
5. A Stroll Through the Lower Alps
7. In the "Cognac" Country
8. Devastated France, Reims
9. Devastated France, Arras
10. Reconstruction Immobilière dans les Régions Dévastées
11. In the Resin Country
12. Cauterets, Pyrenees
13. In the Basque Country
15. Chantilly
16. Tunisia
17. Strassbourg
18. Notre Dame de Paris
19. La Route des Alpes
20. Vichy, The Thermal Establishment
21. Normandy, Brittany (2 reels)

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22. Le Beau Pays de France, Le Midi
23. The Ascent of the Mer de Glace, Mont Blanc
24. Paris, Walks Along the Banks of the Seine
26. Maroc, Formation des Cadres Indigènes
25. Maroc, Ecoles et Travaux Manuels
27. Maroc, Marrakech la Rouge
30. French Pottery Making
31. Champaigne Wine Preparation
32. The (French) Perfume Industry
33. The Manufacture of Gobelins Tapestry
34. Manufacture of Porcelain at the Sevres National Factory
36. Un Marriage Breton
37. Exposition Coloniale Internationale, Paris, 1931

The French Line, Publicity Department, offers one film 35 mm. in width, in three reels, "The Longest Gangplank in the World."

Lectures by Staff Members

A group of instructors at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, listed on the special leaflet concerning guidance, give special lectures in the lecture halls and gallery talk, many of which concern collections of objects originating in France. At the American Museum of Natural History this special guidance service is also offered. Besides this, there is a semi-weekly afternoon series of illustrated lectures (including talking motion pictures) in the great auditoriums. Among these lectures are:

Our Friends Across the Sea. (Making the acquaintance of Europeans by means of the motion picture camera.)

Normandy and Brittany. (The quaint costumes and customs of the Normandy and Brittany fisherfolk, illustrated by material obtained in France. Talk is given in Brittany dress.)

Wolfe and Montcalm. (This film depicts in detail the statesmanship of Pitt, the strategy of General Wolfe, the obstacles faced by the gallant Frenchman, Montcalm, through the jealousy of Vaudreuil, Governor General, and the spectacular battle waged on the Plains of Abraham, Quebec.

Special Guide Service, School Service and Opportunity

At both museums, classroom and lantern (including motion picture machine) operators are offered free to teachers of the public schools of the City of New York, upon application to the museum. In addition, the American Museum of Natural History has a "School Service Building" which is used for carrying on the Museum's varied activities with the schools. The second floor is given over to classrooms where special instruction is given by museum staff members. Here is also a duplex assembly hall where special lectures and showing of motion pictures may be arranged upon request. Lockers are provided in the basement where classes may hang their wraps when remaining for several hours. On the third floor, in the Lantern Slide

division, is a Teachers' Consultation room provided with illuminated tables to aid in the examination and arrangement of slides for special talks. In the projection room teachers may try out the lantern slides on the screen and review motion pictures.

The Compagnie Générale Transatlantique offers to give performances of the "Guignol" attached to the "Ile de France" wherever that ship is in the harbor. "Guignol" has a répertoire sufficiently varied to suit French students of all grades.

Paule C. Lambert.
George Washington High School.

THE TENDER TEARES OF THE CROCODILE

There are few teachers who can afford to take themselves and their work so seriously as to ignore the possibilities of an intriguing or humorous quotation in lightening the day's work. What bold spirit among us would have the temerity to deny that a hearty laugh is a most effective lubricant for the machinery of the classroom? After all:

> A little nonsense now and then
> Is relished by the best of men!

In fairness to the reader, however, it must be confessed that the somewhat rambling anthology which follows was selected for a more edifying purpose than that of lessening "the dreary round of teaching." It most effectively illustrates the point that science has made vast inroads upon our traditional lore; that many a high school student of today has more knowledge at his fingertips than renowned sages of a bygone day.

To return to less serious matters: In this sophisticated age we usually apply the term "crocodile tears" to the lachrymal outpourings of insincere individuals. In the past, however, this phrase was exclusively applied to the copious tears of the crocodile. Now what possible occasion, short of unrequited love, could so provoke these unhappy saurians? To find the answer, we must resort to the pages of Spencer's "Faerie Queene." There, couched in beguiling rhymes, we learn:

> As when a wearie traveller, that strayes
> By muddy shore of broad seven-mouthed Nile,
> Unweeting of the perilous wandering wayes,
> Doth meet a cruell craftie crocodile,
> Which, in false griefe hyding his harmfull guile,
> Doth weep full sore, and sheddeth tender teares;
> The foolish man, that pities all this while
> His mournfull plight, is swallowed up unawares.

In our mental peregrinations, some of us may have wondered how the salmon succeeds in vaulting over high waterfalls in his laborious pilgrimage from the sea. M. Drayton, a writer of the eighteenth century, offers an ingenious, albeit an imaginative account. Says he:

> When the salmon seeks a fresher stream to find,
> Which from the sea comes yearly with his kind,
> Here when the labouring fish doth at the foot arrive,
> And finds that by his strength but vainly he doth strive,

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His tail takes in his mouth and bending
like a bow,
That's to the compass drawn, aloft him-
self doth throw.
Polyolbion; Song iii.

Those of us who read Longfellow's "Hiawatha"—and who among us has not?—will not soon forget the obliging hedgehog who:

Shot his shining quills like arrows,
Saying, with a drowsy murmur,
Through the tangle of his whiskers,
Take my quills, O Hiawatha!

But a truly miraculous porcupine described by the French writer, Guillaume du Bartas, more than matches the above feat:

But O! what monster this that bids me
Battell,
On whose rough back a host of pikes doth
rattle,
Who stringless shoots so many arrows out,
Whose thorny sides are hedged round
about
With stiff steel-pointed quills, and all his
parts
Bristle with bodkins, arm'd with auls and
darts,
Which, by fierce darting, seem still fresh
to spring,
And to his aid still new supplies to bring.
O fortunate shaft-never-wanting bow-man!
Who, as thou fleest, canst hit thy follow-
ing foe-man,
And never missest, or but very narrow,
Th' intended mark of thy selfs-kindred
arrow.
Divine Weekes and Works, Fol. 1633.

And now, even worse: The sins of the house fly, arch enemy of every board of health, dread adversary of Howard, are condoned, nay, forgiven by Shakespeare who writes:

Titus—What dost thou strike at Marcus,
with thy knife?
Marcus—At that which I have killed, my
lord,—a fly.
Titus—Out on thee, murderer; thou killest
mine heart;
Mine eyes are cloy'd with view of
tyranny.
A deed of death done on the inno-
cent,
Becomes not Titus' brother. Get
thee gone;
I see thou art not for my company.
Marcus—Alas, my lord, I have but kill'd
a fly.
Titus—But how if that fly had a father
and a mother, . . .
Poor harmless fly.
Titus Andronicus, Act II, Scene 2.

It must be admitted that the great Elizabethan was somewhat off the mark in locating the fangs of the snake, choosing the forked tongue as the poisonous weapon:

And when thee from thy bosom pluck a
flower,
Guard it, I pray thee, with a lurking
adder
Whose double tongue may with a mortal
touch
Throw death upon thy sovereign's enemies.
Richard II, Act III, Scene 1.

Webster, his fellow dramatist and contemporary, prefers to locate the fangs in the tail of the adder:

Repentance then will follow like the sting
Placed in the adder's tail.
Victoria Corombona, Act II.

Ben Jonson subscribes to the superstition that young snakes are protected from danger by being swallowed by their mothers. It is scarcely necessary to point out that this belief still secures wide currency. Says Jonson:

Or, till we speak, must all run in, to our
Like the young adders to the old one's
tongue.
The Devil Is an Ass, Prologue.

In connection with the subject of insect metamorphosis, Francis Bacon's ideas were somewhat vague, if not actually erroneous. Ignoring the pupa stage which all good caterpillars must undergo, he writes:

The caterpillar, towards the
end of summer, waxeth vola-
and turneth into a butterfly
perhaps some other fly.

Leigh, an eighteenth century writer, pours contumely upon the young

the ichneumon fly, accusing them of unfilial affection in devouring their maternal parent. However, whatever sins the young flies may possess, this one should be wiped off their 'scutcheon in the interests of truth and justice. He writes:

The caterpillar deposits her eggs in the clefts of trees which are enliven'd by the influence of the sun at a proper season of the year. I do not think that she is devoured by her young ones which creep within her to suck, for I have sometimes found them creeping on cabbages with twenty young ones within them, and sometimes dead with these within their bodies.

What poet of the eighteenth century could possibly forego an opportunity to point an edifying moral? The poem which follows gives all the harrowing details of a poor worm's mortification. Needless to say, virtue triumphs in the end.

As an ant of his talents superiously vain,
Was trotting with consequence over the
plain,
A worm in his progress remarkably slow,
Cry'd—"Bless our worship, wherever you
may go.
I hope our great mightiness won't take
it ill,
I pay my respects with a hearty good will."
With a look of contempt and impertinent
pride,
"Begone, you vile reptile," his antship re-
ply'd;
"Go, go, and lament your contemptible
state,
But first, look at me, see my limbs how
complete!
I guide all my motions with freedom and
ease,
Run backward and forward and turn
when I please.
Of nature (grown weary) you shocking
assay!
I spurn you thus from me, crawl out of
my way."
The reptile insulted, and vex'd to his soul,
Crept onwards, and hid himself in his hole;
But nature, determin'd to end his distress,
Soon sent him abroad in a butterfly's dress.
Ere long the proud ant, as repassing the
road,
(Fatigu'd from the harvest and tugging his
load)
The beau on a violet bank he beheld,
Whose vesture in glory, a monarch's ex-
cell'd;
Whose plumage expanded—'twas rare to
behold,
So lovely a mixture of purple and gold.
The ant, quite amaz'd at a figure so gay,
Bow'd low with respect, and was trudging
away.
"Stop friend," said the butterfly, "don't
be surprised;
I once was the reptile you spurn'd and
despised;
But now I can mount; in the sunbeams I
play;
While you must forever drudge on in
your way.

Moral

A wretch, tho' today he's o'erloaded with
sorrow,
May soar above those that oppress him
tomorrow.

Anonymous.

Ireland is indeed a nation among nations, its climate being such that all kinds of venomous creatures soon languish and die within its borders. As the "Venerable Bede" wrote in 620:

No reptile is found there; no serpent can live there; for often carried thither out of Britain, as soon as the ship draws near the land, and the scent from off shore reaches them, they die.

Works, Book I.

Geraldus Cambrensis, in the twelfth century, also subscribes to this belief. Flying in the fact of all tradition, he holds that the absence of noxious reptiles is due, not to the kindly intervention of St. Patrick, but to "some natural deficiency of the island." In our own barbaric times, much may be learned concerning the settlement of territorial disputes by applying some

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simple test similar to one which Cambrensis describes. Referring to the great controversy between England and Ireland concerning the possession of the Isle of Man, which is situated in the Irish Sea midway between the two nations, he states:

> Which country it rightly belonged to was a matter of great doubt among the ancients; but the controversy was settled in this wise: since the island allowed venomous reptiles brought over for the sake of experiment to exist in it, it was agreed by common consent that it belonged to Britain.

If we are to take Ben Jonson's word for it, it would seem that an effective substitute for rat poison in Ireland would be the use of sonnets; the number of Hibernian rodents being in inverse ratio to the number of poets. Referring to unfavorable critics of his works, Jonson suggests that drastic means be used in their extermination:

> Rhime them to death, as they do Irish rats
> In drumming tunes.
>
> *The Poetaster*, Apologue.

It cannot be said that Shakespeare was ignorant of the finer sensibilities of these rodents; for he has Rosalind coyly remark, à propos of the numerous sonnets penned by her admirer Oliver:

> I was never so berhymed, since Pythagoras' time,
> That I was an Irish rat. . . .
>
> *As You Like It*, Act III, Scene 2.

Nor is Ireland's near neighbor, Scotland, entirely devoid of unique creatures. The barnacle or Brent goose of Scotland is born upon a tree, and undergoes a "strange sea change" before attaining its pin feather. Butler, a contemporary of Shakespeare, comments upon its marvellous metamorphosis as follows:

> Whereas those scattered trees which natu-
> rally partake
> The fatness of the soil, send from the
> stocky bough
> A soft and sappy gum which from the
> fluxure moist
> Still great and greater thrive until you may
> well see
> Them turned into perfect fowles, when
> dropping from the tree
> Into the meery pond which under them
> do lie,
> Wax ripe and taking wing away in flocks
> do flye,
> Which well the ancients did among our
> wonder plaie.

Du Bartas enlarges upon this most curious phenomenon:

> Whose fruitful leaves falling into the
> water,
> Are turned (they say) to living fowls
> soon after.
> So rotten sides of broken ships do change
> To barnacles; O! transformation strange!
> 'Twas first a green tree, then a gallant hull
> Lately a mushroom, now a flying gull.
>
> *Divine Weekes and Workes.*

Du Bartas neatly solves that perennial question: Where do little frogs come from? He says:

> . . . as in a summer ev'n
> After a sweltering day, some sultry show
> Doth in the marshes heaps of tadpals pour
> Which in the ditches (chapt with parch-
> ing weather)
> Lie crusht and croaking in the mud to-
> gether.
>
> *Divine Weekes and Workes.*

Jumping a century, we now open the august pages of the *Spectator*, the most enlightened journal of English life. There we find a most vigorous editorial by Steele in which he inveighs against quackery. In fact, with a few changes it might serve as an editorial leader for the crusading *Journal of the American Medical Association.*

> It gives me much despair in the Design of reforming the world by my Speculations, when I find that there always arises, from one generation to another, successful Cheats and Bubbles, as naturally as Birds of Prey and those which are to be their food. There is hardly a Man in the World

> one would think, as not to know that the ordinary quack Doctors who publish their great abilities in little brown Billets, are to a man Imposters and Murderers; yet such is the Credulity of the Vulgar, and the Impudence of these Professors, that the affair still goes on, and new promises of what was never done before are made every day.

Nevertheless, advertising being then the rich source of revenue that it is today, and such being the frailty of our poor human nature, the following advertisement appeared within a few weeks:

> R. Stoughton, Apothecary in Southwark, having some time since, by order of a Merchant, sent 50 dozen of his Cordial Elixir to Sweden, has lately receiv'd Advice that great numbers of people finding it to be a great preserver of Health, drink it every morning. And further to assure it is so, hath a certificate from thence. He hath also a certificate from on board a ship to Jamaica, that after 6 or 7 of the men died in 24 hours of a malignant distemper, the Captain himself (fearing he should lose all his men) gave the rest, who were seiz'd, plentifully of this Elixir (which for many years he took with him) and by God's Blessing on it, saved every man after. He is not only willing but desirous that this be published for the good of others. The certificates themselves any gentlemen may see if they please.

Nor is the nineteenth century entirely without blemish with regard to the besetting sin of quackery. Did not the distinguished Edinburgh surgeon, Dr. John S. Smith, refer to it as a "thing that's not so bad?" It is to be hoped that his tongue was in his cheek when he wrote the following verse:

> This song refers to Quackery: a thing
> that's not so bad,
> Since nowhere else so many perfect cures
> are to be had:
> Each one from every malady will make
> you quite secure,
> And should it fail, another's quite prepared to work the cure.
> For nervousness, or listlessness, or bloodlessness combined
> With any other somethingness, a remedy
> you'll find.
> Which cures your gout, removes your
> corns, your whiskers helps to grow,
> Sets up your liver, oils your joints, and
> makes your juices flow.
> Quack! Quack! Keep it up, there's no
> disease so bad,
> But fifty perfect cures for it can any day
> be had.

And we, too, of the twentieth century must hide our heads in shame. Did not our own Sir William Osler have the hardihood to write the following verse in an effort to bring the gospel of fun to a very young patient?

> I will to you speed
> If you truly me need
> But meanwhile apply
> Three or four crumbs of bread
> To the edge of your head.
> If relief does not come
> While you spell the word thumb
> Take a hair of your mother
> Or sister or brother
> Cut it up very fine
> And take it in wine.
> No head can withstand
> A medicine so bland
> The ache will just fly
> Like the glance of an eye.
> For advice thus by post
> My charges at most
> Are a dollar a word.
>
> *The Great Physician,*
> *Sir William Osler.*
> E. G. Reid, Oxford University Press, 191, p. 103-4.

LEON NORDAU DIAMOND.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

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POETRY IN STUYVESANT HIGH SCHOOL

EVEN in these days of depression there is no end to the number of books being turned out by the printing presses of the country. Their authors touch upon a variety of subjects ranging all the way from the sublime to the ridiculous. This feverish industry in the literary field exists because, thanks to the schools, most people know how to read and write and like to indulge in both these pastimes. Thus an extensive market is created and writing becomes profitable. Instead of pondering their thoughts until they are mellow, people allow them full play immediately, and the worship of novelty insures their efforts public consumption. If the uninitiated need additional stimulus, they can find it at reasonable rates in the various university and home-study courses offered by well advertised minor writers. The majors in literature are affluent enough not to give such courses.

It is difficult to say whether the scholastic literary renaissance of recent years is a cause or result of these conditions. Personally, I like to think of it as being both result and cause; for the schools are as much influenced by as they influence society. The fact remains that the high schools have developed elaborate literary machinery. Every form of literature has its special coterie. The faculty advisers in charge encourage students to write essays, stories, editorials, and poems because they are able to offer a coveted prize —publication in the school newspaper, magazine or semi-annual. This tickles the ego of every adolescent as it does that of every adult. It gives both a sense of power and prestige not easily obtained otherwise.

Thus every literary enterprise in the world at large is paralleled in the schools with one important difference. Whereas those who pass judgment on the labor of adults realize that creative genius is rare and hesitate to use the label "creative" except in extraordinary instances, the pedagogue critics of student literary efforts allow their enthusiasm so much headway that they slap this adjective on anything which shows a fair degree of promise. This in an effort probably to encourage by praise.

As a result a "creative" epidemic is in full blast. Most of the poems, essays, and stories written by clever high school students are "creative"; their art work is "creative"; their reading is "creative"; their learning is "creative." In fact youth in general is "creative" in every way.

That is the question I propose to examine. Is youth creative? If it is then why are not adults as creative as youth is supposed to be? What happens to the creative spirit as we grow older? Who kills it and how? On the other hand, is it not possible that we as teachers have become intoxicated with the fine results we have obtained in making youth articulate that we have ceased to be realists in this matter? The answer must be —and I want to state it emphatically —that young people are not even as creative as their elders. Creation like reflection is not an instinct but a habit, and it takes time to develop. In fact, the vast majority of all people, regardless of their ages, are happier on the beaten path than on the untried byways. Only the exceptional venture forth alone to seek the new. Any other view, I think, would tear to shreds the behavior patterns so painstakingly mapped out by psychologists and sociologists.

Youth is experimental. It must be, for it has no fixed rules to use as guides. In its fumbling and stumbling, in its attempts to learn by trial and error, youth can see only one fixed star in a whirling nightmare of change the world adults have made. This star the young and inexperienced alternately accept and repudiate as optimism or pessimism grips their unstable emotions and intellect. This is as it should be because experimentation is always born of uncertainty and prepares for the creative act. Of course, creative is here used in the more or less literal sense to signify that which has been fashioned from pre-existing material into a new pattern. An act of creation can occur in a flash; but the ground must be carefully fertilized. It can be done only by fully mature men and women who have abundant tools with which to reshape this material according to a crystallized purpose and vision, usually known as talent or genius. Such people as these never represent more than a tiny fraction of the population. Given time and opportunity, a similar fraction of our clever youngsters may find themselves within the ranks of these chosen few—this aristocracy of pioneers. The most that can be said for these youngsters is that they are on their way.

We may, therefore, expect the literary output of our high school boys and girls to be imitative, emulative, derivative, critical, even cynical, but not creative. To prove my point I shall take the liberty to quote from the prose and poetry written under my direction during the last three years by members of The Literary Society of Stuyvesant High School.

In December, 1932, Edward Ressler was studying Tennyson's "Idylls" in an English 6 class. His teacher, Mr. Astrachan, in charge of the school magazine, *The Caliper*, needed material and promised extra class credit and space in the periodical to the student who wrote the best "Thirteenth Idyll." To the tom-tom music of an Eberhard lead-pencil Ressler beat out his poem and won all the honors, including a gold medal.

Gutham, "a king of former years," came to Arthur's court and told his tale of woe:

"To North and far,
Two hundred leagues and more, my people live;
A happy people once, but now o'erset
With deepest grief and anguish all untold.
'Tis why I have grown old in early life.

" 'Tis naught but work of one, a stark crazed fiend,
Malin he calls himself, and prideful, too;

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He terrifies us with his men—more beasts
Indeed than men; of monstrous strength
are they
And taller yet and stronger still by far
Than any man or beast upon this earth.
In truth, another stratum lower yet
Than man, these heartless giants do repre-
sent.

"Their eyes but hollow bulging
orbits on
A face of smoothness truly uncompared;
Their hair, full five feet long and black
as night,
Disheveled and unkempt, hangs to their
arms;
Their faces,—empty,—void of interest all,
Of smile, of frown, of laugh or cry, of all
Save that of change from sleep to wake-
fulness.

"All men who would have con-
quered them have naught
But death's reward and, aye, yet worse
than that.
They know no peace; sweet sleep is them
denied,
For yet though dead they serve the Giants'
will.
At each new moon we see them from afar
By its youthful glow; each holds a spear
And marches round a tower thrice, while
light
In chaos plays about the thunderous heav-
ens.
And when they are no longer to be seen
Each of us, weeping, fills their pit with
plenty.
Deep and wide it is with sloping sides
On which, pace after pace, are many
stakes
Inset—a score of cursed stakes in all.
Oh cunning monster, they! For ere the
night
Fades into the dawn, the hole to full
Has to be filled, or Death, untimely Death,
Fells us with its cold and tranquil breath;
Ten men for every stake that eye can see.

"But now, oh King! The hole is
deeper dug:
Naught but its full wish they in human
tolls.
Impatient beasts! The pit has overflowed.
Two months have passed since then and
many a score
Have I,—oh coward—led away, all tied,
In fear that all my men might else be slain
With one great blow. A foolish thought!
If not
The beasts, then surely time would finish
all.

For all are doomed in that unholy town.
Those that these evil giants do not kill
At once will waste to death, waiting to die.
By purest chance have I escaped their
watch."

So saying Gutham kneeled and
bowed his head. According to the
well known formula, a brave knight,
Charlott by name, begs King Arthur
for permission to deal with this Malin
and his men. The King grants him
his wish and away he rides with
Gutham to beard the lion in his den.
Gutham doubts whether a single man,
no matter how brave and skillful, can
manage this business, but leads the
way and holds his tongue. After an
arduous journey they reach the mon-
ster's home, "a castle deathly black."
This castle is pictured in all its gar-
gantuan awfulness.

And as they nearer rode they came
upon
A tree. And from a limb there hung a
sign—
A dreadful sign—its message made in
blood.
"He that this horn in foolishness doth
blow,
Another foolish act he will not know."
So read the sign. And from the strongest
branch
There hung a horn; enormous was its size.
And skulls and bones were painted all
around.
Some yards away there was a pit. And
from
The pit stood men, their hands upraised,
their lips
Apart. Though dead and mute, they
lived and spoke.
Away spoke lips, away flashed eyes, away
Each hand did point, and all away, away

Charlott does not heed this warning.
He seizes the horn and blows "a long
shrill blast." Amid the flashing of
lightning and the crashing of thunder
the drawbridge is lowered by invisible
hands. Gutham, overcome by fear,
begs Sir Charlott to fly before it is

too late. But NO! Charlott spurs
his horse, reaches the bridge, raises
high his mighty sword and swings a
"mighty blow" at Malin's men.

A contact! Crash!
A roar! And then——

Lo and behold! It all
Had changed. Of monsters six naught
could be seen.
The thunder stopped; the lightning ceased;
the wind
No longer blew; and dark black night gave
sway
To faint sweet blushes from the distant
east,
The tranquil herald of a lovely dawn.
The castle door had opened to its full
And from there came a people all ajoy;
And when the last came from the castle
grim,
A sound that caused each heart and every
breath
And every limb to stop be-rent the air,
As if a sword had reached a monster's
heart,
And it, afraid to die, in frenzy clung
To its departing strength. But all in vain!
And when that thinnest shred which held
life snapped,
It spurted out its life in that last gasp.
The pit closed up, and where the castle
stood,
A blooming meadow came to grace the eye
And draw contentment's soft sweet sigh
from all.
And all fell down and kissed Sir Charlott's
feet
In blessings great; and then, with heads
all bowed,
They clasped their hands and thanked
Almighty God.

These eighty-five lines give the full flavor of this 160-line narrative poem. It is what it was intended to be—a conscious and premeditated imitation of Tennyson's "Gareth and Lynette." The characters, like Tennyson's, are inconsequential shadows. The plot creaks just as much under its load of romantic machinery. The blank verse echoes the poet's haunting melody. The macabre details are probably de-rived from Poe whose stories and poems are read in the same term of English.

Again as in Tennyson, the optimistic criticism of contemporary affairs woven into the allegory is the thing which transcends all else in importance. Sir Charlott breaks down an almost insurmountable obstacle easily because he has the courage of his convictions—a trait we sadly lack today. What he finally liberates is not a fair lady but a group of people glad to be free again. Who this Malin is who had them in his dark grasp before, it is hard to say; but even at the risk of being accused of straining a point, I shall suggest that this ogre is not despair, but depression. After all, when the depression is finally forced to give way to prosperity, it will then appear to have been so simple a task that we shall probably laugh at ourselves for having been such children to allow a figment of our imagination to scare us so long. If Malin is not depression, then he must be cancer.

Whether all this ran through Edward Ressler's head as he wrote his "Thirteenth Idyll" I do not know; for me it is enough that it runs through my head as I read the poem. This thought-provoking quality, plus its high seriousness and honesty, cloak this poem with sufficient merit even though I realize fully that it is imitative, derivative, and critical rather than strictly creative. To call it creative would merely befuddle our thinking and would add nothing to Ressler's achievement.

This seems to be the opportune moment to digress slightly and point

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out that as far as my acquaintance with young people goes, their humor is only potential. This explains why Ressler did not write a parody of Tennyson's "Gareth and Lynette," why none of my young friends ever wrote an amorous poem that was not mawkish, why I would never recognize the following as "A Satire" if it were not so labeled.

FOR NOMINATION (A SATIRE)

My friends from the rockbound coast of Maine
To the place of the running tide,
From the northern shore where folly ends
To the heart of the rim-round-eyed.

A man of noble strength and such
A sport he loves us all;
A man whom very few can touch—
Oh! Hear your country's call.

Vote for him on election day.
He'll clean the country, raise your pay.
A foe of want, a friend of gain . . .
He'll bind again the union chain.
And so I place before you
Sir Lucifer D. Gust
Our slogan for the country?
"Vote for Gust or Bust!"

—*Harold Meyers.*

These verses appeared in the January, 1933 issue of *The Indicator,* Stuyvesant's semi-annual, in charge of Mr. Mostow. They no doubt emulate in a crude way the type of verse that appears in the dailies, especially at election time. Harold Meyers could not have written a poem such as this in January, 1931, when I first met him because at that time he had not yet had the experience of being a candidate for or an officer of the G. O. or a campaign speaker for any other candidates of his party. In fact, I doubt whether he had a party then. But to me his poem is important because of the expressed criticism of present-day conditions and the implied criticism of human nature contained therein. This criticism, however, is far from cynical.

For youth, as a rule, is idealistic. Of course, there are exceptions to this as to all other rules. Of the hundred or so boys I knew intimately in the past three years, only three were in any degree cynical. It happens that these three are all disciples of Louis Zukofsky and his school of "Objectivists." This may be a mere coincidence or not. I do know that none of us are immune to this quality and that sometimes, like Shelley's west wind, it purifies. My theory is that my three pessimistic young friends were so, precisely because they were the most mature and the least sheltered of all. Incidentally they were the only boys I knew who loved words for their own sake, who could combine words in striking patterns, and who felt that words had a reality and an existence all their own. This power in their case sometimes led them to pull words out of a hat as a magician pulls rabbits. In their poetry there are echoes not only of Louis Zukofsky, but also of Ezra Pound and T. S. Eliot. Finally, I shall pay them the greatest of all compliments—publication meant practically nothing to them.

GOOD SNOW

Good snow, Sunned ocean whitecaps
breaking beneath my feet.
My light myth carpets, where do we go
this morning?
Inside me, outside me, the air, flurrying
snow and wind.
Into a thoroughfare of fishmongers, into
The mob of bargaining red-handed women.
Smelling reminiscently; from cart-cries and
crowd I walk
Long-strided into a park.

Sleighing children down the white hill,
Shouting, belly-whopping,
Laughing past the thin trees with (whizz)
Red mufflers flying.
I, spying the pond, slide on wet leather.
On the boulevard, laughing.

—*Jerry Reisman.*

A POEM

Green light means go,
Grit teeth, catch clutch.
Having walked in the park,
Heard litany in the tree arbor,
Felt the voices rushing in a breath of air,—
"Come all ye unto me—"
Seen, coral shades of leaves
Fall in the rain.
We rode in the omnibus of blank
Silent faces,
The deep grooved paint of yesterday,
And spoke the incomprehensible
In the silence of our brain.
Let fall
All believable and practical
Into the pool of duck-laughter,
The full half-laugh,
Of the simple tickle of the vertebrae.
We pulled
Our wet selves out of the rain, the
Steaming smoke of a deserted street.
And paused one moment under the lamp,
A vivid eye of the tree.

—*Harry Ladizinsky.*

Instead of quoting a poem by the third member of this trio, I shall quote an essay in which he explains the philosophy of art and life which he and his friends derived in emulation of the "Objectivists" and perhaps Shelley.

DEFINITIONS

It is impossible to conceive an absolute critical hierarchy. Creative work is necessarily tempered by the actuality of time and of place, and any criticism of present or past work can only be arrived at by a conception that is actual in the sense of time and of place. To criticize we work upon the premise that the poet is not introspective. If we are to speak of the external differences of a horse, an apple-tree and a tiger, we are confronted by no difficulties because these things are actual. But if we speak of their souls, we can only do so by using the arbitrary God or Lucifer—this is not actual to the horse, the apple-tree, the tiger or to ourselves. Thus in speaking of a poem we can conceive only styles; the thought is arbitrary, conversation is non-existent.

Thus style is creation.

To create is to destroy.

If in reading a poem one's whole pre-conceived idea of what poetry should be is destroyed, if he senses a crack in the pottery, a fruit unrelated to the tree, then he has read a poem.

In writing a poem the word predominates over the thought. We should attain the vision of Judgment Day. We should see each word in its relative position separated from thought. The word then has a certain acid quality. Connectives have disappeared.

A poem!

—*John Dwyer.*

If it be remarked that here at last we have creative work, I shall object as strenuously as before. True, a crystallized point of view is present here to some extent; but it is still groping for the full light of day, and even if it were not, it must not be forgotten even for one moment that it is a point of view original not with the students here represented, but with individuals exterior to themselves.

I can enjoy their work for what it is worth without mixing my terms or

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my ideas. Some day these boys, when they are no longer young, may look back upon this work of theirs as Edgar Lee Masters looks upon his "Doomsday Book."

Now for a second digression in which to relax and enjoy the most successful humorous poem I came across in my three year experiment. The poem is sheer nonsense, interesting only because it is brilliant and reminiscent of *The New Yorker*.

PARADOX

If ears could tell
the tales they hear . . . oh dear . . .
what things they yet might spell.
(Poor mute conchoidal shell.)
If lips could hear
they'd loathe to mouth
the awful tales THEY tell.
These portals would not be
such hell
—were eyes to see—
nor would they knell
like tolling bell;
our empty minds
could not with admiration swell.
(They turn our lines pell mell.)
O well,
our senses can't excell
dissolve
nor jell . . .
So what?

—*Arthur Stern.*

I come now to a group of poems by Alexander Epting, a boy who has, according to John Ruskin, the greatest of all gifts, eyes that can *see* and a tongue that can tell these observations. He also has a heart that can feel the spell of nature in her more colorful moments. Nor is he guilty of the pathetic fallacy; probably because he has come in contact with nature herself instead of with poetic accounts of her. Creative poetry it is not; for William Wordsworth lived and wrote before Alexander Epting.

VALLEYWARD

Down from the mountain pasture to the valley,
Down from the wild grass to the quiet fold,
The young calves journey, through a scarlet alley
Of sumac, leaving the briers and the gold
Caverns of beech-woods. Slowly bawling and crying,
Their soft hoofs thudding on the tangled ground,
The young calves journey down at autumn's dying,
Drunk with the first sweet summer they have found.

SPRING RAIN

The rain is coming down
In gleaming, shining streams,
And through the crystal drops
The sun still shyly beams.
Here in the meadow
I have forgotten care and pain.
I have forgotten everything;
I am running in the rain.

NOT THAT IT MATTERS

I like turtles on a log
And flagpoles slim and tall,
Beachwoods gray in twilight fog
And crickets' poignant call.
I like spider-webs in dew
And tinkling strings of bells;
Slender moons, alert and new,
And tales a robin tells.
All these things will go right on
Without regarding me . . .
Clouds will flush at coming dawn
And tides still sway the sea.

Alexander Epting's next poem, "The Ruthless," introduces us to a group of five poems which defy classification; therefore we shall classify them as miscellaneous. Nietzsche would have applauded the message recorded here.

It is not the strong
I fear,
But the weak.
Their clinging fingers
Are like water creeping
To undermine
The stout foundation,
And like water
They turn suddenly
To seek a new course.
In the end
It is the weak
Who are ruthless.
Protect me
From the ruthlessness
Of the weak!

In the next a childish prank is given memorable expression.

THE SEXTON

The sexton, going his rounds,
Hears the choir at hymnody;
I go up to greet the hills,
Green hills roll down to me.
Not for me will vesper ring,
Sprinting down the crooked lane;
Nor for the whitecaps on the sudden sea,
Nor for lightning in the rain.
While he is tending candle-wick,
I may be baiting hooks with flies,
Or racing wild and quick
Past the church where his life lies.

—*Edmond Arbib.*

The writer of the following shows that he once read Gray's "Elegy."

ELEGY

I own an easel in a far-off land
That none may see,
And there a piece of canvas still unstained
Belongs to me.
And I could take the sunset in my brush
And lay it there;
But not without your crystal voice that's lost
In breathless air.
The sea was blue, the meadow grass was green,
Now all are gray;
Your voice that was the gentle whisper of the wind
Is gone away . . .
I own an easel in a far-off land
That none may see,
And its unblemished white may be touched by none,
Not even me.

—*F. A. Zambetti, Jr.*

The next poem has a strange history. It was written about a year before Edison's death. Afterwards its author dedicated it to him because of its fitness.

DEPARTED

Dedicated to Thomas A. Edison

Gone—
Like the last rays of the sun
Over the hill.
And like the sun at noon
His life was beautiful,
Shedding light.
And we,
Bewildered children that we were,
Stood and watched
In wonder.

—*Harold Meyers.*

The next is last because it explains in four lines the struggle that goes on in every adolescent's breast as he seeks to become articulate.

GIFT OF SONG

The man whom I call poet
Is the mute who labors long
To tell the world the thoughts of his soul
Though he's given no gift of song.

—*Harold Meyers.*

CHARLES AUSLANDER.

Stuyvesant High School.

THE DEAN AND DISCIPLINE AT GROVER CLEVELAND HIGH SCHOOL

Notes For A Study of Character Training

WHEN the dean assumed office last September it was clear to him that attitudes of both teacher and pupil needed remaking. The dean's office was not to be considered the whipping post of the school, nor should the dean be a mere character accountant for the school, recording the pettiest offenses and loading the card files. Rather should the office be a place of adjustment where school is made to adjust itself to the child

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and child to school—where the individual pattern and the society pattern are harmonized. Rather should the dean busy himself with the task of inculcating the notion that discipline is character formation, constructive as well as corrective in its aim, and as such a function of the classroom teacher rather than that of any appointed officer of the school.

I

His task defined, the dean marshalled the forces of the school to aid him. As chief aid he had the most rigid, prompt, and efficacious coöperation of the principal who, realizing the importance of the task, devoted the conferences of the term to different phases of discipline. The dean addressed the first conference, at which he said in part:

"Constructive discipline means that method of procedure which will result in getting students to make the most of their opportunities and not the least; and which from our point of view, means making the most of these opportunities with the least infringement on the rights of the rest of the children of the school. We can readily see that a child interested in art and not in accounting may be found drawing pictures during his accounting period. If we were to permit this, we should be advancing the individual wishes of one student and lowering the total efficiency of the accounting period. A student interested in health education might cut a period for the purpose of taking a walk or a run outdoors, therefore lowering his usefulness in an English class, or any other. To attain our end, then, it is necessary to build programs allowing the greatest possible scope for individual development, maintaining at the same time a general program which will work for the best advantage of the student body as a whole." . . .

"A child becomes a discipline case when he wishes to follow a pattern of his own in conflict with the one laid down for him by the school. Our problem consists in bringing him back to the school pattern or the class pattern or the group pattern. Now comes the method whereby this change in conduct is to be effected. Heretofore, it has been the duty of the dean, through punishment, to make life so unpleasant for the offender that the school pattern becomes less obnoxious than his own plus the punishment involved. It is our purpose to study reasons for departure from the school pattern and methods for return that will be constructive rather than punitive. We shall find that we teachers are very often contributory agents to the dereliction."

Three other conferences were held during the term, each studying the problem from a different angle.

II

In addition, the dean prepared the following short discussion of the problem for teachers' guidance:

About Discipline

The problem of discipline divides itself, for purposes of administration, into two definite classes:

1. Discipline within the classroom.
2. All other discipline.

It is with the first class that this paper will largely deal, for it is here that the greatest change must be made.

This change must come about through a realization (on the teacher's part) of responsibilities, and a study of all the factors that go to make up the well-ordered class.

The teacher must know at the outset that he, and he only, is the man responsible for proper conduct of pupils within his room and under his guidance. He must know that an appeal to outside power, unless imperative, is an immediate admission of his own inability to cope with a situation or a pupil. A discipline case is something that concerns the teacher, *and must be solved by him* or he is unworthy of the name. If the case is beyond him, his first appeal is to his chairman, and if a solution cannot be found by either teacher or chairman, or by both of them, and home contacts are desired, and law is invoked, then the dean, administrative assistant and principal, in the order named, are called into the matter.

Problems arise through a variety of causes. A few of the chief ones are noted here:

1. Teachers themselves are not agreed as to what constitutes proper conduct. Teacher A requires students to proceed immediately to their seats on entering the room, whereas Teacher B considers the five-minute interim between lessons as a rest or recreation period and allows students to stand in groups and chat, look out the window, and so on. In the recitation itself, Chairman C calls children by row or by some definite system, while Chairman D wants his classes to be so violently excited by the lesson that the pupils spring from their seats unbidden. In other words, there are as many behavior patterns as there are teachers. And we expect children to go from teacher to teacher and conform to all these patterns, remaking themselves en route!
2. The lesson that abounds in interest is never disorderly. You will say that some children (those waiting for work papers, marking time until discharge, for example) interest themselves in nothing. Quite true. But this fact is equally true: These few will remain merely inert, quiescent, doing no work, *but never actively annoying*, if the vast majority of the class are keenly interested. These few malcontents will never oppose the *esprit de corps* of the class.
3. As a corollary of the above, the teacher must know enough not to provoke trouble by attempting the impossible. He must not force issues that will not be forced. He must not go to such pupils and demand work in equal measure and of equal standard to that presented by the rest of the class. Nagging

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and calling names get one nowhere and react unfavorably on the teacher.

Dr. O'Shea, in his recent report on Character Training, asserts that good character is the end of all education; and subject matter merely the vehicle through which that end is attained.

Procedure

In cases of classroom difficulty act as follows:

1. Study the case and make every effort to solve your problem. Keep a written record of your attempts. It will be asked for if the case comes to the office.

2. In the event of failure, consult your chairman.

3. If both efforts are still without success, report the case to the dean. The student is not to be excluded from the room except by order from the office.

If teachers understand that their own record is on trial fully as much as that of the student, they will be less eager to report trivialities such as at present appear as formal charges on pink cards now on file:

1. "He was eating peanuts in class."

2. "He answers me back."

This does not mean that the dean's office will have nothing to do. Cutting is a serious offense, and one which, while some reflection on the quality of the lesson skipped, is matter for the office. This, with truancy, disorder on stairs, in hall, or on school grounds gives the office more than a day's work.

If all classroom work, care of halls, lavatories, auditorium, and school grounds can be so efficiently managed by teachers and service squad that the office of dean can be abolished, no one will be better pleased than

LOUIS L. CARDOZO,
Dean of Boys.

III

The following cases gathered from the files, are interesting in showing the types brought to the dean's attention and the method of treatment.

Case One

This case was called to the attention of the dean the day before the final examinations. The chairman stated that the boy had failed to appear for his mid-term examination, giving as reason that he merely did not wish to take it. He refused to take a make-up examination at a later date.

The situation at this point became even more interesting when, in response to the teacher's comment the day before the examination, "Now, Angelo, we certainly expect to see you at the final," the boy's reply was, "I shall not be at the final examination either."

The case was referred to the chairman of the department and the boy persisted in his determination to absent himself the following day. He gave as his reason the fact that he was failing now; the fact that he was doing well in three other subjects and that he saw no use in wasting time in preparing for a hopeless cause or in attending an examination where he could have no hope of success. The chairman threatened, first, an appeal to the boy's home, and, second, parental pressure. All to no avail.

Both chairman and student were obdurate and the case was referred that afternoon to the dean's office.

The dean was here confronted with two problems.

1. The task of getting the boy to do what seemed to him to be an unreasonable thing, and

2. "Saving the face" of the chairman and teacher who actually were trying to force him to do an unreasonable thing.

When the boy appeared, the dean used a little scheme that he has employed very often to establish an *entente cordiale* with recalcitrant pupils. He noted the name and, without making any reference to the misdemeanor that brought the boy before him, he asked the boy if he knew what his name meant. The boy answered, "Yes, it had to do with an angel." The dean quietly remarked that he wondered whether his position with regard to his examination and his stubborn stand against his teacher were particularly angelic. The boy smiled and said, "Well, perhaps not."

The dean then asked about the boy's rating and progress and found him to be a very fair student in all subjects other than the one in question. He said to the boy, "That's excellent, because there is always hope when dealing with intelligence." This further broke barriers. He asked the boy whether or not he knew the purposes for which examinations are given, and the boy replied, "To see what I know about the subject."

He was further questioned as to the value of examinations to the teacher, and his reply was, "So that he may know what I know about the subject."

It was then pointed out to him that the examination is a measure of a teacher's success as well as that of the pupil's success. He was made to see that an examination furnishes a test of methods, that is, a teacher of five classes may want to know whether the class which had a maximum of laboratory work or text-book work or lecture work or note-book work or socialized recitation or project did appreciably better than the other. He was asked whether or not the examinations were of any special interest to the chairman, and he was more quickly brought to see that the chairman was interested in the examination as a measure of the value of methodology and in comparing and estimating the work of teachers. Then, when he was asked the value of examinations to the principal, he smiled brightly and said, "Now I see. The principal compares one department with another and that department in his school with a department in another school and his entire school with other schools in the city. I'll take the examination."

The dean in this instance was placed in a curious predicament because he was compelled to resort to specious argument in order to get the boy to conform with school rules, and, at the same time, support a teacher who had made a wrong decision and a chairman who had threatened home

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interference where home interference had no legitimate application. The boy's reasoning was sound, and his willingness to take a zero rather than waste time in order to attain little more than a zero, was commendable. However, school discipline was served —the boy was led to see his small portion in the social scheme of things; both chairman and teacher were seemingly upheld and the boy was present at his examination on the following day.

Case Two

The case of Amorino presents very much the same background as the preceding one. Amorino was present with a number of his companions at the school's business show one afternoon after three. The show was held in a gymnasium, crowded with students, teachers, and parents. Feeling the lack of very definite restraint, he engaged in friendly jostling with some of his fellows, and ended by hitting one of them a resounding whack on the back of the neck.

At this point, a teacher put his hand on his shoulder and drew him aside. "What do you mean by that?" said he. "Why, we weren't fighting; he's a friend of mine. We were only fooling," answered the boy. "But that is no way to conduct yourself," said the teacher. "Well, maybe it was wrong," said the boy, "but it was only a little thing." Then the teacher gave utterance to some words which the boy construed as a reflection on his family. The boy contends that the teacher's words were, "You must come from a very fine family, that teaches you conduct like that." The teacher states that he does not remember exactly what he said, but that he wished the boy to understand that somehow or other the family and the boy's conduct outside were bound together. The boy answered rather heatedly, "I think what I did was very little. If you want to scold me for that, all right, but please leave my family out of it." On the teacher's insistence with regard to family, the boy became somewhat belligerent and said, "All right, if you insist, I have four big brothers at home anyone of whom will be delighted to come up here and show you what my family can do." At this point the dean was called in.

Upon Amorino's appearance in the dean's office the next day, the attention of the dean was attracted to a name which has to do with love. This boy also was aware of the fact. The dean's opening words were, "I hear, at least, one thing about you that I'm glad to hear. I am glad to hear that there is such fine family unity at your home. Be proud of it, young man. Be proud of your parents and your fine brothers and sisters. There is no teacher in this building who would try to destroy the unity."

It is the wish of the dean, in each instance, to allow the time element to enter in order to have passions cooled and to establish somewhat of an amity between the culprit and himself, because antagonism has worked sufficient mischief. For this reason the case was not handled until the morning following the misdeed.

The boy was asked whether he went to church. His reply was that he did. He was then asked whether he went to Coney Island. He looked surprised, and answered wonderingly, "Yes," to that. He was then asked if he engaged in horseplay while at the Island and upon his answering in the affirmative, he was further asked if he ever indulged in that same spirit at church. Here he broke in, "I see what you mean. An action which, in itself, is harmless may be harmful if carried on in the wrong place." That settled the question as to whether or not the initial act was blameworthy.

Now came the question of his attitude toward the teacher. If the teacher had said what the boy alleged, the teacher himself was clearly culpable. It was the duty of the dean, therefore, to convince the boy that he had not heard clearly, or, if he had, the dean was sure that the teacher intended to convey this idea: "Any act of yours whether for good or evil, reflects either good or evil on your family." That is quite different from saying, "You must have a terrible family because they have brought you up in such and such fashion." The boy was made to see the truth by questions such as, "If you receive a high mark in school, is your family pleased? If you win a race and receive a medal, does that reflect credit on your family? Does this fine solid gathering at home rejoice or is it cast down if report comes that you have disgraced them by some unseemly act?"

This talk took not more than ten minutes and was ended by this remark on the part of the boy, "I get you. What I did was wrong in the first place. Now, if you are sure that Mr. ——— meant about my family what you say, I am deeply sorry I said anything as ugly as I did. May I go up to him now and tell him so?"

On the following morning, Mr. ——— came to the dean and said that a wonderful thing had happened. He said he was so convinced of the boy's sincerity in the rough apology that he was moved to offer his hand to the boy and say to him, "Do you know, my boy, now that I have reflected carefully, I really believe that I said the mean thing about your family that made you angry, and I apologize to you also."

These two cases resulted from the clash of personalities and called for adjustment between teacher and pupil.

The next two reveal the common case of an individual who, because he is in the fore-front of school consciousness, presumes to excuse himself from obeying necessary school regulations.

Case Three

Two members of one of the school teams were reported for cutting, being out of the school building and offering violence to service guards who opposed their leaving the building. Here the individual had not learned to subordinate self for the good of the group. Drastic action had to be taken Both boys were immediately suspended from their teams. It was the effort of the dean to have them realize that the

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aim of the school is the highest individual character development consonant with development as members of a social group.

Case Four

A boy was three times guilty of interference with service men. Not until it was found he was one of the trusted service men to the Health Education department could we make effective any appeal to loyalty to officers of the school in general. Here the boy felt himself two personalities, that of top sergeant, and that of private in the ranks rebelling against other top sergeants. As top sergeant he was made to realize the necessity for a feeling of solidarity to the rest of the guards for *esprit de corps*.

In rare cases does the dean call on the home. As professional trainers, as students of psychology, teachers should be able to handle most disciplinary problems. It is a mark of shame to call on parents in cases beyond our control. The following are such as compelled the dean to resort to the home.

Case Five

The son of an orchestra musician is himself a musician in a boys' orchestra which occasionally is engaged to play at dances. It was originally thought that these engagements were responsible for his excessive lateness. The boy was told that school was his first job, and unless he came early he would have to give up the orchestra. This did not help and, to investigate further, his mother was summoned. His mother, when she finally came, thought that all that was necessary was the explanation, "You know this boy is just like his father." The boy, according to her, and the school should resign themselves to his destiny to be like his father who, she said, also rose late. Upon further questioning it was disclosed that although the boy's father rose late, he had always been a half hour early for his engagements, which usually came in the evening. It had never occurred to the mother that school was the son's job and that it was her duty to help him do his job well. The added scheme of having the boy report to the dean before going to his official class was used for a while. This student has never been reported since.

Case Six

A boy was charged with excessive lateness and frequent truancy. His was a background of wealth. He was dressed in the height of fashion, wearing expensive neckties, silk socks, and several suits a week. His general appearance told us that he had an abundance of this world's goods. After attempts at talking things out, the dean summoned the parent. Surprisingly enough the father said that he knew of his son's delinquency, but that he did not seem able to buy him into better behavior. He said, "I give the boy everything in the world he asks for."

The dean's task here was to show the father that punctuality was a character asset which required training rather than buying. It was a matter of treating the parent rather than the student. It was necessary to shock the parent into his duty. When the father, after being told that it was time for him to do a little commanding, still showed tendencies to softness, the dean talked law to him, told him that his boy would be taken from him and placed in a truant school and that he, as parent, would be charged with improper guardianship. We haven't heard from the boy for the last two months.

The problem here was not the uncommon one in which home acquiescence and amused tolerance with delinquency have to be broken down.

We record these efforts not as boast. We have not been infallible. We are merely students of human nature and as such make this our contribution to the general study of the problem.

WILLIAM N. STERNBERG,
Assistant Dean,
September, 1932 to February, 1933.
Grover Cleveland High School.

HIGH POINTS

The Verse Speaking Choir

Ingenious devices to develop and stimulate an appreciation of poetry are frequently presented to teachers of English for their approval and use. Many of these devices arise from an inference that poetry is an intellectual problem to be solved by a careful analysis, unmindful of Wordsworth's warning: "We murder to dissect"; others arise from an attitude which looks at poetry as the necessary hurdle to be cleared in the English course. Fortunately, however, most educators still believe that any successful method should include at least a preparation of the students' mind, an orientation to the ideas, emotions, problems presented in the poem, and, as a climax, simply a good oral reading. Certainly, no method based on these two basic elements can fail to attain one of the primary aims of poetry study: the reading of poetry for enjoyment; for there is no better way to enjoy a poem than to read it aloud:

"Then read from the treasured volume
The poem of thy choice,
And lend the rhyme of the poet
The music of thy voice.
And the night shall be filled with music
And the cares that infest the day
Shall fold their tents like the Arabs,
And as silently steal away."

An excellent method of studying poetry for enjoyment and profit, and one which takes advantage of the value of oral reading, is the verse speaking choir, originated as the Oxford choir. It is an activity wherein group participation in oral reading of poetry is employed to derive the most benefit and enjoyment from poetry study. For the choir, best results will be obtained by using from ten to twenty students, although as few as three and as many as forty may be used successfully. As a means of accustoming the students to the novel

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procedure and freeing them from over-restraint, the leader reads one line or convenient breath group of the poem aloud, and the choir repeats it in chorus. This initial procedure continues until the entire poem, a short one to start with, has been read. While this method tends to produce a mechanical and strait-jacketed reading, it is useful for freeing the student from the fear of hearing his own voice raised in an individual and conflicting interpretation; it permits him to break free from restraint in the comparative shelter of a set voice pattern. The leader, by express words of inspiration and by his own spirited and sincere reading, should urge the students to speak the lines with conviction and feeling.

After a few simple poems have been studied and read in this fashion, with the better readers having acted as leaders a few times, the entire choir now reads a poem in chorus without following anyone. Attention should be paid to thought values as well as to rhythmic patterns. While some attention should be paid to keeping time and reading in unison, the emphasis at this step should be on individuality of interpretation and freedom from restraint—the natural outcome of varied ideas and sincere feeling.

With many poems, the changes in mood and sound devised by the poet can be brought out effectively by the use of different voices, as in a singing choir. Thus, where the poem is light and gay, we use lighter, higher, girlish voices; where it is solemn and slow, we use heavier, manlier ones—the corollary of Cyrano de Bergerac's "gay for a woman, sad for a man"; and where it is forcedly gay or drear, or both gay and drear, or neither, we use all voices. Various combinations can be tried effectively, almost as in music, to indicate conflicting moods or different types of characters, or to show the changes of plot or emotion in the poem.

Gestures and pantomime should be encouraged, especially when they arise spontaneously from the feeling of the student. When the poem becomes so vital to the student that his emotional or mental enthusiasm is expressed in terms of physical movements, appreciation is at its height. In one reading of "Caliban in the Coal Mines," some students stood calmly with eyes lifted, others gesticulated, others kneeled slightly, and others merely read quietly with no evident physical expression. Yet, before the reading, they had all agreed on a fairly uniform interpretation of the ideas, meaning, and feeling of the poem. Theoretical similarity had become actual variety. Appreciation is indeed heightened by this both individual and group participation.

A wealth of suitable poetry is available for the verse choir. Poems which have the necessary rhythm and auditory appeal abound in anthologies and collections. In general, it is better to work with poetry that has universal and emotional, rather than limited and intellectual, appeal. Shakespeare, in his songs, Burns, Coleridge, Keats, Tennyson, Arnold, especially in "The Forsaken Merman," Swinburne, Housman, Kipling, Yeats, Masefield, Noyes, Lindsay, Poe, Whitman, Lanier, S.V. and Wm. R. Benet, De La Mare, Millay, to mention only a few, furnish poetry that combines with recognized literary values all the necessary elements for effective group reading. The verse choir can easily utilize much of the poetry studied in the English course.

The net results of the verse speaking choir are indeed worth-while. Most important of all, there arises an appreciation that is whole-hearted and sincere, because it is based on a multi-sensual appeal. Aside from an increase of interest in poetry and knowledge of specific poems, the desire is awakened for clear understandings and veracious interpretations. The improvement in voice, diction, reading ability, and general speech habits is often marked. Most pleasing to those who advocate pupil activity is the opportunity for self-expression. The verse choir is a socialized procedure combining the virtues of unhindered expression and reasonable self-control; it is a training in coöperative work to produce a satisfactory result. These are reasons enough for the more extensive use of the choir.

GEORGE B. RABINOR.
John Adams High School.

A Device For Drill In Grammar

In the hope of helping the modern foreign language teacher in his search for ways of making drill interesting as well as efficient, I submit the following device. Its appeal is based on the competitive spirit, the class being divided into two teams for the drill. It is essential that the questions put to the members of both teams cover only one grammatical point at a time and that the answer required be very short. In order to keep the whole class attentive to the questions, the following rules are instituted. If a student on one team gives the wrong answer, only the members of the opposing team can make the correction. If the correction is accurately made by a member of the opposing team, a score is recorded against the team of the student giving the wrong answer. If, however, the student of the opposing team makes an inaccurate correction, the members of the first team can wipe out the score threatening them by supplying the accurate correction. Prompting can be prevented by considering it as a foul and penalizing with a score the team that prompts.

By this device, each student in a large class may be reached for at least one oral recitation and the teacher may be sure that he is eagerly attentive when he is not reciting. An explanatory word of the teacher in the course of such a game makes a great impression. But the warning must be repeated that, if the game is going to be efficient as a drill, the questions put must cover only one point and must demand only short answers.

MAX GILGOFF.
Jamaica High School.

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What is being done for the Gifted Student of Spanish at the DeWitt Clinton High School

A. *By the entire department:*

1. After-school help classes are conducted entirely and exclusively by the superior students. By guiding and helping their less brilliant classmates they develop their native ability to lead and to initiate.

2. Checking of homework and correction of objective tests are two tasks reserved for the gifted students. Opportunities are thus provided for them to evaluate their own work and that of others.

3. Homework assignments different from those given to the rest of the class are required of the gifted students whenever possible. In the elementary classes, for example, they do the English-Spanish translation exercises ("temas"), the more formal grammar exercises, and all of the vocabulary on an active basis. In the advanced classes they prepare original exercises such as dramatizations, summaries, free compositions, and do more extensive oral reading and less written translation.

4. The following special opportunities for supplementary reading are offered to the gifted students:

(*a*) A departmental library consisting of publisher's sample copies of simple novels, plays, short stories, and historical and cultural readers. Such books are offered to the gifted student not only for home reading, but also for occasional reading during the regular class period.

(*b*) A library of Spanish and Spanish-American magazines and newspapers is maintained as a special room in the school library. Gifted students are frequently excused from drill work to spend the period among the interesting periodicals.

(*c*) A mimeographed list of all books and pamphlets pertaining to Spain or Spanish America contained in the school library is given to every gifted student accompanied by specific personal recommendations.

5. The opportunity for self-expression is afforded the gifted student through frequent dramatizations of the stories read in class, through correspondence with students in Spanish-speaking countries, through editing the departmental Spanish papers (*El Heraldo Escolar* and *Las Noticias*), and through activities in our several clubs (El Círculo Castellano, El Club Menéndez Pidal, The Spanish Marionneteers, The Spanish Glee Club, The Pan American Club).

B. *By the individual teachers* (quoted from their reports):

1. "I have one gifted student this term who, I have discovered, possesses a special hobby for modeling relief maps and then painting them. On four different occasions this term I have exempted him from taking the regular weekly test and permitted him during that time to work on relief-maps of Spain, South America, Central America and Mexico, which he constructed for the classroom bulletin."

—*Regina Freudenheim.*

2. "Superior students of Spanish who are reasonably proficient in drawing are encouraged to illustrate proverbs, prepare charts summarizing grammatical points, or sketch the setting or character described in a story assigned."

—*Patrick Gallagher.*

3. "One of my exceptionally good fourth term students brought in a picture of his conception of El Cid Campeador. This picture formed the basis for a very interesting and profitable class discussion of the history and character of Spain's legendary hero, and led to a pilgrimage of the entire class to the Hispanic Museum where we viewed the original statue in bronze and made comparisons, with our artist as the cicerone and expert."

—*Grace Moskowitz.*

4. "I use my gifted students as my secretaries when I call on Spanish consuls or on foreign trade firms in connection with my work as adviser to the Pan American Student League. They thus get an opportunity to hear Spanish spoken by cultured natives and to use their knowledge of the language and people in a real situation."

—*Joshua Hochstein.*

5. "I hold my bright students up to higher standards. They are the ones whom I require to do the more difficult passages of a translation exercise and to whom I put the thought-provoking types of questions during our conversation practice."

—*William Trulio.*

6. "I encourage my very good students to continued good effort by generous use of public commendation. I never let go by an opportunity to praise exceptional work and point out to the entire class the exceptional merits of the particular achievement. I thus succeed in raising the gifted student in the estimation of his classmates and in arousing a desire to live up to his reputation."

—*Flora Molwitz.*

7. "I encourage my exceptional students to come to me with their problems after school. I do this because I have found that boys frequently hesitate to seek explanations in class that might embarrass their classmates or that might brand them as "highbrows." Furthermore, I find it easier to explain involved idiomatic or grammatical difficulties to these bright individuals than to an entire class."

—*Martin Kennedy.*

8. "The teacher must make the gifted student feel that she trusts him and depends on his assistance. Once he is aroused, his influence in the class has a marked effect on his character. I feel that character development is most important with the gifted pupil. To obtain a lasting effect the boy should be with the same teacher at least one year."

—*Katherine E. O'Brien.*

9. "I have been using my gifted students of Spanish as Big Brothers to help their poorer classmates with their homework at the beginning of the period and at least once a week after school. I also encourage them to visit their classmates at their homes and

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guide them in their preparation of the homework, teaching them how to study and how to attack work."

—*María de Moscoso.*

10. "I have from time to time invited my best students to accompany me on a Saturday or holiday to a Spanish theatre or talking picture and have not infrequently taken them on jaunts to Spanish restaurants and shops. Through these contacts they are given a wide variety of opportunities for the development of a catholic interest in the subject for which they have demonstrated so marked a predilection and so evident an ability."

—*Joseph L. Slater.*

HYMEN ALPERN.

Chairman, Spanish Department.

DeWitt Clinton High School.

A Journalism Exhibit

During the last few years, the extent to which the newspaper enters into and constitutes a significant part of our daily lives has begun to be recognized in schools. English, economics, and civics classes have made use of newspapers as part of class study. All this, of course, is apart from classes in journalism, definitely devoted to the study of journalism as a phase of civilized expression, and to its use as a medium for the development of skill in writing.

The interest manifested by classes in occasional sidelights on newspaper construction and methods gave the writer the idea of an exhibit of journalistic and allied materials; and with the coöperation of the librarians, such an exhibit has been presented in each of the past three terms, the material being partially changed each time. So general and so genuine has appeared the interest of the student body, and so simple has been the task of preparing the exhibits, that I have felt it worth while to pass along suggestions.

In the first place, each exhibit has been emphatically a (journalism) class project. A small committee of volunteers is appointed; it receives and arranges the material, the rest of the class all being under the general obligation of contributing whenever possible. My part has been to advise and suggest.

Materials have come from various sources. The youngsters come across a surprising amount themselves. Friendly printers will give or lend all sorts of surplus materials. (If there is a school paper, one great source is opened immediately, as will be explained). Visits to newspaper plants may result in interesting finds. Public libraries sometimes have foreign newspapers which are thrown away after a time.

It would require too much space to describe our present exhibit in detail. A prominent part may be called the mechanical aspect, which attracts probably the greatest number. An astonishing number of persons have only the vaguest idea as to how a newspaper comes into being. We therefore arranged in a case materials showing all the steps in the publication of the school paper, from the original copy through the actual type, proofs and dummy to the final product. Likewise, the process of reproducing a photograph and a cartoon is illustrated.

Other materials, on a large bulletin board, include pictures of linotype machines and of presses, samples of various type faces, cards and leaflets showing proofreaders' marks and copy corrected by proofreaders, a booklet showing the plan of a newspaper building, a leaflet showing the processes of picture reproduction by a tabloid newspaper, a map graphically representing the international correspondence system of a great newspaper, diagrams of the system for reporting baseball results to newspapers, and a few newspaper articles about recent mechanical marvels in presses

The problem of overflow materials was solved this term by a member of the committee, who constructed a large book, of heavy paper, bound in cord, and either mounted materials thereon or bound them in. This arrangement made possible the inclusion of a large amount of additional material, including foreign newspapers (members of classes other than the journalism class supplied some of these), newspapers from the other high schools, samples of copy sent over the teletype, a fac-simile of a very old newspaper, a souvenir issued by the *New York Times* showing its front pages reporting presidential inaugurations in the past, and a newspaper matrix, from which the stereotype is made.

MANUEL PRENNER.

James Monroe High School.

The Committee System Adapted To Civics

THE PROBLEM

The turmoil of living and the business of acquiring an independent outlook on life and life problems present themselves as major principles for desiring the development of practical methods of handling civic content and civic classes. Civic content is suggested because the materials at hand are all immediate and have vital qualities—they involve problems of the day. How, then, can one capitalize the mass of materials on hand so as to develop to the fullest the interest of the pupils in current affairs, administrative set-ups and political and social tangents of government?

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The method to be suggested, "the committee system," is old in theory. It remained only to make cold theory an actual practice. And so the committee system was examined, fortified with new educational approaches and finally introduced as a class method in handling a lesson plan.

THE FORMAL PLAN

The day's assignment is organized into several thought questions. These thought questions, given the day before as homework, involve problem set-ups, developed around both factual and empirical content.

The problems form the basis for committee work. Row one, for example, becomes committee one, row two, committee two, and so forth. Each committee is assigned to determine a cohesive answer to one of the

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problems. Since no committee knows previously what question will be assigned to it, the homework is done completely. Thus problem three might be suggested to committee one.

Having determined the committees and the delegation of the questions, each group now proceeds to some corner of the room. They bring their note-books along with them, in which are contained their individual answers to all the home-work problems. A chairman is appointed (usually someone to be marked for class recitation) whose job it is to head the group discussion and correlate all the individual answers of the members of his committee into one model answer. His control of the group, both in discipline and in the manner which he obtains member participation in searching for the answer, enter into his functions as chairman.

Committee discussion usually involves about ten minutes of class time. When sufficient time has been granted, the groups are requested to reassemble in their class seats. The chairman of committee one then steps forward and assumes absolute charge of the class.

A statement of the problem, and the answer or solution follows. His discussion is enriched by the amount of criticism he can stimulate in his fellow class-members. The end of his talk is followed by some query such as, "Are there any questions?" The important part of the method follows—the interplay between question and answer. It may be wondered at the amount of questioning a slow class will do, especially now that there is a personal purpose for knowing the work. Criticisms made by themselves appear apparently to fit in with their desire to gain approval or recognition of merit in discussion and debate — not from the teacher, but from their classmates.

If the chairman cannot answer a criticism or question, he then calls for aid from other members of his committee. His job is completed usually within six minutes and the next committee chairman assumes the direction of the class. The last ten minutes of class time is taken over by the teacher for check-up on errors in discussion and thought processes developed by the class.

Philosophy of the Method

The committee system attempts to capitalize upon the natural tendency for group work, as expressed in team play and the common run of general socialized activity. The individual is important for discussion purposes and for the amount of knowledge (in their language—"for the better answer") he can impart to the other members of the group and the student chairman of the committee. The individual thus does not lose his identity to the unit and yet subordinates his suggestions or his answers to the bigger job of getting the best possible response.

The democratic atmosphere is a real elation. Individual participation in discussion receives a natural impulse first, when the committee members search for a model answer (gleaning from their personal answers in the homework note-book) and second when members of other committees criticize and quiz the chairman, obliging him to defend his statements.

The homogeneity, rather the lack of homogeneity, in the group, is, of course, a problem. The slow student, however, gains the advantage of rechecking his understanding of the work, and developing in some degree desirable attitudes in class discussion, in presenting a less frightened picture when called upon to speak. Unsocial tendencies are brought about rapidly, permitting a surer grasp for the alert teacher to recognize their presence and possible reconstruction.

The brighter student goes further along the lines of leadership and individual creative thought. The handling of a committee and apparent responsibility of class direction give greater weight and reason to the necessity for knowing not only class material, but also more than the text contains.

Practically, the method has had an extended influence into other methods of class instruction. The attitude has carried over so that statements, written as board work, or given as ordinary oral recitation, are not accepted entirely without examination.

The committee method attempts merely to put into practice a theory of socialization, developed more carefully as to its divergent possibilities. It has worked in a class having "Civics" content. What the result would be in a history class is as yet a moot question. That is a new problem worthy of further experimentation.

Samuel G. Fisher.
Bushwick High School.

Remedial Work In the Department of Spanish At the Grover Cleveland High School

The old adage "A stitch in time saves nine" holds for the teaching of Spanish as it does for more mechanical activities.

In Grover Cleveland's Spanish Department, at the end of the first marking period, when it has been ascertained who the failing students are, a remedial technique is immediately entered upon which seems to stimulate considerably the work of failing students.

Acting on the universally accepted premise that the school is helpless without the coöperation of the home, the child-centered teacher sends the following letter to the failing student's parent:

> "Your son (daughter) has failed with a grade of .....% for the first third of this term.
>
> "Unless there is a decided improvement in the work this means that he (she) will fail for the term.
>
> "Your son (daughter) does not study at home. Forty minutes per day of home study are required.
>
> "In order to help your son (daughter) to improve, it is necessary that you coöperate with me in getting him (her) to do the Spanish homework. Please state on the enclosed card, each day, how much time has actually been spent on this work."

The above letter is then mailed to the parents by the teacher. Due precaution must be taken, of course, to

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see that the envelope bears no tell-tale signs as to the identity of the sender, as an official envelope may never reach its proper destination. However, the teacher's responsibility does not end here; sending the letter is merely a beginning. Some parents will seek an interview with the teacher, who will give up a free period and possible part of a lunch period to discuss patiently with the parent the student's weaknesses and a possible remedial program. During this conversation the teacher will have to bring all his resourcefulness into play and tactfully elicit from the parent any information which may prove to be of value in determining the cause of the student's lack of application. Very often the reason is a legitimate one, requiring sympathy, rather than chastisement. Hence the teacher should proceed with patience. Occasions of this sort make teaching what it is—a mission and not just another job.

Later, the teacher will ask to see the student's card each day, without exception, and will make certain that the signature has not been forged.

All this will be supplemented by individual instruction during after-school hours.

The program outlined above is not impossible. It is in actual practice. Teachers with one and two extra-curricular activities are still able to carry out its provisions.

The average high school student of today is not mentally backward; if anything, he is more keenly alive to the life that surrounds him than the student of yesterday. It is for this very reason that he often shuns the seclusion of the study. A little persuasion of a friendly nature and a display of interest in which the teacher shows John Jones that he is interested in him as John Jones, the son of Jim Jones, and that he is not content with merely labeling him No. 1, first seat, first aisle, will greatly improve John's work. Should it not succeed, then let not the teacher feel discouraged, but let him seek and seek until he has found, not a panacea, since we are dealing with individuals, but a method by which to help the particular individual adjust himself to prevailing conditions. This same method may help more individuals; but there may still be a countless multitude who will not respond to the same treatment with equal success. For the latter group a searching analysis will doubtlessly uncover a *modus operandi* as efficacious as the method outlined above. But patience, perserverance, and understanding are prime requisites if success is to be achieved.

EMILIO L. GUERRA.

Grover Cleveland High School.

We Say It With Figures

There are few things that let us [illegible] for a more thorough understanding of language and its meaning than do figures of speech. Figures are the tools not only of poets and orators, but of baseball and slang, of headlines and billboards, and the better we understand figures, the more we see in [illegible] language and expression. Take the subject from "Paradise Lost" to the return of beer, and the language that describes it is largely figurative.

First, consider the dramatists. The language of deep emotion is figurative. Listen to Romeo at first sight of Juliet:

"O, she doth teach the torches to burn bright!
It seems she hangs upon the cheek of night
Like a rich jewel in an Ethiop's ear;
Beauty too rich for use, for earth too dear."

Listen to Portia speaking in hyperbole to Bassanio:

"For you
I would be trebled twenty times myself:
A thousand times more fair, ten thousand times
More rich."

Or to Shylock, master of irony:

"Fair Sir, you spit on me on Wednesday last,
You spurned me such a day,
Another day you called me dog,
And for these courtesies I'll lend you thus much moneys?"

Macbeth in the final agony says:

"My life hath fallen into the sere and yellow leaf."

And Lear, understanding Cordelia at the last:

"He that parts us shall bring a brand from heaven
And fire us hence like foxes."

Less dramatic, more philosophical, are the figures of the poets. The poets write of love, of nature, of spiritual ecstasy, and the language in which they write is highly figurative. Abstract language cannot so rouse the imagination as comparisons, images, personification. Thus Edna St. Vincent Millay, in the poem, "God's World," cries:

"O World, I cannot hold thee close enough!
Thy woods, this autumn day, that ache and sag
* * * * * * *
And all but cry with color!"

Thus Wordsworth in his great Ode:

"The moon doth with delight
Look round her when the heavens are bare;"

and again,

"The Soul that rises with us, our life's Star,
Hath had elsewhere its setting
And cometh from afar."

Tennyson's Ulysses insists:

"I cannot rest from travel: I will drink
Life to the lees;"

He thrusts aside a drab life,

"How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnished, not to shine in use!"

He demands adventure to the end:

"Come, my friends,
'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
Push off, and sitting well in order, smite
The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the baths
Of all the western stars, until I die."

Take the newspapers. Here the topics of the day, the advertisements, the columns of editorials, give us a never ending procession of figures of speech. Notice the following captions: "Death rode Navy J-3 as stowaway"; "The Akron sinks to its watery grave"; "We're bombarding New York with bargains"; and "Hello, everybody! This is Kate Smith, the song bird of the south." Wrigley's chewing gum is "Fresh as a new day," and Old Gold cigarettes have "not a cough in a carload."

Metonymy (under which head synecdoche can well be included) with its substitution of the name of one thing for a related thing, is common in daily usage. Note the following examples:

"A hand at cards."

"The command fell on deaf ears."

"He is proud of his name." (reputation)

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"The gate receipts."
"He never broke his word."
"Good blood tells."
"On the air." (radio)
"Net men." (tennis)
"A screen actress."
"She is splendid with the needle."
"Next in succession to the crown."
"He never broke his word."

And one which derives all its meaning from the new beer legislation: "Chicago awaits midnight."

The metaphor, with its suggested comparison, meets us on every hand. Here are some recent headlines:

"Foaming floods of 3.2 suds to flow Friday." (also alliteration)

"Messages deluge navy department."

"The sea is combed for survivors."

Expressions in common usage also are often metaphorical: as "cauliflower ears," "the winged word," "unbridled tongue," and "the square deal."

Alliteration is a delightful figure, easy to detect, pleasant on the tongue, and in great demand by poets, advertisers, and headliners. Sometimes it is used for nonsense, as by the immortal Bottom:

> "The raging rocks
> With shivering shocks
> Shall break the locks
> Of prison gates:
> And Phibbus' car
> Shall shine from far
> And make and mar
> The foolish fates."

And sometimes it gives grace and music, as in

"I slip, I slide, I gloom, I glance,"

and

"Nor cast one longing, lingering, look behind."

The advertiser uses alliteration because it is attractive, catchy:

"Buy Bond Bread."

"Storewide Super-Sale."

"We're bombarding New York with bargains."

The headliner seizes it to point his topic:

"Beer, business and the budget."

"Savants turn eyes skyward for Starry Showers to-night."

"Stock sales soar slightly."

"Ed Wynne wins with the women."

Slang, too, is often a figure of speech, as:

"Step on it." (metaphor)

"He got it over to his audience." (metaphor)

"I should worry." (irony)

Now what assignments can be made for figures of speech? Some can come from the classics and some from ordinary usage. Nearly all high school pupils have access to Shakespeare and the Bible. Very well, let them bring in ten figures from one or the other of these sources. The student has a thrill who finds such personification as this from Isaiah:

"And the moon shall be put to the blush, and the sun be made ashamed, for the Lord of hosts will reign on Mount Zion, and in Jerusalem, and before His ancients in glory."

How could irony be more brilliant than in Job's dry remark to his comforters:

"No doubt ye are the people, and wisdom will die with you?"

Shakespeare is of course an inexhaustible mine of figures as fine as this rhetorical question: "Who riseth from a feast with that keen appetite that he sits down?"

On another day figures can be taken from the newspapers. On March 4 of this year, the New York *Herald-Tribune* quoted a pun from the *Tribune* of twenty years before: "Many Republican office holders will think it ought to be spelled March Forth." One pupil finds, "Here's hoping that Mr. Roosevelt's middle name will bring us luck and that prosperity will Delano longer in turning the corner"; another sees a Betty Wales advertisement, "A hat to go to your head."

If a pupil finds these figures for himself, if they spring to him from the printed page, they are his own in a way. They are his find, his thrill, his possession. He experiences new beauty, or new humor, and he is all the wealthier for it.

KATHARINE S. MERRELL.

Far Rockaway High School.

A Departmental Bulletin Board

Our modern foreign language bulletin board lends itself to a variety of uses. The field is wide in the languages, and many of the interests are such as can be illustrated by a display on the bulletin board.

Say it is Wagner week, and pamphlets and folders come to hand containing excellent pictures of the great Richard, of his wife Cosima, of his grandchildren and of views of the cities and opera houses made famous by him. These can be carefully cut out, placed on uniform mounts and attractively arranged on the bulletin board. It is a small tribute, perhaps, but the crowds in front of the bulletin boards evince the interest of the students.

Or suppose it is Pan American Day. Twenty-one republics of the western hemisphere are celebrating, and we in our little corner put on our board an array of the pictured flags and coats-of-arms of all the twenty-one, that of the United States among them no larger than the rest. Or perhaps we have a wall flag-standard and can display the actual small flags, with the maps of North, Central and South America underneath.

Columbus Day, too, can be featured with views of the great discoverer and his romantic vessel, of Balboa, or of

> "Stout Cortez, when with eagle eyes
> He stared at the Pacific."

Foreign countries seem to us so picturesque and the travel pamphlets so well illustrated, that there is no end to the possibilities for display along these lines. A good set of pictures of the French chateaux, postcards of the French cathedrals, the castles on the Rhine, Joan of Arc, the Moorish architecture in Spain, all are interesting. Colored pictures of the Alhambra, that grand old structure set with its red roofs among the trees upon the storied mountain, are full of interest and beauty.

Sometimes the bulletin can be used for topics more closely connected with the classroom. There can be pupils' maps of the foreign countries exhibited. Pictures of foods, drawn by the pupils or cut from magazines, can have the foods labeled with their names in the foreign language—Äpfel, pommes,

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or manzanas — and they all look gay when thus served up.

At times a display can be made of the attractive covers that students make for their language books. Ordinary paper is used as the basis for these covers, but each pupil decorates it with something appropriate to the text. The design may be a flag, a character or a scene, anything to lend color and interest.

Booklets made by the pupils illustrating the countries are sometimes exhibited. Perhaps a class in Spanish has made books, each pupil taking a Spanish-speaking country and writing it up, with maps and illustrations. For the student it is a pleasant reward to see his handsome book on display, and for underclassmen it is something to look forward to and emulate.

To illustrate literature there are attractive exhibits. There are pictures of authors and musicians, and an array of Don Quijote scenes, reproductions of Carot, Millet, Murillo.

The exhibits to be most effective should follow along in swift succession, say three or four days for each one. They should vary, now an elaborate one, now a single picture. The mountings should be in harmony with their pictures and with each other, and the exhibits arranged in attractive design.

With such a wealth of material as the foreign languages offer there is, indeed, much virtue in the bulletin board.

SOPHIA L. BODLER,
Chairman, Department of Modern Languages.
Far Rockaway High School.

Board of Education Radio Programs Given From October 26, 1932 To May 17, 1933

The following schedule of programs was given over Station WNYC and were organized by Mr. Winfield L. Rice, Acting Director of Civics.

OCTOBER 26, 1932

Speakers	*Topic*	*Music*
Mr. Thomas H. Cowan, Station WNYC	Speaking for Commissioner Albert Goldman	James Monroe High School Band
Dr. Eugene A. Colligan, Associate Superintendent, speaking for Dr. George J. Ryan, President of the Board of Education	"The School Dollar"	Albert A. Becker
Dr. William J. O'Shea, Superintendent of Schools	"The American Red Cross"	
Dr. Harold G. Campbell, Deputy and Associate Superintendent	"Providing Opportunities for Gifted Children"	
Mr. Frank A. Rexford, Director of Education, Museum of the City of New York	"Education in the Schools and in the Museum of the City of New York"	
Mr. Daniel I. Maguire, Deputy Superintendent of School Buildings	"Maintenance"	

NOVEMBER 2, 1932

Speakers	*Topic*	*Music*
Mr. George H. Gartlan, Director of Music	"Music in Education"	Alexander Hamilton High School Orchestra Edward J. A. Zeiner

NOVEMBER 9, 1932

Miss Adelina Kuhn, Head of the French Department, Eastern District High School	"The Teaching of French in our High Schools"	High School of Commerce Orchestra
Miss More, Eastern District High School	First-term class in French	George Bloom
Miss Jeanne Lanz, Eastern District High School	Sixth-term class in French	

NOVEMBER 16, 1932

Mr. George Olano, Consul General of Columbia in New York City	"The Importance of the Study of Spanish in Our Schools and Colleges"	John Adams High School Orchestra
Mr. Chester H. Stratton, Spanish teacher, James Monroe High School	An historical sketch	H. Otto Piatti, Jeannette C. Berner
Mrs. Antoinette L. Hermann, Chairman of the Spanish Department, James Monroe High School	"How Spanish Is Taught in Our High Schools" and A Lesson in Spanish	

NOVEMBER 23, 1932

Mrs. Sylvia Levy, Washington Irving High School	Talk on Germany	New Utrecht High School Orchestra
Miss Dorothy Eltzner, Chairman, German Dept., Washington Irving High School	"How the German Language is Taught"	Philip Ehrlich
Class of girls, Washington Irving High School	Demonstration Lesson in German	

NOVEMBER 30, 1932

Mr. Leonard Covello, Chairman, Italian Dep't, DeWitt Clinton High School	"The Study of Italian"	Samuel J. Tilden High School Orchestra
Miss Mary E. Giacobbe, De Witt Clinton High School	First and third term lessons in Italian	Antonio Miranda

DECEMBER 7, 1932

Miss Maude D. Kivlen, Girls Commercial High School	"Mandatory Legislation"	
Girls of History Dep't, Girls Commercial High School Directed by Miss Norma Lenz	Play—"The Czar and the Princess"	Girls Commerical High School Orchestra and Glee Club Marie Merkert

DECEMBER 14, 1932

Miss Maude D. Kivlin, Girls Commercial High School	"Mandatory Legislation"	New Utrecht High School Band

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Speakers	Topic	Music
Mr. Murvin Becker, Morris High School	"The United States is a Government by Discussion"—Introduction	Samuel B. Charry
Students from Morris High School	Meeting of the Civic Council	
Mr. William T. Driscoll, Morris High School	Conclusion	
	DECEMBER 21, 1932	
Dr. Charles A. Tonsor, Principal, Grover Cleveland High School	"The Study of Latin"	Grover Cleveland High School Orchestra and Glee Club
Students from Grover Cleveland High School Directed by Miss Grace Light	Lesson in Latin	Paul B. Martin
	JANUARY 1, 1933	
Dr. Eugene A. Colligan, Associate Superintendent	"The Junior High School—the School of the Age"	Prospect Avenue High School Orchestra
Dr. Benjamin Veit, District Superintendent	"The Junior High School in New York City"	Silas Birnbaum
	JANUARY 11, 1933	
Dr. Augustus Ludwig, Principal, John J. Pershing Junior High School	"What Can the Junior High School Do to Guide Your Child in the Selection of Courses and the Preparation of His Work for Senior High School"	Seth Low Junior High School Orchestra May Looney
Mr. Isaac Bildersee, Principal, Seth Low Junior High School	"Training for Citizenship in the Junior High School"	
	JANUARY 18, 1933	
Mr. Frederick B. Graham, Principal, Junior High School 232, Brooklyn	"What the Junior High School Does for Children of Different Abilities"	Henry P. O'Neil Junior High School Orchestra May Dolin Glee Club Margaret Andrews
	JANUARY 25, 1933	
Mr. Albert Loewinthan, Principal, Yorkville Junior High School	"Character Training in the Yorkville Junior High School"	Chorus, Yorkville Junior High School
Miss A. Eugenie Chinnock, Principal, Harriet Beecher Stowe Junior High School	"The Junior High School Industrial Course for Girls"	Thomas Abrahams and Alexander Hamilton High School String Quartette
	FEBRUARY 1, 1933	
Mr. Edward R. Maguire, Principal, Herman Ridder Junior High School	Introductory Address	Orchestra and chorus Herman Ridder Junior High School

Speakers	Topic	Music
Mrs. Sara C. Shubert, Herman Ridder Junior High School	Group Study Plan Lesson in Creative English	William Wucherer Emma Schatteles
Mr. William Wucherer, Herman Ridder Junior High School	A reading group in the German Class	
Mr. Arthur Marr and Mr. Harry Strongman, Herman Ridder Junior High School	A picture of the school court in action	
	FEBRUARY 8, 1933	
Dr. Edward Coyle, Chairman, Latin Department, Morris High School	"Ancient Words in Modern Dress"	Newtown High School Orchestra
Dr. Coyle and a class of boys and girls from Morris High School	Latin Lesson on Cicero's "De Oratore"	C. I. Valentine
	FEBRUARY 15, 1933	
Dr. Helen Louise Cohen, Chairman, English Dep't, Washington Irving High School	"Climbing Parnassus"	Richmond Hill High School Orchestra
Dr. Cohen and a class of Girls from Washington Irving High School	Demonstration lesson	Daniel Wood
	MARCH 1, 1933	
Mr. Forest Grant, Director of Art, Board of Education	Introductory talk on Art	George Washington High School Orchestra
Miss Helen Hutchinson, Head of the Art Dep't, Morris High School	Art Appreciation	Ruth Spaulding
Miss Edna Black, Washington Irving High School	"Art Appreciation"	
	MARCH 8, 1933	
Mr. Forest Grant, Art Director	Introductory Talk	Stuyvesant High School Orchestra
Mr. Raymond Carter, Head of the Art Dep't, High School of Commerce	"Art for Boys—Commercial Design"	Carl Danielson
Miss Virginia Murphy, Head of Art Dep't, Erasmus Hall High School	"Art for Boys—Stage Design"	
	MARCH 15, 1933	
Mr. Forest Grant, Art Director	Introductory Talk	Boys High School Band
Miss Alma Hamilton, Head of Art Dep't, Bay Ridge High School	"Art for Girls"	George C. Flint
Miss Florence Newcomb, Head of Art Dep't, Haaren High School	"Art for Girls"	

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MARCH 22, 1933

Speakers	Topic	Music
Mr. Forest Grant, Art Director	Introductory Talk	Jamaica High School Orchestra
Miss Mary Doux, Head of Art Dep't, Girls Commercial High School	"Industrial Art for Girls"	Seth Vanderverg
Miss Laura Ferris, Head of Art Dep't, Washington Irving High School	"Industrial Art for Girls"	

MARCH 29, 1933

Mr. Forest Grant, Director of Art	Introductory Talk	Washington Irving High School Orchestra
Walter M. Baumhofer, Alexander Hamilton High School; Wilton Owen, Textile High School; Marie R. Guthrie, Bryant High School; Jeanne L. Nurick, Girls High School; Ted Carroll, High School of Commerce	Graduates' Night	Lawrence Mooney Glee Club Stella Heiden

APRIL 5, 1933

Mr. Charles M. Smith, Director of Guidance	"Guidance for Vocations and Citizenship in the New Age"	Theodore Roosevelt High School Orchestra
Mr. W. Phillip Shatts, Regional Plan Corporation	"Regional Planning"	Emory White
Mrs. Sarah L. Sellin, Theodore Roosevelt High School and a class from that school	A lesson on Regional Planning and Citizenship	

APRIL 12, 1933

Mr. Alfred A. Tausk, Principal, Boys High School	"Boys High School"	Erasmus Hall High School Band
Dr. George J. Crane, chairman, English Department, Boys High School	"A New Deal By the English Teacher"	Umberto Pisani
Dr. John H. Schieswohl, English Dep't, Boys High School	"A Model Lesson in Literature"	

APRIL 26, 1933

Dr. Wilbert Carr, Professor of Latin, Teachers College	"The Value of Latin in Modern Education"	Bay Ridge High School Orchestra
Dr. Charles A. Tonsor, Principal, Grover Cleveland High School	"The Teaching of Cicero"	Eugene Morris
Miss Grace Light, Chairman, Department of Classical Languages, Grover Cleveland High School	"Cicero's Philosophy of Life as Shown in His Writings"	

MAY 3, 1933

Speakers	Topic	Music
Mr. Frank A. Rexford, Director of Education, Museum of the City of New York	"The Junior Red Cross as A Civic Activity in Schools"	James Madison High School Orchestra S. Lewis Elmer
Matt Jacobs, President Junior Red Cross Council of High School Students of the City of New York	National Red Cross Convention at Washington	
Public School 188, Man., directed by Miss Yetta Klein	Play—"The Birthday Party of the Junior Red Cross"	

MAY 10, 1933

Mr. William A. Hamm, Chairman of History Dep't, Walton High School	Introductory Talk	DeWitt Clinton High School Band
Girls from Walton High School	Educational Dramatization—"Currency Problems — Past and Present"	Donald Phillips

MAY 17, 1933

Mr. I. David Cohen, Principal, West Side Continuation School	"How to Find Your Life's Work"	Brooklyn Boys Continuation School Orchestra William Fox
Mr. Charles W. Laffin, Principal, Brooklyn Boys Continuation School	Talk on Continuation Schools	
Mr. George F. Pigott, Principal, Williamsburg Continuation School	Talk on Continuation Schools	
Miss Clare Lewis, Junior Placement Bureau	Placement for graduates of Continuation Schools	
Mr. Frances Monte, President, Brooklyn Boys Continuation School Republic	"Student Self-Government"	

The Italian Club At Newtown High School

Since the Italian Club was started at Newtown High School about ten years ago, it has had a varied and uninterrupted career. The Italian Club has engaged in most of the activities which are interesting to language clubs in general, but it has gone beyond the language clubs' usual limit into a social field rich with opportunities and worth-while undertakings. The Italian Club has been a sympathetic bond between the school and the home, offering to many parents of Italian children the delight of visiting the school and sharing in the entertainments, and of marvelling at the talent and charm of our young students.

The Italian Club sets a standard of conduct for the rest of the students

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in Italian classes. The only requirements for joining the club are as follows:

1. A student must be studying Italian
2. A student who is interested in Italian subjects may be permitted to join.

In days when classrooms were available after school, the Italian Club held regular coaching classes where members of the club helped other members to smooth out their difficulties in other subjects as well as Italian. These periods were always supervised in a friendly way by the faculty adviser who kept her sympathetic eye upon the young people and guided them when the occasion demanded guidance. This "clearing house" of student knowledge and student ideas created a spirit of good fellowship and sportsmanship which the members of the club enjoyed with a friendly, delighted attitude.

At that time we had also developed an attendance committee that investigated and reported on cases of excessive absence. Many of the members were neighbors of these more careless students and the committee called at the absentees' homes to explain to the parents, in Italian if necessary, the importance of seeing that their children were present at school every day of the school year.

The Italian Club has tried at all times to adapt itself to the needs of the students. The Club once undertook to give its members instruction in social dancing. Those whose dancing was good were chosen to teach those who had "never danced" in their lives. With the aid of an old phonograph and a few records, the aim was happily and successfully attained.

There are periods when the members seem bent on parties and socials. At other times their interest is manifested mainly in studying "great men" or music or literature. In the music field some of our members are talented and skillful musicians. Three years ago one of our members set to music a poem which she had studied in the Italian class. Needless to say, the presentation of the original song, sung by another member at one of our parents' entertainments, was received with delight and surprise.

The Italian Club has issued two prizes every term to the best students in Italian Two Years and Three Years of the Regents' examinations. This speaks well for young people who are serious enough to want to spend their small club savings to reward excellence and hard work. The Club has also purchased, from time to time, books which were placed in the school library so that all might enjoy them.

Back of all Italian Club activities there are two old but well tried principles. The Italian Club aims to give the young people an understanding of the background and civilization of their foreign-born parents in order that, as new citizens, they may be conscious of a definite, noble heritage which their parents can hand down to them. This inculcates a pride and respect for their parents which makes for a happy, intelligent adolescence. Next to this is the importance of making it possible for our young students to express themselves in different types of work in which they are talented and to enjoy the company and society of young people of their own age and their own interests.

All our programs, literary and musical, all our trips to the museum, to the Casa Italiana, to Italian entertainments and Club parties are merely subsidiary to the two main principles which I have just set down. So far, our efforts have been crowned with success and happiness, which gives us the courage to continue, even in the face of many difficulties.

CATHERINE R. SANTELLI,
Faculty Adviser of the Italian Club.
Newtown High School.

Homogeneous Grouping In Bookkeeping

At the end of a fiscal period, when results of the year's operations are evidenced by analyses and statements, the cautious business man tries to discover the weak spots in his business in order that the next year's operations may prove more profitable. Losses due to causes over which he has no control he can guard against only by setting up reserves; losses due to management he can usually overcome by more careful manipulation or change of policy.

How about the teacher? At the end of the term there are the final marks which take the place of the statements. But are these studied with a view towards improvement of operations? Hardly. Marks are entered, hands wiped, and let's go!

The leaks or losses in the teachers' statements are the failures. How many of these failures are due to actual inability on the pupils' part to assimilate? How many failures might have been avoided by a better understanding, on the part of the teacher, of the individual pupil? How many by a change of method, by a change of pace, by an occasional laugh, by a more pleasant relationship between teacher and pupil?

Searching for an answer to some of these questions, an investigation and experiment was undertaken last year with two classes in first year bookkeeping.

In the June, 1932, number of HIGH POINTS (pages 69 to 72) there appeared the findings of the early part of this investigation which are now presented in summary form. The "Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability" Higher Examination, Form A, and the "Orleans Arithmetic Reasoning Tests," Form I were given to these two classes. The intelligence test showed a spread from 81 to 120 distributed as follows:

I. Q.	*Number*
111-120	5
90-110	53
80-89	11

The Arithmetic Reasoning test disclosed a surprisingly large range, as follows:

Arithmetic level	*Number*
9A-9B	11
8A-8B	16
7A-7B	25
6A-6B	17

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The coefficient of correlation is relatively high between these scores, being .68±.04.

As was indicated in the article referred to, the achievements during the first term accounting bore a close relationship to the achievements on these standard tests; there was only one failure in the group falling above the 99 I. Q. and 8A arithmetic levels, while there were five failures in the group falling below these levels, with no "A" pupils and only four "B" pupils in the latter group.

During the first term, the classes being composed heterogeneously, the work was carried along at a tempo set by the city syllabus with the usual consequences — the more advanced pupils were not challenged to their capacities and the backward pupils were overtaxed. To prevent the slow pupils from falling too far behind, afternoon sessions were held twice a week, on a voluntary basis; those interested enough to want to pass the term's work attended regularly. This arrangement, however, took no account of the brighter pupils; they could not benefit from these extra periods of work as the work covered had already been taken up in class.

The result of the first term's study indicated that the work of the second term, with the ascertained information about these pupils available, might be carried on more successfully if the classes were made up of more or less homogeneous groups. With the kind permission and coöperation of the department chairman and the administrative assistant, these two classes were advanced according to their intelligence quotients and arithmetic reasoning abilities as determined by the above mentioned tests; one class consisted of the thirty-three pupils whose average I. Q. was 103 and the other class consisted of thirty-two with an average I. Q. of 94.

The slower class was scheduled for the second period of the day and the better class for the sixth period, the one immediately following the lunch period. The youngsters were not told that the classes were advanced on any particular basis, although they soon discovered, by comparing notes with each other, that there was a difference in the pace at which they were working. The teacher assigned to these classes was the same as the one who had the two classes the first term.

Soon after the term started it became evident that the morning class would need no after-school coaching. There were only three or four who could not maintain the slower pace and they received some individual attention during the regular periods. The class, as a whole, was able to keep up with the work which was carried on at the city syllabus pace. Just a minimum of home-work was assigned to this group; usually a short piece of work to fix a new point developed in class during the regular period. Some part of each period was devoted to written work, ordinarily it was work on a short set which carried over for several days. The teacher observed the work closely, circulating in the class continually; when an error was discovered (and there were plenty of them) not only was it pointed out at once, but very often a little questioning brought to light the cause of the error, which was misunderstanding of principle, confusion as to meaning of terms, and the like. As all members of the class were about on a par, there was no reason to go on with advanced work before the current topic was thoroughly mastered, or nearly so. It must be pointed out that the work covered did not include anything but essentials. There were no enrichments of any kind. The presentation of the subject matter was simplified to such an extent that all could grasp the work. The teacher, having had the pupils the preceding term, knew the individual weaknesses and was able to anticipate difficulties.

In the meantime the afternoon class, although by no means brilliant, as its average I. Q. of 103 shows, was making rapid progress. This group had time to work out most of the exercises in class and worked the sets at home. Very little individual attention was required and much more ground could be covered in both new work and review work. The entire term's work was completed in sixteen weeks and after a few days of reviewing, third term work was undertaken. The class managed to complete three weeks' advanced work before the end of the term.

At the end of the term both classes were given the Diagnostic Test in Bookkeeping III, as devised by the Board of Education, with the following results:

TABLE I

Distribution of Diagnostic Test in Bookkeeping III Results

	Slow Class	*Rapid Class*
85-100	6	12
75-84	6	10
65-74	10	7
55-64	5	2
45-54	5	2
Average	66.8%	78.3%

As these tests were of a searching nature, covering in detail the first year's work, the results indicate quite clearly what an advantage there is in homogeneous groupings. That more than a third of the slow class was able to score better than 75 is due in no small part to the individual work done with these pupils and intensive drill work; it indicates also that intelligence tests are no definite criteria of capacity.

The following figures show the final results for the term's work with both classes:

TABLE II

Distribution of Final Marks For Accounting II

	Slow Class	*Rapid Class*
90-100	0	6
80-89	3	8
70-79	15	12
65-69	11	6
Failures	3	1
Average Mark	69%	76%
Percentage Passed	91%	76%

Sixty-one out of sixty-five pupils in both classes passed the second term's work, or 94% passed as compared with 80% passing for the rest of the

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second term bookkeeping pupils in this school.

As a result of this investigation the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. Bright pupils have more opportunity to complete the term's work and take advanced work if they are not hindered by slow pupils in the class.
2. Slow pupils have a better chance to master their work if they are taken along at a pace suited to their capacity.
3. Homogeneous grouping tends to make both teaching and learning more economical as there is less effort expended on the part of both teacher and pupil when the spread in ability is narrowed down to a minimum.
4. As a result of prognostic tests (intelligence and arithmetic) to all entering high school commercial students, those whose results place them in the lowest sixth should be excluded from bookkeeping classes, but should be given some allied though less exacting subject.
5. If classes in bookkeeping were homogeneously grouped, the bright groups should be able to complete the four-term course in three terms.
6. Wherever possible, teachers should be permitted to advance their classes from the first term to the second term of a subject which carries over. The advantages in this are obvious.

ADOLPH KLEIN.

Haaren High School.

The Italian Mid-Term Examination As An Achievement Test

After marking the mid-term examinations and returning them to the pupils, I had each one make a table showing the record of his achievement. These tables were useful because they showed which part of the term's work would have to be reviewed and drilled again for the whole class in general. They were also of definite use to the student for they showed immediately what his weakness was and where he needed help. I have kept these tables for reference and by constantly consulting them I hope to be able to bring some of the failures up to grade and to help others to obtain an honor grade.

Two of these tables, from two of my classes, read as follows:

Daniel D. Italian I

	Points Assigned	Points Earned
1. Translation into English	15	14
2. Comprehension	15	10
3. Classroom expressions	5	2
4. Plural of nouns	5	0
5. Definite article	5	4
6. Indefinite article	5	0
7. Present tense	12	0
8. Memory	8	1
9. Verb series	10	1
10. Verb forms	20	11
	100	43

Daniel needs to be taught again the formation of the plural, the definite article and the meaning of tense. He probably has not applied himself sufficiently to learn his poems and proverbs. He could easily see his weak points from the above table which he made of his own paper and he has promised to try hard if I give him a little individual help.

John S. Italian 2

	Points Assigned	Points Earned
1. Dictation	10	6½
2. Silent reading	5	5
3. Translation into English	10	10
4. Translation into Italian	10	6
5. Agreement of adjectives	10	10
6. Idioms	10	8
7. Future tense	10	2
8. Contractions of prepositions and articles	5	2
9. Past participles	5	2
10. Numbers	5	5
11. Comprehension	10	7
12. Fact Questions—Completion	10	8
	100	71

John wishes to raise his mark. He is going to college and must have an average of 75% or over. I have promised to give John more dictation and to review with him those grammatical points which do not seem clear to him. He has made a copy of his table and is keeping it for his own reference. The results should be interesting, and the mid-term examination has become a vital, useful test for him instead of something to be taken merely for "points."

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EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

National Survey of Secondary Education

THE most comprehensive and illuminating study of American secondary education ever made is now in process of publication," Dr. William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, declares in announcing a forthcoming series of 28 monographs of the National Survey of Secondary Education. Doctor Cooper directed the Survey.

Retrenchment in public school expenditures through changes in courses of study and similar modifications to meet the present economic emergency should be based upon these reports, points out Dr. Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education in the University of Chicago and Associate Director of the Survey, in announcing results of the three-year investigation.

"The investigators were primarily concerned with a study of the unusual practices of schools rather than their ordinary features," according to Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education in the Federal Office of Education, and coördinator of the survey.

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The Survey concentrated on five major fields: (1) The organization of secondary schools: (2) student personnel problems; (3) administrative and supervisory problems: (4) curriculum activities; and (5) extra-curricular activities.

Individual Differences

From a study of provisions for individual differences in 8,594 selected schools, the Survey findings on this phase of the inquiry disclose that comparatively few schools are making thorough provisions for individual differences. The investigation reveals that the problem of providing for individual differences grows more acute as the proportions of our population registering in our high schools increases.

In the study of individual differences in the selected schools, 28 provisions were noted. Provisions for individual differences are, in general, innovations. The five most frequently reported were: (1) Provision for variation in the number of subjects a pupil may carry; (2) special coaching of slow pupils; (3) use of the problem method; (4) differentiated assignments; and (5) advisory program for pupil guidance.

The report reduced the 28 provisions for individual differences to seven categories: Homogeneous grouping; special classes; plans characterized by the unit assignment; scientific study of problem cases; variation in pupil load; out-of-school projects and studies; and finally, advisory or guidance studies. The three provisions first mentioned are clearly considered the most important, and the major portion of the report is given to their discussion.

Guidance

A special phase of the Survey deals with guidance. The investigators state unequivocally that the character of modern education demands guidance. Changes in the social and economic order requiring adjustment make more significant the need of bringing counsel and guidance to boys and girls. Furthermore, the introduction of guidance is regarded necessary to prevent waste in the process of education.

The examination of various guidance programs revealed four outstanding types: (1) Centralized bureaus of guidance for secondary schools in city systems, represented in the study by Boston, Chicago, and Cincinnati; (2) city school systems with a central guidance organization but with the individual secondary school considered the unit in the program, represented by Providence and Milwaukee; (3) centralized bureaus or departments in individual secondary schools, represented by the Milwaukee Vocational School and the Township High School and Junior College, LaSalle, Illinois; (4) central guidance organizations in individual secondary schools which utilize regular officers and teachers as guidance functionaries, represented by the Joliet Township High School and Junior College, the Thornton Township High School, and the New Trier Township High School, all located in Illinois.

report gives case studies of guidance service in the 10 schools and systems just mentioned.

Subjects

The Survey reveals that the number of subjects offered in senior high schools and four-year high schools have consistently increased. The number offered in junior high schools has definitely decreased during the past decade. The percentage of pupils taking foreign languages and mathematics has decreased while the percentage of those taking commerce, physical education, and social studies has increased.

A study of the subjects presented for graduation from typical high schools between 1890 and 1930 discloses remarkable contrasts. In a certain Eastern high school more than 95 per cent of the subjects studied in 1890 were in the fields of foreign languages and mathematics. The percentage dropped to 58 in 1930. In a certain high school of the Middle West the parallel percentages were 55 and 53.

Libraries

Replies to inquiry forms were received from 390 schools reported to have outstanding library services; 44 schools were visited and the library facilities studied in great detail. It was found that more than five-sixths of the schools studied have the library housed in rooms used only for that purpose. Less than one-tenth of the schools have the library in the study hall. Librarians prefer to have the library housed separately; principals prefer to have the library housed in study halls or in rooms directly connected with study halls by doors or passageways. Pupils, the investigation reveals, use the library more often in those schools where it is readily accessible than in schools where it is housed separately.

Health and Physical Education

Physical education is required in almost all of 460 outstanding schools studied. In about a third of the schools either full-time or part-time directors of health are employed. Health examinations are common, but in many schools the follow-up work is not yet adequate. The schools reported 25 different kinds of health service which they render, chief of which are free immunization for pupils and free milk for malnourished pupils.

Athletics

From the study of athletics, the Survey found that "plainly the trend is not toward abandonment of interscholastic athletic activities, but rather toward readjustments in aims and emphasis." There is a pronounced tendency to coördinate physical education, health, and intramural athletics; to a lesser extent this tendency applies to interscholastic athletics.

Laws

The study of the legal and regulatory provisions affecting secondary education disclosed that there is need for their codification and simplifica-

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tion. As these laws now exist they represent a series of amendments, changes, and supplements in the form of piecemeal legislation over a period of many years. Legal tendencies are toward greater State control over secondary schools. While the legislature of each State has regarded secondary education a State function, the major responsibility for the support of education rests upon local school districts. More practical legislation is needed for the creation of larger local districts or units to control and support secondary schools. The present legislative schemes for larger districts through the reorganization of two or more districts have not been adequate to the needs of secondary schools.

This study, in addition, reveals that State requirements for attendance at secondary schools are moderately low in a majority of the States. Recent legislation, it is explained, tends to favor increased means for attendance at high schools already established rather than the establishment of more high schools.

Types of Organization

Study of the various types of organization points to four characteristics especially likely to contribute to comprehensiveness and consistency in secondary school organization. In order of their importance these characteristics are: (1) large enrollment, (2) the adoption of a form of grade combination which will free the school from a purely traditional mould, (3) close association of junior and senior units, and (4) the adop
tion of internal arrangements which
will insure treatment of the junio
and senior units as coördinate part
of the school. It was found by appli
cation of a scoring technique devel
oped by the Survey staff that average
scores of 3-3 junior-senior high schools
were higher than those of three-year
separate schools of equivalent enroll
ments in the junior and senior units
Junior-senior schools of more than
500 pupils as a class are better or
ganized than separate schools of the
same total enrollment. Undivided six-
year schools enrolling fewer than ap
proximately 250 pupils tend to be
less well organized than junior-senior
schools of equivalent size.

Two and four-year reorganized
schools are characterized by a high
degree of variability in their organi
zations. It was also found that even
outstanding elementary schools and
four-year high schools show marked
signs of being restricted in their or
ganization by certain conventional
standards and procedures. Through
out the study it was apparent that
individual schools within the different
groups showed great variability in
comprehensiveness and consistency of
their organizations.

In making comparisons among re
organized schools of various types it
was found necessary to compare
schools of approximately equivalent
sizes. It was found that the junior-
senior schools as a class scored higher
on both comprehensiveness and con
sistency of organization than did the
segregated junior and senior schools

The Same Small High School

Through the development of pupil transportation among the smaller secondary schools at public expense, significant progress has been made in bringing improved secondary-school opportunities to rural children. On the other hand, serious administrative and teaching problems appear in the smaller schools. One problem is the shortness of tenure and another the heavy teaching load in terms of the number of different subjects taught. It was found further that a considerable percentage of both principals and teachers receive unreasonably low salaries. Other findings reveal that the smaller secondary schools as a class are lacking in adequate space for athletic games and sports ordinarily carried on in high school, and that these schools are inadequately provided with special rooms for other than instructional purposes.

Negroes

In the study of secondary education for Negroes the investigation reveals the superiority of the large high school over the small one and of the reorganized school over the regular one in educational advantages. Of every thousand Negroes in our population, only 11 are enrolled in public high schools; while of every thousand white persons, 34 are registered in public high schools. There are approximately 159,000 Negroes of high-school age residing in 230 counties which offer no high-school facilities for Negroes.

Administrators

The phase of the Survey touching upon administration and supervision discloses that of the total number of staff members in State Departments of Education, 916, or about 32 per cent, are concerned chiefly with secondary education. Nearly half of them have masters' degrees and an additional 6 per cent hold doctors' degrees. Almost 80 per cent of the staff members report at least five years of college work. Their educational experience varies, but the median length of education service is 13 years. City superintendents and assistant superintendents hold advanced degrees more frequently than do other staff members. Superintendents and principals in the East appear to be least well prepared in terms of academic degrees earned. Education is reported as a major study most frequently in the Western States and least frequently in the East. Forty-four per cent of the superintendents and principals have earned bachelors' degrees only and have not obtained advanced degrees.

Their duties and functions differ greatly. After examining the responsibilities of superintendents for secondary education, members of the Survey staff state that there is need for a careful definition of the duties and functions of administrative and supervisory officers.

Selection of Teachers

Surveying selection and appointment of teachers, the specialists report

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that about 2 per cent of the Boards of Education or their committees appoint teachers without official participation by the superintendent. In 45 per cent of the cities the superintendent nominates or recommends, in 25 per cent he appoints, and in about 28 per cent there is a combinational method.

FINAL REPORT

The following nine monographs have already been published: "Instruction in English," "Instruction in Mathematics," "Instruction in Music and Art," "Instruction in Science," "Secondary-School Library," "Articulation of High School and College," "Health Work and Physical Education," "Research in Secondary Schools," and "Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics."

The complete list of 28 monographs reporting the National Survey of Secondary Education findings available from the Government Printing Office in Washington may be had on application to that office.

—*Release of the U. S. Office of Education.*

Requisites of Genuine Scholarship

Sir James Jeans, in his book "The Mysterious Universe," says that the final truth about a phenomenon resides in a mathematical description of it. Then he goes on to say that a mathematical formula can never tell us what a thing is, but only how it behaves; it can only specify an object through its properties. Therefore, I shall try to define genuine scholarship by describing its characteristics.

Scholarship is present when the individual possesses

(1) An unquenchable thirst for knowledge;

(2) An intelligent plan of action guided by a well-conceived purpose and controlled by a scientific technique;

(3) A permanent and continuous interest in a certain field of human endeavor;

(4) The habit of patient, painstaking, accurate work;

(5) The ability to synthesize the accumulated knowledge into generalizations which will stand the test of common sense and scientific verification;

(6) A knowledge of the other fields of human thought and a sympathetic interest in their strivings and achievements, coupled with a willingness to help the workers in other fields and be helped by them.

These characteristics of genuine scholarship are common to all students be they research scholars, teachers or pupils. As Dr. Livingston Farrand, President of Cornell University, has said, "To inquire with zest, to weigh with care, to judge with soundness and to act with vigor are the capacities which the world demands and the encouragement of which is the aim of education."

If my description of genuine scholarship be correct, we can next inquire under what conditions such scholarship can best be developed and flourish. Following are some of these requisites as they apply to any institution of learning:

(1) A quiet school where the tempo, though resolute, is nevertheless leisurely like the movement of a strong, deep stream. It may surprise and enlighten some of us to look up the origin of the word school. It is derived from the Greek work *schole*, meaning leisure.

(2) Teachers who are truly scholars. A teacher who possesses the attributes of scholarship as outlined above is bound to be a good teacher; his students are imbued with his zeal, his urbanity, his technique. His influence is like the gentle throwing of a pebble into a pond. It starts a series of shimmering ripples ever widening until they leave the dark, resistant, dull clay on the shore and transform it into life-giving foliage reaching up to heaven.

(3) An administration that serves and is subordinated to the ends of scholarship. Such an administration must not foist upon the teachers and students tawdry trivialities, tinsel tomfoolery, pedagogical mountebankery, Brummagem statistical legerdemain. "School administration does not exist for itself; it is only a means, not an end. Schools are maintained only for the giving of education, . . . School administration, therefore, exists only for the pupil, and its efficacy must be measured by the extent to which it contributes to teaching and learning; to teaching and learning it must always be a servant. It makes its largest contributions by providing efficient teachers and by furnishing them and their pupils with the proper tools and environment with which to work." (Reader: "The Fundamentals of Public School Administration," page 4.)

(4) Scholarship flourishes best where thought is untrammeled, where progressive methods prevail, where experiments generated by the students and teachers are given free rein and where the fullest measure of self-government is permitted. Individual initiative and individualized methods vitalize it; standardization and the crass methods of factory mass production destroy it. Centralization asphyxiates it, individualization makes it blossom like the rose. Let me end this paper by quoting a great teacher, St. Paul:

"Who also hath made us able ministers to the new testament; not of the letter but of the spirit, for the letter killeth but the spirit giveth life." II Corinthians, 3:6.

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Developing Personality

How can we teachers in the classroom develop the personality of our

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pupils through the formation of good habits, the stimulation of interests, the cultivation of tastes and the development of a sense of responsibility?

Watson concludes his "Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist" with this definition of personality: "Our personality is the result of what we start with and what we live through. It is the reaction mass as a whole. The largest component of the mass, if we are normal, consists of clean-cut definite habit systems, instincts that have yielded to social control and emotions which have been tempered and modified by the hard knocks received in the school of reality." Menninger says of a personality: "First, it is possessed of an inherited nucleus of physical and psychological potentialities. Just how much or how little this hereditary part is no one really knows; all we know is that it is less than we used to think. It is usually confined to physical structure, including brain patterns. Functional propensities are usually acquired rather than inherited." He goes on to say that whatever nucleus is inherited is soon acted upon by a great variety of powerful influences, training, teaching, examples of parents, reactions to brothers and sisters, climate, weather, architecture of home, food, fashions, school, church, newspapers, playmates, society in general, economic and social laws, accidents of life, illnesses, griefs, and so on. How much influence in the development of these can we as teachers exercise on the child with whom we have so little time contact?

Which habits contribute to definite personality? Here are a few that to me are desirable. When the child enters our classes, we tell him that we insist upon a certain definite routine in order to save the time and energy of the individuals. We insist upon regularity and punctuality, not because we are autocrats in the classroom, but because failure to be regular in punctuality and attendance means a loss to the pupil who is absent and tardy. The delinquent not only interrupts the work with his late arrival, but also retards our progress because we must wait for him to catch up. These habits of regularity and punctuality should be extended to his homework because failure to do each day's work daily reacts unfavorably on him when he finds himself with too much to make up at the end of the term. We insist on clean boards, floors, desks and written work because disorder confuses the mind. Our work is retarded by the confused mind. After these simple habits are formed, we advance to more complicated ones. We must help the child form the habit of organization. He must organize his time so that he can fit in all his work for the day. He must allot his time so that one subject does not suffer at the expense of another. He must then be aided to form the power of concentration. He should focus his attention on the subject at hand to the exclusion of everything else so that he may get the most in as short a time as possible. It may take him a long time to form the habit of concentration, but with perseverance he will acquire it.

This persevering is another necessary habit. Everything and anything can be accomplished if we know how to stick to the job. The habit of selection must be acquired. We may help him cultivate this habit, first, by making him pick the important thought from every sentence, then the important topic in every paragraph. From this he learns to select and arrange facts that formulate his theories on life. He learns to select his friends more intelligently. This selection keeps him from hasty judgments, which, incidently, leads to another habit, that of suspending judgment. But the child must be made to understand that no judgment is fair unless he forms the habits of understanding, tolerating, and sympathizing with the people upon whom judgment is to be passed. These habits will tend to make his personality more expansive.

Teachers, as a trained and cultured group, should develop personality by stimulating interests. In the first place, subject matter should be presented by people who are vitally interested in the subject. Children who enter a class with a determination to loathe a subject very often are converted to a love for that subject because of the interest exhibited by the teacher. The teacher should encourage the child to ask questions and to express himself freely. From this expression the teacher will get a clue to the child's interests. These interests of the child can be related to the subject matter which, though it is an old interest, may actually serve as a new one.

In our rooms important characters are discussed. We learn that the children admire men like Washington, Jefferson, Roosevelt, Lindbergh, Edison, Wright. They despise men like Benedict Arnold, Aaron Burr, Al Capone. They love the qualities of the first group. These qualities—fairness, open-mindedness, courage, strength, power—traits that make the inventor and the pioneer, all are constructive and tend to build up the world. The qualities of the second group—treason, cheating, lying, killing, law breaking — are destructive. Through proper direction, pupils may become interested in trying to become builders and not destroyers. These are new interests. Ask them questions of the day: "Why would you vote for Roosevelt if you had the vote? Why do you believe in Tammany Hall?" One child told me that she became so much interested in the political platforms that she read for hours forgetting that she was doing it for history homework. Show them that there are different points of view on the same subject. Send them out to bring you the authors of different lines of thought and you will find them coming back with books and points of view new to you. Listen to their words of wisdom and have regard for them. Take them seriously if they are not bluffing. Don't make decisions for them. Let them come armed with facts to support all sides. Let them draw their own conclusions. If you respect them, they will try to be worthy of your respect and go in for more knowledge. They will have acquired new interests which will make

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their personalities more capable of meeting the problems of the outside world.

How can we teachers develop personality by cultivating tastes? Most of our children come from homes, good and substantial, but not particularly cultured and advanced in taste. We must raise their standards in manners, speech, dress. We must help develop their taste for good literature, art, and plays. We must show them that lips discolored by too much rouge, scarlet nails, and low cut evening dresses for school are not the tastes of refined people. I have found that children respond constructively to a casual mention of the vulgarity of extremes. It is not wrong to rouge in moderation. Nor it is wrong to have well-kept nails. But in refined circles it is considered good form to be inconspicuous in makeup and dress. Emphasize the personality. They will note that refined people do not go to flashy extremes and in time they will imitate them. Of course we must not be disheartened because we cannot influence all our pupils, for we must remember that the sum total of all the other influences of their environment outweighs ours. However, we must stretch every effort to cultivate good tastes. We find that the various high school departments do their share. The English Department makes many readers turn from trash to cultural literature. The Art and Music Departments stimulate a better appreciation in painting and music. But I don't think sufficient time is given the latter departments. I cannot understand why schools do not run the good old-fash- ioned Spring and Christmas concert that Mr. Tracy gave every year at the Morris High School. I know that as students we were inspired by these entertainments which were regarded as the gala events of the year. In our tawdry atmosphere of the Coney Island Boardwalk, we have more to fight against than most schools. Schools should not sink to the depth of outside taste. On the contrary, they should serve as the stimulus that will raise the standards of the pupils. We should make more fuss over that small group of children who are keen in the appreciation of art, music, and literature. They will then be noticed and perhaps act as a stimulus to the others. From these stimuli may come imitation, which may result in the formation of good taste.

The most important step in the development of personality is to emphasize for the child the fact that he is a very important individual, a very important member of society. Just now his father is supporting him and his mother is making the home comfortable for him so that he may do his part of going to school successfully. That is his only responsibility now, and it must be well done so that he may prepare himself for his part in the affairs of the world. Everything in the next generation depends upon him and his fellow schoolmates. They are the next voters, the next officers, mechanics, tradesmen and professional men. Therefore, the school must be a reflection of the responsibility it must assume. If the school is known for its good scholarship, its fine behavior, its system of self-government, its preservation of school property, then the young people attending the school are being trained for responsibility as citizens.

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REVIEWS

A Charter For the Social Sciences In the Schools

Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part I. Drafted by Charles A. Beard. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932; 122 pages.

At last an attempt is being made to bring order into the chaos into which the teaching of the social studies seems to have fallen. As a culmination of several years of study, the Council of the American Historical Association appointed in 1928 a Commission of sixteen members to investigate the status of the social sciences in elementary and secondary schools throughout the nation. The Commission appointed a sub-committee to consider objectives. This "Charter" was drawn up by the sub-committee. The fact that such men as George S. Counts, Harold O. Rugg, and Charles A. Beard were involved in its preparation is sufficient indication that this book merits serious attention.

The "Charter" is an introductory volume to a series of at least twelve volumes which the Commission plans to publish by 1933. The "Charter", then, is a preamble, a declaration of faith, a statement of fundamental assumptions upon which all the subsequent reports will base their work. To Charles A. Beard was given the task of coördinating the findings of the Committee on objectives and the result is the "Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools."

It is difficult to over-estimate the importance of this little book. It aims to do for our generation what the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association did for the previous one, namely, to present a guiding set of principles that can serve as a common standard for administrators and teachers throughout the country. To escape from the outworn platitudes that preface every course of study, to redirect the energies of our schools, to give inspiration and purpose to the teachers of the social studies—this is the goal.

Does anyone question the need for light on the part of teachers of history, economics, and civics? It can safely be said that the post-war period has brought unprecedented confusion into these fields. Everywhere controversy is become more acute, certainty and complacency are giving place to doubt, old standards and institutions are being criticized and questioned. At a time when the creative energies of the world are feverishly seeking for a way out of its political and economic tangles, pity the teacher who is anx-

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ious to help but knows not what road to take!

The "Charter" attempts to point out the road that the teacher who wishes to join in the effort to make the desirable elements of our civilization more secure must take. At the outset, Professor Beard (we shall, for convenience, refer to him as the author) recognizes that there are three masters that the teacher of the social sciences must serve. They are (1) historical scholarships, (2) the realities of society, and (3) the requirements of the teaching and learning process. To neglect or minimize the importance of any one of these means that there will be certain failure. Can, however, the teacher serve all three faithfully? Suppose the community, which is our employer, asks us to sacrifice the truth as revealed to us by scholars? Professor Beard gives a concrete example of such a conflict of loyalties: "In some communities supposed to be enlightened, teachers are forbidden to discuss Russia without denouncing her form of government and system of economy."

To begin with, the "Charter" lays down the principle that the disinterested pursuit of truth, without reference "to the possible applications of his findings to practical affairs" should be an ever-present object of the teacher's allegiance.

But, to be successful, the teacher must effect a conciliation between the world of fact, opinion, and tradition of which he and his pupils are a part, and the data and conclusions of pure scholarship. Professor Beard states the case admirably when he says, "We do not live by the written word alone, nor derive from it all guidance in theory and conduct." Ideas must adjust themselves to the soil in which they seek to flourish.

What are the social realities that must shape civic instruction? First, we must recognize that the society in which we live and work is constantly changing. Secondly, in contrast with the civilization of the orient or mediaeval times, modern civilization is distinguished by being founded on science and machinery. Thirdly, we are formulating a program of social studies for pupils who some day are to participate in the government of the United States. Fourthly, American society is not isolated but operates on a world stage.

These four "social realities", if considered in their implications, have a vital effect on our teaching objectives. In view of the dynamic character of our society, we must recognize that some of our most cherished institutions; i.e., the family, are altering radically. It is, therefore, no longer desirable to teach dogmatism on such subjects. To quote: "In a fixed regime it is possible to establish duties, rights and responsibilities with a fair degree of definiteness, effective always everywhere; but in a changing society it is not only out of the question, but attempts to effect it are dangerous to orderly development." If adopted this attitude, alone, would revolutionize our system of education.

Our industrial civilization has made it a necessity that we give our pupils a capacity for adaptation. Routine skills and fixed ideas are no longer as useful as they were in an agricultural society. Our objectives must be based on a consideration that "the world into which our children are to be graduated, for which they are to be prepared, will be a world in which rationality, planning, and intelligent coöperation will have increasing sway in domestic affairs, industry, and government." Professor Beard more than hints that "rugged American individualism" is a doctrine to which our schools can give scant encouragement.

If our students are to be fitted for intelligent participation in democracy, they must know the realities of our government. The crucial question is: shall we discuss in class controversial subjects and air the problems that are being discussed in newspapers, forums, and magazines? Professor Beard's answer is unequivocal. We *must* discuss these questions if our instruction in citizenship is not to be limited to sterile abstraction. To quote again: "It would be better to ignore entirely the subject of government in social studies than to confine it to innocuous generalizations on which people agree in theory and disagree violently in practice." A conspiracy of silence in the classroom leaves our children helpless when they leave. The teacher must, of course, treat controversial subjects in an impartial and scientific spirit. It is futile to attempt to reach definite and final conclusions. Rather, the aim should be to instill a "wide knowledge of facts and a discipline in thinking."

The rapidly multiplying ties between the United States and the rest of the world bring new responsibilities to the teacher. The "Charter" holds that our whole tradition, coupled with our obligations under the Kellogg Peace Pact, is in the direction of the renunciation of war as a national policy. The teacher is obliged, then, "to create in the popular mind conditions favorable to the continuous realization of peace." One wonders how some of our patriotic societies will look upon this "obligation" of the teacher.

There are certain ideals that Professor Beard believes ought to be inculcated for the purpose of enabling the student to make conscious choices when the time comes. Some of these desirable ideals are: that poverty can and must be eliminated; that those who exploit society and return no compensation in service are enemies of society; that all are entitled to the fullest possible educational opportunity; that special privileges must be abolished; and that diverse opinions should be respected and tolerated. Under this program, all can find a place who wish to begin the task of reconstructing society in the schools.

Lastly, the teacher must perform the miracle of bringing the fruits of scholarship, social realities, and ideals directly to the student. The consideration of how this is to be done takes us into the field of pedagogy. Here Professor Beard recapitulates the concepts that have for some time been associated with modern teaching. "All

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instruction . . . must turn on the individual pupil"; we must aim to create "rich, many-sided personalities"; students should be made to realize the importance of the cultivation of independence of judgment. These aims are less novel to us and will probably encounter less opposition than other ideas in the "Charter."

In conclusion, it seems needless to plead for a wide audience for this book; the prestige of the American Historical Association and the personnel of the Commission which is directly responsible for it will undoubtedly attract much attention to it. The uniqueness of the "Charter" lies in the fact that it does not merely aim at giving the accepted or most universally used objectives as previous studies have done, but that it has attempted to set up new standards. Will it prove to be merely the aspirations of a small group of scholars and exceptional teachers, or will it be accepted as the much-needed revitalizing element in the teaching of social studies? The answer lies in the hands of administrators and teachers.

SAMUEL H. HALPERIN.

Manual Training High School.

Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth

By Bessie Louise Pierce. Part III: Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association. Scribners, 1933.

That the twenty-five million pupils in the public elementary and secondary schools of the nation should prove a tempting morsel to the hydra of propaganda is self-evident. The average citizen, however, has only vague notions about the extent to which certain groups with special axes to grind try to mold the mind of his child into a particular pattern. It remained for Miss Pierce to point out in this part of the Report of the Commission on Social Studies both the width and the depth of this penetrating propaganda.

Each of the eight component parts of the volume treats of the activities of a group of somewhat similar organization. Part One is devoted to "Educational and Civic Policies of Patriotic Organizations." Among these discussed here are the numerous post-war groups like the American Defense Society, Military Order of the World War, the United States Flag Association. These aim to save our youth from the snares of the radical, strive to teach the adult as well as the youth in the proper use of the flag, hope to equip every American home with it, and have as one of their objects the "arresting of citizenship deterioration of the American youth."

The next section of this part of the volume deals with the societies of the American Revolution. The Sons of the American Revolution, organized in 1889, as well as its numerically superior Daughters of the American Revolution founded the next year, devoted special attention to the content in history text-books. The "Sons" are alarmed at the point of view of Professor Faulkner because he believes that "students of history and international relations are practically unanimous in placing inflated patriotism and arrogant nationalism as among the chief elements in the development of war psychology and among the chief influences working today against the restoration of international good will and economic prosperity." They say that those who agree with him are "Wells, Trotzky, and our own Muzzey" (pp. 26-27). The "Daughters" are quite concerned about the patriotism of teachers and urge their members to "put loyal American men and women on our school boards." They "want no teachers who say there are two sides to every question, including even our system of government; who are more for their academic freedom of speech and opinion (co-called) than for their country." Within the prodigiously short period of five years of the establishment of these organizations, the society of "The Children of the American Revolution" was founded. This body for boys under 21 and girls under 18 devotes its energies to the celebration of the patriotic anniversaries and upon maturity the members join the "Sons" or the "Daughters."

The activities of the American Legion and Veterans of Foreign Wars conclude the first part of this interesting report. The former body, a bit skeptical about the history text-books, undertook to write one of its own which "would preach on every page a vivid love of America." In 1925 appeared its two-volume text, the first of which treats of the colonial period and the second of our history since 1789. The Veterans also condemn many text-books and find Hayes and Moon's "Modern History" as unfit for school use because it contains "subtle falsehoods designed to restore America into sentimental, spiritual and political subjection to Great Britain." All of these organizations get into the life of the schools by fostering essay and oratorical contests, distributing medals, flags and the like.

Part Two describes the propaganda of the military groups and the agitation they carry on for the establishment of military training in schools, the founding of R. O. T. C. units and the organization of Citizen Military Training Camps.

To offset this propaganda the various Peace organizations, like the National Council for the Prevention of War, the League of Nations Association, both of whose activities are narrated in Part Three, carry on an agitation of their own. Here also free literature, essay contests, poster contests and medals are the methods employed, although not so extensively, because speakers of these groups often "find the doors of the public buildings closed to them."

The propaganda of Fraternal Orders like "The Free Masons," the Order of DeMolay (open to Masons' sons between 16 and 21), the K. of C., the Junior Order of American Mechanics, is analyzed in Part Four. Here the story of contests, education days, special parades, demonstrations, requests that no foreign languages be permitted at public meetings, and the like is repeated. For her purpose, Miss Pierce considers the Klu Klux Klan as a fraternal order and describes its activities

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here.

The next part is set aside for the activities of racial and religious groups. To supplement the inadequate treatment in school texts of the rôle played by people of certain racial origins or religious affiliations, these groups publish literature often for free distribution in public and private schools.

The next fifty pages, comprising Part Six, are set aside for the portrayal of the youth movements in this country. Here space is found for the activities of the most obvious organizations like the Boy Scouts as well as those of the obscure Young Communist League. Throughout, the information is well documented and appropriately illustrated.

It is to be expected that the activities of the "vested interests" would find adequate representation in a study of this kind. The author has very appropriately reserved a whole part (Part Seven) for discussion of propaganda of business and labor groups. The place of honor here is occupied by the Public Utilities. The methods employed by these groups to revise text-books which they consider "bad," to influence publishers and authors to insert certain types of information, to exclude others, and to prejudice the youthful mind against public ownership or regulation makes choice reading. The Utilities did things in a big and thoroughly business-like way. Starting with the promise that many educators were "more or less hostile to big business, perhaps due to the fact that they themselves are not successful in a business way" (p. 251), their information committee spared little effort and apparently less money to educate the public as to the proper notion of the obligations of a community to its public utilities. The author deserves our appreciation for the fine way in which she presented this problem.

The concluding part of the text proper deals with the activities of the "Drys" like the Women's Christian Temperance Union and Anti-Saloon League, and some brief comments on the recent agitation of the "Wets" such as the Crusaders, The Women's Organization for Temperance Reform and so forth.

An interesting page appendix containing extracts from various documents and an exhaustive bibliography of fifty pages concludes this part (III) of the Report of the Social Studies

This volume is a valuable asset to social science literature. It is well organized and has an interesting style. However, one regrets that the author does not make any recommendations. We hope that this book, which has admirably presented the problem, will be followed by another that will attempt to suggest the way out. The author is undoubtedly well-equipped to do this.

EDWARD M. COHEN
Samuel J. Tilden High School

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions *should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper* 8½" by 11" *in size.* They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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SCHOOLING MORE NECESSARY TODAY

I WISH that all those who clamor for tax reduction could have opportunity to see what the nations of Europe went through during the last four years of war and how well they stood taxation for schools. I would that they might look back to our own previous depressions and see what communities have stood rather than let their children go without current schooling. I know at those times the average standard of living was not so high. People were not accustomed to certain comforts and luxuries which they now enjoy. Therefore today it seems harder to make sacrifices for schools. But let me call to your attention the fact that as a civilization increases in complexity schooling is more necessary than ever before. For people who lived in an agricultural stage when roads were poor and towns were small and far apart, less schooling was necessary. Literacy was the main requirement. People were born practically under the same conditions and into the same conditions in which their parents were born and would live most of their lives in those conditions.

But today we live in a complex civilization which it is necessary to understand in order to be adjusted to it. Schools are the means by which we accomplish this period of adjustment, and by schools I mean also kindergartens in our larger cities. Even today the schools are not complete. No one claims that a school completely adjusts the pupil to the surroundings in which he lives. It will be necessary for us to give more instruction time to natural science. There is no reason why certain lakes in one of our States should be closed during a most beautiful period of the year because of the plague of mosquitoes. Mosquitoes are creatures whose habits we all know well enough to exterminate if we went about it in the right way. Likewise there is no reason why a hundred people a year should be stricken down by the water moccasin snake in another State. These snakes could be exterminated if we set about it with a little energy. These are merely samples of things that we could do by the application of the fundamental principles in science. They are needed every day.

Moreover, we will have to place much more emphasis on the teachings of mental hygiene not only to adjust people who are normal to their environments, but in order that we may more readily teach them such subjects as good citizenship and good character.

As we come to the end of another school year, I commend the school people of the United States for their service and sacrifice in helping to keep open our institutions of learning, and in helping to maintain our Nation's high standards of education reached only by hard work over long periods of time. Next school year will call for continued sacrifice, but I know that our teachers and our school administrators will carry on courageously, as they have in the past.

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER

When United States Commissioner of Education.

In **School Life** for June, 1933.

ADULT EDUCATION AT DeWITT CLINTON

THE movement for adult education is still in its infancy. Many agencies, both public and private, are engaged in its service. These endeavor to reach into the home and the factory, the farm and the urban community. The opportunities which they offer are so varied and multifarious that to name them would exceed the limits of this article. In the City of New York, the Board of Education offers many courses for adults. Many of these are vocational in character or of an academic grade intended for credit to meet the requirements of a high school diploma. Necessarily, those who apply for such courses are limited in number. They constitute the group that seeks advanced education toward a definite occupational or professional end. The lecture service which is offered by many agencies serves an important function. The lectures appeal to those who are sincerely interested in them for their cultural aspects, or who seek in them an answer to the many perplexing questions which may have caused mental or emotional disturbances. The lecturers are usually specialists, but rarely educators. They place all their audiences on the same intellectual plane and thus often fail in effectiveness.

In facing the problem of educating adults, we must bear in mind that there are many thousands with meager or no educational backgrounds. Some, under stress of occupational and home requirements, have long since forgotten the subjects of their academic days. Others have tried, with the passing years, to keep abreast of the times through the press and periodical literature. The many changes which have been wrought in the home have resulted in an economy of effort and have secured for the housewife a great amount of leisure. A shorter working day is inevitable, and this will give increased leisure to the workers in office and factory. The need for the intelligent direction of this leisure time is already challenging the attention of educators and others who are interested in the social, intellectual, artistic, and economic lives of the masses, as well as of those who are seeking means for the exploitation of this leisure.

To enlarge further on the need for concrete planning to direct intelligently and effectively the non-working hours of the masses is beyond our present purpose. The changes that have taken place in our schools during the past twenty-five years, the many new subjects that have been introduced, the enriched content of the present curricula, and the newer methods of presentation have given to the younger generation knowledge and points of view beyond the ken or comprehension of many elders. With the onset of adolescence, the ties that bind boys and girls to their parents are

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weakened, and they can only be strengthened through mutual respect and understanding. Where parents cannot meet their children on at least the same intellectual level, there is sure to arise a breach which will inevitably widen with the years and result in the loss of that love, respect, and candor which parents cherish. The home is the place where mutual tastes should be developed, where mutual understanding is essential as the basis for happiness. Where this is lacking, there is no real home life. The home becomes the place of occasional meetings, prompted by necessity and not by intent. True, the amenities of family ties are respected, but the younger folk seek their companionship outside of the home. They have no problems which they can discuss with their parents who live in worlds apart from those of their sons and daughters.

While the picture thus painted may appear an exaggeration, thoughtful consideration will offer ample proof to support it. The teacher who has had years of experience with children of all ages and types knows that the lack of understanding by parents of the life and the needs of the young folks of our present generation is at the root of many of our educational problems.

We do not propose to suggest remedies for the solution of the ills of our social, economic, or educational order. We do feel that much must be done to create an awakened citizenship, to arouse parents to realize that, regardless of their educational antecedents, they must keep on learning to be able to keep abreast of their children, to participate in their discussions, to invite their confidences, and to help them to solve their problems. Through the wise use of the leisure that many parents now possess, they can keep informed regarding modern thought on contemporary problems. They can acquire or improve the cultural background that is necessary for harmonious living both in the home and in the society of those with whom they spend some of their leisure. In this way, they will be enabled to "bridge the gap" and draw closer to their children to the lasting benefit of both.

It was with the hope that he could contribute to the solution of the problem of adult education that the writer projected the Institute for Adult Education at DeWitt Clinton High School. It was his desire to divert the afternoon activities of the mothers of the students of DeWitt Clinton, to furnish them with an inexpensive outlet for some of their leisure time, to create a better understanding of the school and its problems, and to bring them closer to their sons.

The plan for the proposed experiment in adult education by a day high school met with the hearty approval and endorsement of A. Mortimer Clark, Principal of DeWitt Clinton High School, and of Dr. Harold G. Campbell, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, in charge of the high schools of New York City. It was also received with enthusiasm by many members of the Parent-Teachers' Association of DeWitt Clinton High School

of which the writer has been the corresponding secretary and faculty liaison officer for the past three years. It was his hope that the Institute for Adult Education would also become an agency that would bring parents to the school, and that the contacts thus established would create a greater interest in the school and its problems, and point the need for home coöperation with the school and its agencies.

In a carefully worded notice which the writer addressed to the faculty of DeWitt Clinton High School, the plan for the Institute for Adult Education was carefully outlined, and an appeal was made for a staff of volunteer instructors to give some or all of the cultural courses which the writer had projected. The prompt response exceeded the expectations of those who waited for the outcome. Many more volunteered than could possibly be needed in this initial stage of the experiment. A careful selection was made both of the faculty and the courses, and in February, 1932, the Institute for Adult Education of the DeWitt Clinton High School was definitely launched with the writer as its organizer and first director.

It was deemed advisable to limit the experiment to a dozen courses. These included Art Appreciation, Appreciation of Fine Prints, English and American Poets, The Story of the Novel, Modern German Literature and Culture, The Appreciation of Music, Important Movements in American History since the Civil War, Contemporary Problems in World Economics, Problems of Science in the Home, Psychology, Problems of Adolescence, Health Education for Women, and Hispanic Literature and Culture.

Under the caption, "Why Stop Learning?" a mimeographed outline of the plan and a prospectus of the courses were sent to the parents of those students who were to enter DeWitt Clinton in February, 1932, and to the members of the Parent-Teachers' Association which permitted the use of its files. There were 237 women, most of them mothers, who registered during the term for an aggregate of over 400 unit hours. Their interests centered largely in psychology, economics, history, music and art appreciation, the contemporary novel, and health education. Because of the limited size of the classrooms, many could not be registered who arrived late or who wanted the most popular courses.

The exigencies of school conditions and an appreciation of home and other problems determined the selection of the days and the hours for the sessions of the Institute for Adult Education. Wednesday and Friday were fixed as the days on which the classes were to meet, and the hour was set from 3:30 to 4:30 P. M. Each course was limited to fifteen one-hour sessions to be held either on Wednesday or Friday during a single school term. This arrangement has since been modified to permit the extension of some subjects over an entire year of thirty sessions.

The first sessions of the Institute for Adult Education were held on

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was, indeed, an eventful day. An interested and eager band of women, ranging from twenty-one to sixty years of age, trooped into the corridors of DeWitt Clinton High School long before the hour scheduled for the sessions. Their enthusiasm was contagious, and it fired the imaginations of the members of the faculty who had awaited their coming. The careful preparation and the painstaking effort which this small band of teachers put into their work showed that they recognized the import of their pioneer efforts to the cause of adult education and to the fair name of DeWitt Clinton High School, the largest public high school in the world, whose archives are replete with records of accomplishments. The faculty had volunteered to serve without thought of compensation or reward other than that which comes from the satisfaction of having contributed something to the advancement of the interests of one's fellows and of bringing into the lives of others a little of the knowledge and the culture which it was their more fortunate lot to possess. Such men and women cannot fail.

Those who sat in the classrooms presented an interesting picture. A young woman who had left her baby at home to be cared for by another sat beside her mother—the one eager to learn how to bring up her child in an atmosphere of love and understanding that would bind them closer to each other in the years to come, and the other sensing the futility of the years before her, but still hoping to bring into them some sunshine through the useful occupation of her leisure which the Institute for Adult Education seemed to offer her. Differences of age, race, and creed were forgotten and ignored as the upturned faces awaited the moment that was to herald for most of them the dawning of a new day.

The educational backgrounds of these women were equally as varied. Of the foreign born, many had received some schooling abroad but little or none in the United States. The American born showed equal variations. Those of the older generation had either not completed an elementary school course, or had had a year or two of high school work, or had even spent some time in college. The younger women had had more schooling but were seeking in the Institute for Adult Education an opportunity to continue their studies in fields which their new responsibilities as mothers and housewives made desirable, or which maturer tastes deemed necessary.

The lecture method of presentation was decided upon as the most suitable for our purpose and for the people who came to us. Whenever possible, the lectures were supplemented by demonstrations, illustration, and discussion. The suitability of the lecture method early became apparent, for it gave to the diffident what they wanted and prevented the more forward from monopolizing the period to the discomfiture of the others. Discussion was limited to the end of the period,

and this arrangement made each lecture a completed unit. Class discussion revealed the reactions of the individuals to the material presented and added illustration from the personal contributions of the group. Thus two objectives were served: the imparting of information, and the interpreting of knowledge. It remains for time to accomplish a third objective which will lead to the dynamic application in the home and in the community of those ideas which come from an awakened and enlightened consciousness of the part the individual must play in the society in which he lives.

The Institute for Adult Education is no longer an experiment. Its success became apparent from its very inception. It "caught on" from the very start and has retained its hold on the imaginations of those who came to it. At the closing exercises in June, 1932, more than 150 certificates were distributed for satisfactory completion of the courses which were offered during the first semester. In September 1932, 543 men and women were registered for over 800 aggregate unit hours in twenty courses which covered literature, psychology, science, language, current events, economics, music appreciation, art appreciation, creative art, and health education. To these were added in February, 1933, a course in public speaking and another in the appreciation of the drama. The registration increased during the third semester to 718 for a total of over 1,000 unit hours. While no restrictions were placed upon applicants, only four men were registered for the second and third semesters. Other men who came were interested in vocational courses or such as would give them credits to meet the requirements for college entrance. These were directed to suitable channels.

The success of the Institute for Adult Education at DeWitt Clinton High School points the way to some very evident conclusions. It has sounded the interests of the many whose leisure hours fall during the afternoon and has secured an ever increasing response during the three semesters of its existence. It has discovered that there is need for educational opportunities for this class of adults whose influence reaches into the home where the contacts with the younger generations are closest. From the very nature of their lives and the occupations of their leisure time, this class can exert a far-reaching influence. Nor was the demand for the courses confined to residents in the vicinity of the school. It was far from local. Those who registered came from four of the five boroughs of our greater city. Many came from suburban sections within a radius of thirty miles from DeWitt Clinton High School. Inasmuch as the Institute for Adult Education must limit its offerings to those courses which the faculty of DeWitt Clinton High School is best prepared to give, it could not meet the requirements nor the wishes of all applicants, nor could it accept all who applied because of classroom limitations. This situation was partly

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remedied in February, 1933, through the use of lecture halls which made possible the registration of 150 in Current Events in an American History Background, 80 in Music Appreciation, 75 in Abnormal Psychology of Adolescence, 70 in Great Masters of World Literatures, and 76 in The Appreciation of the Drama. In fifteen other classes, the registration ranged from 16 to 45, the latter figure exceeding the seating capacity of the classroom.

The experience of DeWitt Clinton High School shows definitely that there are many who would come to the day high schools of the City of New York if the faculties of these schools were to offer cultural, vocational, or industrial courses for adults. These courses would have to be offered in the afternoon, both to economize the time of the teacher and to avoid encroaching upon the hours needed for family duties and home life. There is no room for doubt regarding the practicability of this proposal. There are in the high schools many high minded and public spirited teachers whose eyes are focussed ever on the service it is their privilege to render. These would welcome the opportunity as did the faculty of DeWitt Clinton High School. Institutes thus established would become more local in character, they would serve to bring the school and the home into closer relationship, create a more wholesome regard for education and learning through intelligent treatment and discussion of important questions and problems, point the way towards a wider and better use of leisure, and sow the seeds for an enlightened and active citizenship.

This account of the conception and organization of the Institute for Adult Education of DeWitt Clinton High School would be incomplete were the writer to fail to express his appreciation of the efforts of the many who coöperated in launching this, the first agency of its kind in a New York City high school, and who have labored with him in its service. Without the hearty coöperation of the faculty, the Institute for Adult Education could not have been started; without them, it cannot continue. To A. Mortimer Clark, Principal of DeWitt Clinton High School, the writer owes a special debt of gratitude. His encouragement, his understanding, and his unfailing sympathy in those moments along the way when discouragement threatened the fate of the Institute, served to imbue the organizer with a new hope and the desire to "carry on" and bring his idea to fruition. There are no dark clouds hovering over the Institute for Adult Education now. Its continuance is now assured, and it has opened its lists this fall with a larger complement of courses and every assurance of an increased registration.

S. Alexander Shear,
Organizer and Director of the
Institute for Adult Education,
DeWitt Clinton High School.

AN EXPERIMENTAL CLASS IN MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY

One of the major difficulties confronting the teacher of history is the failure of some students to perceive the continuity of history, to realize that the aspirations, failures and achievements of the past not only influence the present, but also shed a beacon light upon the possible solutions for issues that face the voters of both today and tomorrow. To some high school students, the textbook assumes the awful proportions of a labyrinthic jungle of facts which ominously challenge the mental digestive system. An attitude of passive resistance to the study of history, which is manifested by some, is frequently the outward manifestation of an inner sluggish feeling towards the subject, resulting from an uninteresting presentation on the part of either text-book or teacher.

During the spring term of 1932, an experimental class in the first term of Modern European History was conducted at the James Monroe High School. The principal objective was to study the historical background of current world problems in their social, political and economic phases so that the student would secure a more intelligent understanding of the present as reflected in the historical perspective of past events. The development of an active intellectual curiosity accompanied by an open-minded, yet critically tolerant spirit of inquiry into the background of major aspects of international affairs, was a primary goal. Stress was placed upon the importance of suspended judgment in forming judicious attitudes predicated upon the knowledge of the relevant facts and tempered by an unbiased attempt to evaluate the reliability of conflicting source material.

The chairman of the Department of Social Studies, Mr. Martin L. Wilson, gave the instructor complete freedom in the preparation of an enriched course of study for this class (see Exhibit A) as well as a special uniform examination (see Exhibit B). Throughout the term, the class studied topics of current interest as found in the daily columns of the *New York Times* and the *Herald-Tribune*, with special emphasis being given to those factors of the 18th and 19th centuries which shed some light of comparison, contrast or causal relation upon the dynamic aspects of the 20th century world of today.

An example of the mode of procedure followed is to be found in the topic "Progress in Disarmament, 1800-1932", which was studied at the opening of the term, thus coinciding with the simultaneous meeting of the World Disarmament Conference at Geneva February 2, 1932 (see Exhibit C). Other topics which were considered during the term were: (a) The Sino-Japanese Conflict in

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Manchuria; (b) The German Presidential Election of 1932; (c) The Danger in the problem of the Polish Corridor; (d) French presidential election procedure (studied after the assassination of President Doumer, May, 1932); (e) Attempts to balance the United States budget; and (f) World-wide efforts to cope with unemployment. The bulletins and fortnightly reports of the Foreign Policy Association of New York, directed by Mr. James G. McDonald, were found to be invaluable in presenting enlightening interpretations of world history in the making.

Despite this orientation, the customary topics of European history for the period 1789 to 1871, as provided in the syllabus, were woven into the fabric of the term's work. The class was composed for the most part of fifth-term general and commercial and honor school pupils (students whose general average of final marks in major subjects the preceding term was 75% or over). They evinced generally a wholesome, coöperative interest in their work and many sought opportunities to render special oral reports to the class based upon voluntary supplementary readings. A few, however, required special guidance after school in the preparation of their lessons. Daily homework assignments were given, usually in the form of topics with a series of guiding questions for each unit (see Exhibit C). Preparation necessitated reading a newspaper as mentioned above. Occasionally, no definite page assignments or source material were given in order to encourage the students to familiarize themselves with the use of index, table of contents, library catalogue, reference files, current periodicals, and so forth.

The classroom discussions attempted to reach the objective so well expressed by Dr. John L. Tildsley in his "A Challenge to the Teachers," in the following words: . . . "open-mindedness marked by freedom from bias, built up on the realization that every one has something large or small in his experience that is worth-while to another and producing not merely a willingness but a sympathetic eagerness to get the other person's point of view and as conditioning the realization of this quest, a willingness to credit him with honesty of conviction resulting in the power and habit of finding the best in other people."

In the light of experience, the following suggestions are offered: (1) Experimental classes should be composed of more homogeneous groups, i.e., the entire class should be composed of general course pupils exclusively or commercial pupils exclusively; (2) A special experimental class should be formed for commercial pupils who plan to study only one term of European history; (3) The maximum register should not exceed 30; (4) A special library cabinet containing current periodicals, atlases, special reference and recent books should be installed in the room of the experimental class; (5) Experimental classes are more adapted to the interests and abilities of general course pupils; (6) For average pupils, experimental classes should be formed in the second term rather than in the first term of history, since the average pupil will be in a better position to grasp and comprehend the significance of current events and problems after he has obtained a background of European history during the preceding term.

EXHIBIT A (Abridged)

TENTATIVE LIST OF TOPICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL EUROPEAN HISTORY

(ONE YEAR)

(Sequence of topics will depend upon current world problems considered during class discussions.)

I. Permanent Contributions and Influence of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era upon modern civilization.
   - A. French Revolution (1789-1799).
     1. Causes: Evils of old régime; spirit of reform, etc.
     2. Results in France: Social, economic and political.
     3. Influence on Europe: Immediate and future.
   - B. The Napoleonic Era (1799-1815).
     1. Napoleon's attitude towards principles of French Revolution.
     2. Reforms in France; influence in Europe.
     3. Causes for his downfall; appraisal of his career.

II. Map of Europe Today Compared with Europe of 1815.
   - A. Reasons for changes since the era of Metternich.

III. The Industrial Revolution and the Labor Movement.
   - A. Significance and historical continuity of the Industrial Revolution.
   - B. Emphasis upon social, economic and political results.
   - C. Factor in development of economic imperialism.
   - D. Growth of Labor Legislation throughout the world.
   - E. Technological unemployment; proposed remedies.
     1. Dole payments in operation (England, Germany).

IV. Extension of Democracy.
   - A. Contrast between evolutionary vs. revolutionary processes.
   - B. Extension of suffrage; English reform bills 1832-1928; other nations; Parliament Act of 1911, etc.
   - C. Comparison of British cabinet system with congressional type.
   - D. Influence of the World War.
     1. Extension of democracy.
     2. Reaction in rise of dictatorships.

V. Nationalism: unifying and disruptive force.
   - A. Revolutionary movements of 19th century (1830-1848).
   - B. Unification of Italy and Germany.
   - C. Disintegration of Austro-Hungarian, Russian and Turkish Empires.

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D. The Near Eastern Question; 19th and 20th centuries.
E. Nationalist Movements; India, China, Germany, etc.
F. Dangers inherent in aggressive, exaggerated nationalism.

VI. Problems in the Far East.
A. The awakening of China and the westernization of Japan.
B. Relations with Occidental powers; Asiatic imperialism.
C. Japan as a world power; Chinese nationalism; Manchuria.

VII. Imperialism.
A. Imperialistic motives; examples; types of interest.
B. Partition of Africa and Asiatic spheres of influence.
C. Effect of World War; mandate system (coördinate with III, V and VI).

VIII. The World War and Its Aftermath.
A. Causes of the World War.
1. Distinction between fundamental and immediate causes.
(a) International anarchy; militarism; nationalism; imperialism; alliances.
2. Modern concept of relative, divided responsibility compared with "sole guilt clause". (Article 231, Versailles).
(a) Study in the efficacy of war-time propaganda.
B. Results of the World War; political, economic, territorial, social, etc.

IX. The International Peace Movement.
A. Early efforts; Greeks; Pax Romana; medieval "truce of God"; Grotius; Quakers; Kant; Holy Alliance; "Concert of Europe."
B. Before 1914; arbitration; Hague Peace Conferences, 1899, 1907.
C. "Liquidating the war and implementing the peace."
1. League of Nations; World Court; Locarno treaties; the Kellogg-Briand Pact of Paris.
D. Disarmament; Washington (1921-22); Geneva (1927); London (1930); World Disarmament Conference 1932-1933.
E. Reparations; 1919; 1921; Dawes Plan; Young Plan; Lausanne, 1932.
F. Attitude of United States on (a) Implementing the Kellogg Pact; (b) Membership in World Court; (c) Disarmament.
G. War or Peace in the Far East; a test for peace machinery.

X. Revision of the Treaty of Versailles; Danger Zones in Europe.

XI. Evolution of the British Commonwealth of Nations.
A. From Empire to Commonwealth plus Empire.

XII. Progress of Civilization; Social Developments.
A. Developments in Science, Art and Literature; unsung heroes of peace.
B. Emancipation of Women; social, economic and political.
C. Growth of Public Education.
D. Relations of Church and State; Italy, France, Russia, Turkey and Spain.
1. Growth of tolerance.

XIII. The World as an Economic Unit; interdependence of nations.
A. World-wide scope of Industrial Revolution (topic III).
B. Reasons for England's reversal of traditional free trade.
C. Factors contributing to world-wide business depression.
1. The rôle of economic nationalism, etc.
D. Significance of "Planned Economy": Russia's 5-Year Plan.
E. Recent proposals for adjustment of reparations and Allied war debts owed to the United States (Hoover moratorium).
F. Specific examples of how conditions in other parts of the world affects the United States.

XIV. Opportunities and Obligations of World Leadership for the United States.
A. Problems confronting the World Monetary and Economic Conference (1933).

EXHIBIT B (May, 1932)

I. Name and locate on the accompanying map of Europe:
1. The city which is the headquarters of the League of Nations.
2. The capital of the nation which is following the Five-Year Plan.
3. The capital of the nation which became a republic in 1931.
4. The Polish Corridor.
5. The capital of the nation which adopted a protective tariff policy in 1932, thus abandoning free trade policy.

II. "The world has witnessed progress in the limitation of armaments since 1918."
A. Compare the Washington Conference (1921-22) with the London Naval Conference of 1930, by giving (in tabular form):
1. Accomplishments of each conference.
2. Unsolved problems of each conference.
B. Mention two difficulties which face the statsemen now meeting at the World Disarmament Conference at Geneva.

III. State five contrasts between France before the Revolution of 1789 and France today. In-

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clude political, social and economic contrasts.

IV. Below are four groups of related topics. Show the connection between the items in each group:
   (a) Industrial Revolution and Dole Payments.
   (b) Industrial Revolution in England and the downfall of Napoleon Bonaparte.
   (c) Social Contract and the French Revolution.
   (d) Industrial Revolution and Protective Tariffs.

V. Prove that the Monroe Doctrine interfered with the plans of Metternich and the "Concert of Europe."

VI. (a) Mention three outstanding events in the history of Polish nationalism during the period 1772 to 1932.
   (b) Why is the Polish Corridor a danger to the peace of Europe today?

VII. Show why three arrangements made at the Congress of Vienna (1815) were overthrown or changed by later events of the 19th or 20th centuries. Indicate the nature of each change.

VIII. Mention one important historical fact connected with ten of the following:
   (a) Montesquieu
   (b) Hitler
   (c) Karl Marx
   (d) Gandhi
   (e) Seabury
   (f) Stimson
   (g) Kossuth
   (h) De Valera
   (i) Stalin
   (j) Goethe
   (k) Shanghai
   (l) Von Hindenburg

EXHIBIT C

Progress In World Disarmament

An outline of questions for study and discussion.

I. Introduction:
   A. The problem of reducing armaments is of vital interest to every citizen.
      1. World expenditure of over $4,500,000,000 for armaments in 1931 (a year of peace) of which the United States spent over $725,000,000.
      2. Over two-thirds of money spent by the U. S. Government during the first nine months of the fiscal year of 1931 was devoted to "present military purposes and to pay the bills of past wars". (The amount was $2,124,737,000 out of total expenditure for all purposes of $3,126,540,000.)
   B. Preview of the 1932 World Disarmament Conference.
      1. What are the objectives of the Disarmament Conference now meeting in Geneva?
      2. Why do nations maintain large armies and navies in time of peace?
      3. What undesirable results arise from international rivalry in armaments?
      4. How may the members of your family be affected indirectly by the success or the failure of the present conference?

II. Historical Background (before 1914).
   A. Survey of the 19th century.
      1. How did Napoleon make use of the French military conscription law of 1798?
      2. Why did Prussia adopt compulsory military service after Napoleon's victory at Jena (1806)?
      3. Why did other continental European nations adopt military conscription after 1870?
      4. Why did England rely upon a small standing army without the use of conscription?
      5. Why did Anglo-German naval rivalry develop about 1900?
   B. The Hague Peace Conferences of 1899 and 1907.
      1. Explain reasons for the failure of these conferences to limit armaments.
      2. Would you consider them a total failure? Why?
   C. Europe in 1914.
      1. Why was Europe called an "Armed Camp" before August 1914?
      2. Do you agree with the statement, "A nation with strong armaments will remain at peace since it is thereby insured against war?" Justify your answer by referring to historical facts.

III. Steps in the Evolution of Disarmament.
   A. The Treaty of Versailles (1919).
      1. What limitations were placed upon the German army and navy? Why?
      2. Why was the term of voluntary enlistment in the German army extended to 12 years by the Treaty of Versailles?
      3. What pledge regarding disarmament are the members of the League of Nations obligated to carry out? (See article 8 of the League Covenant and one of Wilson's 14 Points, 1918.)
   B. The Washington Conference on Limitation of Armaments (1921-22).
      1. What were the major purposes of President Harding for calling this conference?
      2. What was the significance of the 10-year naval holiday?
      3. What agreement was made concerning battleship ratios in the 5-Power Naval Treaty?
      4. Why was Great Britain willing to grant the Uni-

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ted States naval parity (equality) in battleship tonnage? (Distinguish between capital ships and auxiliary vessels.)

5. Why were France and Italy willing to accept small ratios in capital ships?
6. Why was Germany absent from the Washington Conference?
7. What types of armament were not limited? Why?
8. How did the termination of the Anglo-Japanese alliance increase mutual friendship among the United States, Great Britain and Japan? What agreement replaced it?
9. Why were Japan and China more friendly in 1922 than they had been in 1919? (Refer to 9-Power and Shantung treaties.)

C. The Geneva Conference of 1927.

1. What unfinished work of the Washington Conference did the 1927 Geneva Conference attempt to complete?
2. Why were the United States and Great Britain unable to agree?
3. Which nations declined President Coolidge's invitation to attend?

D. The London Naval Conference of 1930.

1. Why did Ramsay MacDonald, British Prime Minister, visit President Hoover in 1929?
2. Which nations attended the London Conference? (Compare with Geneva 1927 conference.)
3. What agreements of the Washington Conference were extended? Why?
4. What agreement was reached in the 3-Power Naval Treaty affecting the United States, Great Britain and Japan?
5. What obstacle prevented the making of the proposed 5-Power treaty?
6. Why did Italy demand the right of naval parity with France in cruisers despite Italy's financial inability to construct enough cruisers to actually achieve such parity?
7. How did France justify her stand in this matter?
8. Why did the United States decline to enter into a "consultative pact" with France providing for international consultation in the event that France were attacked in the future?
9. Why did the British reserve the right to exceed the naval ratio limits set in the 3-Power Treaty? (Escalator clause.)

10. What agreements were made regarding submarine warfare? Why?

E. The 1932 World Disarmament Conference at Geneva

1. How do the objects of this conference differ from those of previous disarmament conferences?
2. Why do nations continue to maintain substantial armies and navies despite the fact that 58 nations, by signing the Kellogg-Briand Pact of Paris, have renounced war as an instrument of national policy?
3. Why do continental European nations place greater reliance upon armies and air forces than upon naval strength?
4. What do the French mean by their willingness to reduce armaments in return for "additional guarantees of security"?
5. What effect do German demands for revision of the Treaty of Versailles and reparations have upon the French attitude on disarmament?
6. What connection is there between the world-wide depression and demands for armament reduction?
7. Why do some demand the total abolition of (a) battleships, (b) submarines?
8. What international machinery for the peaceful settlement of international disputes exists today which did not exist when the World War broke out?
9. What are the outstanding obstacles to disarmament today?
10. Why do many scientists predict the end of modern civilization in the event of another world war?
11. Why do many feel that the success of this conference depends in part upon the outcome of the present Sino-Japanese crisis?
12. What is your opinion of the French proposal for the creation of an international military police force under the control of the League of Nations? (See newspapers for Tardieu proposal of February 6, 1932.)
13. What would probably be the attitude of the United States Government towards this plan?
14. Why is the fate of civilization partly dependent upon continued progress in disarmament?

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B. Disarmament:
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2. Page, K.: *National Defense* (*Part III*).
3. Wilson and Cohen: *Current American History*, pp. 96-99; 103-109.
4. Current History (magazine), February, 1932, pp. 629-637; also subsequent monthly issues.
5. Daily newspapers since February 2 for current developments.

C. Radio Broadcasts:
1. International re-broadcasts from Geneva:
   WABC Sunday at 12 M.; Wednesday, 6 P. M.
2. Disarmament News: WEAF Saturday, 6:30 P. M.
3. Consult newspaper radio columns for special broadcasts.

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THE PROJECT DEVELOPMENT OF ELECTRICITY AND RADIO IN AN ADVANCED PHYSICS COURSE

AS teachers, we all like to see pupils busily at work, intent on making their job a good one. The laboratory work in elementary physics allows the pupils to work with the things they are studying about, to some degree, and is mostly of a formal nature. But here we wish to write about what the pupils can do and have done when conditions permit a wider opportunity for student activity and constructive work. Although these opportunities are mostly offered in an advanced physics course, some of the projects mentioned, where possible to include them, will fit effectively into elementary work.

About five years ago, a one-term course in Advanced Physics was introduced by our head of department, Mr. H. E. Behnken. It offered opportunity for growth in physical science to all students, and particularly filled a decided need in answering the demand by gifted students for material suitable to their abilities. The importance of this need is stressed in the report of the First Assistant's Association Committee (see note 1 below), which states: "Growth in physical science is chiefly made through contact with scientific apparatus and inspiring, sympathetic teachers". Passing rapidly over the second half of the quotation, we heartily agree with the point made in the first half. The physics teachers have been allowed a wide latitude in developing suitable material for this course, and, as a result, there has been a continuous development of varied projects. We have found the project method particularly suited for this work as it gives the student a real understanding of the function of apparatus through actual use. There are individual jobs to allow for personal initiative and group projects for training in working together.

Although projects can be drawn from any division of physics, we are listing here the projects in electricity and radio as a *nucleus*, as we have found these topics to fit in best with the apparatus available and the natural student interest. The course, built around this nucleus, may very well, and in our case, does, include associated topics from the other fields, in particular, Light, Heat, Sound, and a project in recognition of the much-neglected field of Popular Astronomy. To illustrate: in connection with the topic "Conduction (of electricity) through gases", we associate spectroscopic observation of the gases used.

The list, given below in outline form, is to be regarded, then, as suggestions from which to draw projects in electricity, and to which to add projects from other fields—according to particular conditions. Where hints given are not enough detailed, the authors may be consulted. The list is divided into 11 suggested projects, 8 demonstrations and 7 optional additions.

OUTLINE OF PROJECT DEVELOPMENT OF ELECTRICITY AND RADIO

Conduction through solids

Projects

1. *Measurement of Resistance* (using 3 methods: Voltmeter-ammeter, Ohmmeter circuit, and Wheatstone bridge. Suitability of methods for hot and cold resistance brought out.)
2. *Converting Galvanometers into Ammeters and Voltmeters* (using ordinary meters, B. & S. wire table for shunts; and radio carbon resistors filed to suit for series resistors).

Conduction through liquids

3. *Copper Plating* (to show requirements for good plating).

4a. *Determination of e from above* (explained below in text).

or

4b. *Plating of metals other than copper* (students given choice of 4a or 4b).

Magnetic Effects of a Current

5. *Constructing Devices to show effect of Magnetic field* (each subdivision assigned to a group; groups work concurrently).

5a. Oersted's apparatus, with small compasses mounted.

5b. Tangent galvanometer (coil of wire and compass).

5c. Barlow's wheel.

5d. Dancing spiral (pool of mercury contact to show attraction of parallel currents).

5e. Parallel Wires.

Optional: Magic magnetic pendulum (current induced

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in swinging coil by magnet causes second coil to start to swing over its magnet).

6. *Assembling and Winding a Simple Motor* (using K. & D. or Moore moters, both knock down, 1½ volt).

Alternating Current Phenomena

7. *Construction of Simple Transformer* (may be done as a magic lamp; coil wound on an oatmeal box and hidden; connected to flashlight bulb-box to be placed over an iron-core coil carrying A.C.).

DEM. 1: Demonstration showing difference between AC and DC on inductances, condensers and power.

DEM. 2: Demonstration of moving magnetic field. The stator of a 4-pole motor may be split up to provide a rotating field to affect a floating copper ball (density ball).

or

2b: Aluminum ring over iron core of coil carrying A.C.

DEM. 3: Demonstration of resonance at power frequencies.

Electron Phenomena

8. *Construction of Thermocouples to produce current.* Using common metals in laboratory (iron, copper, nichrome wire, etc.).

Application in pyrometer.

9a. *Constructed Model* to show attraction of charged particles from smoke by electrified plate (as per John A. Clark).

or

9b. *Constructed Model* to show production of electrons by glowing filament (electroscope used to test charge on aluminum plate near glowing iron wire in air).

DEM. 4: Conduction through gases (low pressure air and other gas discharge tubes).

DEM. 5: Simple oscillograph, using rotating mirror with special gas discharge tube or tuning fork. (This Demonstration can be performed by students.)

DEM. 6: Demonstration of photo-electric effect, using photo-electric tube, and relay to ring bell.

Optional: Construction of photo-voltaic cell, using cuprous oxide plates from discarded rectifier with lead ring in lead nitrate solution.

RADIO

DEM. 7: Demonstration of production and reception of radio waves using Hertz apparatus and static machine (can be performed by students).

DEM. 8: Demonstration of rectifying action and use of curves to indicate vacuum tube rectifier action.

Optional: Effect of filtering action shown by meters or audible means.

10. *Construction of simple vacuum tube characteristic curves.*

Optional: Construction of simple crystal set.

11. *Construction of a 1-tube radio set and test for its operation.* Simple regenerative circuit is built individually, while the accessories necessary for testing are used in common (as explained below in text).

Optional: Converting radio set into an audio oscillator for practical use by student as a code-practice set. (See Note 2.)

Optional: Construction of 2-stage amplifier (without accessories).

Optional: Demonstration of simple 1-tube A.C. operated transmitter.

CLASS PROCEDURE

The class procedure will naturally vary according to the type of project selected and the different conditions under which the class is working. For this reason, little will be said about it except in the particular cases selected below. However, there is ample reason for including other methods, such as reports and talks by students on interesting topics and trips to industrial plants, as the occasion arises, although there is no room here for any emphasis on these methods.

One experiment given to students who show particular aptitude is the determination of the charge of the electron (project 4a) from copper-plating data. A typical report recently handed in will best illustrate:

Copper plate before plating	28.177 gms.
Copper plate after plating	28.877
Weight of copper plated	.700 gms.

The current through solution was

A 3 amp. for 5½ minutes	= 17.5 amp. minutes
B 2.2 amp. for 0.5 minutes	= 1.1 amp. minutes
C 2 amp. for 7¾ minutes	= 15.5 amp. minutes
D 3.2 amp. for 1¼ minutes	= 4/ amp. minutes
	38.1 amp. minutes

48 amp. minutes	= 2286 coulombs
Weight of copper plated per coulombs	= .000306 gms. = 3.06×10^{-4} gr.
Weight of Hydrogen atom (reference)	= 1.662×10^{-24} gm.
Atomic Weight of Copper (reference)	= 63.57
Weight of copper atom	= 105.7×10^{-24} gms.
Number of atoms in one coulomb	= 2.89×10^{18}
Valence of copper	= 2
Number of electrons in one coulomb	= 5.78×10^{18}
Exp. Result—One electron possesses	= 1.73×10^{-19} coulombs
Valve from tables— One electron possesses	= 1.59×10^{-19} coulombs

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The ammeter used was graduated in .2 amperes steps and probably no more accurate than 3% or 4% . In weighing the plates the chemical balance is used, mainly to enable the student to familiarize himself with it. The errors possible in its use are much smaller than the ammeter errors. The final result lies within the possible experimental error of the student and equipment.

RADIO PROJECT

The work on the radio project (No. 11—construction of a 1-tube radio set and test for its operation) presented many problems and was introduced with much misgiving. Yet it turned out to be the most interesting and vital part of the course. Difficulties due to the technical nature of the subject and lack of any radio supplies, as such, melted away in a surprising way before the eagerness of the students, who felt that they had an interesting job to do and the very definite goal to aim at, of showing that their set would work.

The first step was to lay the groundwork of an understanding in the simplest possible terms of the essentials of radio reception. This was done with two simple demonstrations. In Demonstration 7 the sparks from the static machine produced the high frequency oscillations which sent out the radio waves in conjunction with the tuned circuit of the loop of wire and the Leyden jar of the standard Hertz apparatus. The students convinced themselves of the possibility of receiving this energy through space by their own manipulation of the similar tuned circuit for receiving the spark when in tune with the transmitter. In Demonstration 8 the possibility of rectifying these received high frequency oscillations was demonstrated by the action of tube and crystal rectifiers on 60 cycle A.C. Discussion of the effect of the grid in 3 element tubes followed, using the method of drawing curves for the tube action. Then the diagram of a simple crystal set was given, the symbols explained, and the parts discussed until the function of each part of the apparatus had penetrated. The construction of such a crystal set was not required—except as an additional option. During this time the pupils had been furnished with a list of the parts required for the 1-tube set, namely:

1 Coil (broadcast wave or short wave, first used as non-regenerative tickler, winding added later).
1 Variable condenser (about .00035 mfd.).
1 Tube socket (4-prong).
1 6-ohm rheostat.
1 Grid leak (1 to 5 megohms) and fixed grid condenser (.00025 mfd.).
1 Baseboard.
1 Panel.

Those pupils who did not wish to do their own shopping were told to turn over 15 cents to one member of the class in charge of parts, and that this would cover all the parts required. It is possible to do this with such a small sum by forming a common class fund. An out-of-date 5 or 6 tube battery set can be bought for

about 50 cents or less by judicious shopping at Radio Row on Cortlandt Street, which will provide parts for three boys, with plenty left over after it has been broken up. There will always be found a group of boys in the class for whom this task will be a special privilege, and when a suitable set for breaking up has been selected, it yields the three coil and condenser combination and sockets usually mounted in a form ready to make the basis of three separate single tube sets. The question of extra rheostats, grid leaks and fixed condensers usually results in a barter and exchange process among the students that works out beautifully by itself with the minimum of teacher help. We have found the members of our Radio Club willing and anxious to take care of this exchange of parts together with the supplies of the club, because it usually results in a net increase for the club, since a few discarded sets are usually hauled out of cellars and brought in gratis for the common supply. As a matter of fact, the period of getting parts usually ends with a surplus of the so called "junk parts" piling up, all perfectly suitable for class work, so that a supply of such parts quickly builds up and causes no problem. The accessories are to be available to the class in common. For putting up an aerial and ground system willing hands are easily found. The "A", or filament supply, is provided by the laboratory's storage battery or four cells. The "B", or plate supply, can be the laboratory 110v. D.C. outlet if necessary, but one of the pupils invariably brings in a "B eliminator" supply which serves for the class, making it unnecessary to touch the Radio Club's power supply. Phones are part of the laboratory equipment. We usually find more than half of the class already supplied with tubes (usually of the O1A type) salvaged from all sorts of places so that little lending of the tubes for testing is necessary. For the actual construction and testing about six laboratory periods may be allowed since the pupils, once started, will petition to be allowed to come in at all odd hours to work on their sets and try them out. The pupil who has been carefully selected as tool-master and is responsible to the teacher can be in charge of the accessories under the supervision of any teacher or laboratory assistant who happens to have some work keeping him in school at that time. It should be realized, however, that usually any arrangement made will draw on the teacher's own time, which is the price that must be paid for the gratifying results achieved in going outside of the strictly formal work.

Surprising examples of student ingenuity spring up. In one case, the set built by a girl in the class put the products of some of the supposedly "handy sex" to shame.

Though the set belongs to the pupil to take home, if he wants to, there will be little incentive for him to use a little one-tuber at home in competition with the family's electric set, no matter how proud he is of his own handiwork. For this reason, the set has more practical use if built with a

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short-wave coil (as for police broadcast and amateur waves). Another way of putting the parts to practical use is to convert the set into an audio oscillator to be used for code-practice work in learning the international code with a friend. This is done very simply by the addition of an audio transformer as shown in the January issue of *Radiocraft*, in Fig. 1 of the article on "The Meterless Tube Tester" (see note 2). As a matter of fact, it was just this problem of finding a practical use for the parts in the one-tube set that gave the writer his idea for the article, since this code practice set carried a little further results in a practicable tube tester.

And so we think that this particular topic of radio quickly awakens real interest on the part of the student, for which he is amply repaid in the thrill he gets when the first sound from the air reaches his ears through the product of his own hands. An uninformed observer, watching the testing of the sets, would surely think that each pupil, in his turn, was the inventor of Radio.

Note 1. Report of the Committee of the First Assistants' Association for the Study of the Problem of the Instruction of Pupils Gifted in Physical Science.

Note 2. Constructing the Meterless Tube Tester, by Sol D. Prensky. *Radiocraft*, January and February issues, 1933.

SOL D. PRENSKY,
with
J. AUERBACH and
A. W. HUDSON.
New Utrecht High School.

SHOULD WE INDOCTRINATE?

ONE hears considerable discussion these days on the question, "Should we indoctrinate?" To realize how far we have travelled pedagogically, one must bear in mind the fact that such a question would have been treated with derision a few years ago, if noticed at all. Today it receives the serious consideration of scholar and teacher alike, heretical as it sounds to some. With a view to soliciting a comprehensive and authoritative statement from the school officials, the following brief treatment is tentatively and respectfully submitted.

Acknowledgment is made at the outset to the inspiring words of Professor Counts, whose little pamphlet[1] it is sincerely hoped will be perused by all teachers looking forward to a better social era.

First of all let us attempt an answer to the question, "What is indoctrination?" Teachers have been loathe to commit themselves even on the point of definition. The writer assumes that indoctrination means the taking of a controversial social question, one about which there exists an honest difference of opinion between different members of society, a decision as to which of the several possible answers is the best answer, and then the presentation of the subject to the students with the intent that they may be convinced that the best solution is the one favored by the teacher. Indoctrination involves a question about which reasonable men might conceivably differ, not the presentation of a platitude or a truism. It means teaching with a motive, over and above the contents of the subject itself. It means persuasive teaching, with the hope that the students will "see things" the way the teacher does.

Should we indoctrinate? This is a question that cannot be dodged, that demands immediate attention, and that is charged with social consequences, whichever way we answer it.

Let it be understood that it is not the inculcation of any and all ideas by any teacher who so takes a fancy or notion to teach that we are here considering. There are certain limitations that any plan of indoctrination would have to recognize. Of course there must be no distortion of the truth to serve the purposes of any doctrinaire group or political school. There must be no covert foisting of any political paneceas on our students. Eclectisism would seem a more desirable point of view. There must be no instilling of ideas divorced from reality. The sole justification for indoctrination would be the desire to get back to the reality from which so much of our curriculum has strayed. Where the answer is purely conjectural there would be no value of indoctrinating any particular answer. Unless there exists a reasonably strong attitude, found in the vast majority of scholars in any particular field, indoctrination is out of place. Where the chief benefit of the study is derived not from the solution, but from the search and pursuit of the solution, indoctrination is clearly out of place. Where the question concerns matters of purely private attitudes, such as questions of religion, no attempt should be made to indoctrinate.

Let us make our discussion concrete, so that we may have a common basis upon which to argue. Suppose, for instance, all the social science teachers, or their delegates, were to meet in a vast hall, decide what are the ten major problems of the day crying out for a solution, discuss them pro and con, reach certain decisions as to what they thought was the best avenue of approach and treatment, discard those points about which there did not seem to be any agreement or very little agreement, formulate the procedures and convictions about which there seemed to be strong agreement, as for example 90% agreement, and then march from the room, with the common objective of indoctrinating our students similarly. What opposition and complaint would there be to such a scheme?

The historical objection has been raised that the Jesuits have tried indoctrination in the past and that they failed. The results in the case of the Jesuits would seem to be a strong argument in favor of indoctrination. Judged from their own motives they succeeded preëminently. Judged even from hostile Protestant contemporaries their schools were the best of the day.

[1] G. S. Counts: "Dare the School Build a New Social Order?" The John Day Pamphlets, New York.

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Some say that to indoctrinate is to put the schools in politics. That is apparently urged as a calamity. The argument proceeds that it would prevent us from complaining if politics come into the schools. The implication is that schools and politics are as far removed as the poles, and never the twain shall meet. On the other hand, perhaps one of the most powerful complaints made against the schools is that they are too removed from society, and society apart from politics has no significance. "Until school and society are bound together by common purposes the program of education will lack both meaning and vitality."[2] "In their own lives teachers must bridge the gap between school and society, and play some part in the fashioning of those great common purposes which should bind the two together."[3]

If teachers have the right to guide youth in the formation of social concepts they will at once become the target for all kinds of pressure agencies. Interested groups will immediately try to move heaven and earth to win the teachers to their side in order that their particular views may be foisted on the students. When that day comes, perhaps, then teachers will come into their own. For too long have the views and opinions and social philosophies of teachers been ignored by those wielding political power. And the argument assumes that teachers as a group are a set of invertebrates, who would accept first one conception or school of thought, and then another. "That the teachers should deliberately reach for power and then make the most of their conquest is my firm conviction."[4]

Will indoctrination lead to chaos? Teachers will start teaching pet eccentric notions, each presenting individual, self-contradicting, socially-unsound ideas, the result being confusion worse confounded. Is such a result likely to follow? By having the best scholars of the social sciences ponder and weigh all questions before they are handed down to our students, such a situation just described is avoided. And surely if the parents of our students have faith in us at all as teachers of their children, then they should have faith in our ability to guide them in more than the learning of mere academic matters.

The objection might be raised that indoctrination is incompatible with democracy. Is our democratic form of government challenged when our teachers mold our youth to think along certain definite lines, and is our democracy "safe" when they are left to their own resources to think along any lines, or along no lines at all, as most of them choose to do? It is contended that we should "refrain from disposing of concrete issues or public procedure, but should rather put our trust in the unfettered processes of enlightened democracy."[5] Is this not a fool's paradise we are living in, this assumption that students and even adults come to decisions "unfettered"? Who would dare to deny the fact that we are all of use being continually bombarded with arguments for or against a certain course of conduct by self-seeking groups, either via the press, radio, movies, billboard, or a thousand other channels? Is a callow youth in a better position to decide these vital questions than a thousand experts?

Is it true that indoctrination is the denial of toleration? Sometimes this question is asked in all seriousness. It seems to indicate a confusion between two different concepts. What is here being considered is simply a question of presentation of a point of view, and not a forced shaping of the minds of students along certain channels with a penalty attached if the students just "don't see it that way," à la Herr Hitler. In the last analysis the matter rests with the individual student. This is not an argument for the suppression of opposing ideas, but the giving of one additional fact, and that is that one of the two solutions or attitudes is the better one in the opinion of the vast majority of scholars. There is "the fallacy that the school is an all-powerful educational agency . . . the school is but one formative agency among many, and certainly not the strongest at that. Our major concern should be, not to keep the school from influencing the child in a positive direction. . . . If the school should endeavor vigorously and consistently to win its pupils to the support of a given social program, unless it were supported by other agencies, it could act only as a mild counterpoise to restrain and challenge the might of less enlightened and more selfish purposes."[6] Because we have had instances of indoctrination and intoleration going hand-in-hand together, as for example Soviet Russia, it does not follow as a logical necessity that the two must be associated and are inseparable and concomitant.

The objection might be advanced that our students should not be made the subjects of an experiment. Upon them, as upon so many guinea pigs in the laboratory, we should not inflict the untried hypothesis of schoolmasters and schoolma'ams, people cut off from all contact with the "real" world and having as a consequence, no significant grasp of contemporaneous problems. There are two erroneous implications in such an argument. First, if some of the people who sit in the places of power had one iota as much vision of some of the people who sit behind the classroom desk we would not now be "in the ditch," to quote G. B. S. Second, the statement doesn't appreciate the fact that our students are every day being experimented with, but only in a haphazard, trial-and-error, hit-or-miss fashion. "Either consciously or unconsciously, directly or indirectly, we as teachers and writers of texts bring it to pass that the boys and girls who have been under our guidance come into the possession of certain assumptions. . . . It is highly desirable that we, as instructors of the young, should

[2] Counts, supra, page 17.
[3] Ibid. Page 31.
[4] Ibid. Page 28.
[5] W. E. Myer: "Civic Education Service," Washington, D. C. February 13, 1933.
[6] Counts, supra, page 24.

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be conscious of the assumptions we are building into their minds, and that we should do this work directly rather than by indirection."[7] Indoctrination is thus inevitable. There is the indoctrination for the *status quo* or the indoctrination for the change, the indoctrination to make conservatives, or indoctrination to make liberals. The issue cannot be avoided or straddled. You are either for one form of indoctrination or for another, whether you realize it or not.

Is it true that indoctrination would be futile? What might be unanimous today might be thrown overboard tomorrow. Should we therefore stop teaching economics today because the principles might become obsolete tomorrow? And should we discard the best literature of today since something better might be born tomorrow?

Will indoctrination discourage independent thinking and lead to a static condition of society? Will our students become converted into sponges, absorbing what opinions the teachers have, and never bothering to scrutinize the issues for themselves? Is there an intellectual passivity that we will be engendering in the new generation? This raises the question: Is there at present any substantial satisfactory amount of independent thinking going on in our student body as a whole? Surely any research concerning the amount of independent thinking, cerebral activity, apart from the classroom incentives or rewards and punishments, will leave the census-taker crestfallen and hopeless. And what spontaneous, courageous thinking one does find in the few isolated cases, will that be endangered with indoctrination? Does one vainly suppose that he could extinguish the fire, even if he had a mind to? And will it not encourage bold individualistic responses on the part of our student body, this treatment of social science problems with the reviving, stimulating touch of conviction, this presentation of questions as though they really mattered, and not as one generally finds, in a merely academic way, just something to be written out on examination day, and then to be dropped like last season's clothing?

Let us consider some arguments in favor of indoctrination within the meaning of the term as herein used. There is, first, the pragmatic attitude, the old methods don't work. The teacher of the conventional stamp will say, "These are the arguments for (or advantages of) this attitude, and these are the arguments for (or advantages of) the other attitude. You decide in your own mind which you think is the better viewpoint." Result? In a time when our citizens are paying more for schooling than ever before in history, our citizenry are miserably unprepared to meet the pressing social questions of the day and decide accordingly. A cynicism bordering on contempt and disgust is visible in many quarters towards this whole business of democracy. Most people don't vote either because they can't and don't care to qualify themselves, or because they realize the futility of voting; those that do vote are either in the grip of a family tradition or a political machine. Is it to be wondered at that corruption, prevarication and social injustice are taken for granted? The "take-your-choice" methods of yesteryear seem to have produced a very poor crop. "Society requires great numbers of persons who, while capable of gathering and digesting facts, are at the same time able to think in terms of life, make decisions and act."[8] "It is a fallacy that the great object of education is to produce the college professor, that is, the individual who adopts an agnostic attitude towards every important social issue, who can balance the pros and cons with the skill of a juggler[9] . . . waiting until the solutions of social problems are found when as a matter of fact there are no solutions in any definite and final sense."[10] To take one simple example, of what avail is it to drill our students to glibly recite, memoriter, all the arguments for or against high tariffs, if when they become of voting age they lack the emotional, passionate desire to help their country solve this vexing problem, and, furthermore, become innocent tools of self-seeking interests who drive the country and the world into the most distressing economic and tariff war of which history has any record? To pursue this single idea still further—approximately 95% of our economists favor immediate downward tariff revision, the unanimous vote of the World Economic Conference in 1927 (when tariffs were incomparably lower than they are today) urged downward revision, and yet what do our students think about the tariff? Some are for a higher tariff, some for a lower, most of them are just indifferent. Is this successful teaching?

That the times are out of joint is trite. That this fact calls for modifications in our teaching processes is not quite so accepted. Were we living in a placid, inconsequential era we could very well plod along in the beaten track. Teachers must today come out of their apathy. Each of us, like the prophets of old, must independently hear the call to serve and to save a collapsing world. The shameful fact remains that some of us have awakened to the catastrophic changes of the day and have become socially-minded only when our checks were in jeopardy. Surely our vision extends further than "signing the payroll." The fortunate or unfortunate fact remains that the payroll is dependent upon our coming to a realization of our responsibilities, and that very soon. We sometimes resent being called "pedagogues." But are we even entitled to be so called when we refuse to take the initiative and guide the child? The original meaning of the word was one who guides or leads another. If we refuse to help the student see the light in this world of social darkness, then what name shall we earn? When your house is on fire will you tell your child who may be just learning to walk that there are

[7] W. E. Myer, supra.

[8] Counts, supra, page 22.
[9] Ibid., page 20.
[10] Ibid., page 21.

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several ways to go about this process, and that now is a good chance to try out what he thinks is the best way? Or will you snatch him up in your arms and scurry out of the building? The world is now on fire, on fire in many serious ways. Many of our "principles of education" have been relegated to the limbo of the forgotten, all in the past few years. Is it time now to make one more "adjustment"? I don't know.

Indoctrination has been urged as a necessity of good teaching, teaching with vitality and nerve. I suppose there is no more punishing an experience for a child than to be exposed to a teacher who has nary a conviction or a belief of his own, who just "hands out the stuff," encyclopaedically, whose heart throbs with no desires or passions save that of going through the daily tasks. A most bloodless individual, you will say, and altogether impossible. Yes. And nonexistent? No. Our text-writers urge the necessity of personality in the teacher. But what if the pedagogical procedures drive the little personality we have out of us, and leave us colorless and dry?

At this point the patient reader might exclaim, "Well, let's get down to cases. If you would indoctrinate, on what subject would you start"? I have indicated above that this fundamental question would be decided not by any individual teacher, but by all the teachers collectively, especially the social science teachers. (The writer at this stage advances with trepidation.) Just to be suggestive, surely there is a good and a bad answer, almost as there is in algebra, to many current questions. In municipal affairs, proportional representation vs. ordinary voting, apathy or fiery indignation towards domination by unelected politicians and bankers; in state affairs, minimum wages or not, unemployment insurance or not; in national affairs, more disarmament or not, curbing of enormous concentration of wealth by higher surtaxes or not, and so on.

I pause to hear the gentlemen (and ladies) from the other side of the house.

ABRAHAM GEDULDIG.

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THE CONTEMPORARY SCOTTISH NOVEL

THE Scottish novel has gone a good distance from the old kailyard school and from the S. R. Crockett territory. It has become less provincial, if no less localized. It has become less a matter of tortuous dialect and caricatured characterization, like the somewhat blatant J. J. Bell stories of Clydeside, almost Scottish replicas of W. W. Jacob's uproarious seamen, and has acquired more real strength in depicting situations and conflicts under conditions factually Scottish, but universal in their application. That is one particular and no small reason why the Scottish novel is assuming a notable place in contemporary letters.

It was, all unknowingly, Douglas himself, with his "House with the Green Shutters," who started the ball rolling by his emphasis, not on the turn of speech of the protagonists, but on the inherently dramatic elements of the narrative, with the tragic old carter battling his blind way through a fatalistic climax, and his pitiful son wrestling, but ineluctably, with his cataclysmic end. Dr. Cronin, in "Hatter's Castle," is now doing something similar, with a broader sweep, although there is no implication of direct imitation; both men, rather, draw from the same fountain-head, a transmutation of the life they know.

It is not startling that a Scotsman should know the locale best, and sense the proper atmosphere and be attuned to catch those fugitive touches of manner and racial peculiarities that only one who is steeped in Scottish living can honestly possess. For the Englishman who writes of Scotland (pace Dr. Johnson) invariably becomes ridiculously fatuous, to recall nothing more heinous than the notorious line from Alfred Austin about the cows returning to the byre.

Who are the present fashioners of these Pictish tales? There are two types. There is the writer who confessedly places on his stage the traditional Scotsman, red-headed and not infrequently bibulous, for humorous effect. The characters around this glowing, staggering Scot are descendants of the old Gillespie of mediaeval legend, stock characters, like the ubiquitous Scottish engineer from Paisley, turning up in the China Sea or in the Malay Straits, a blusterous, wise-cracking, tumultuous, lusty fellow who takes life frothily and spices it with pawky humor and a condiment of literary witticisms that the real Scottish engineer could never attain. This is the type that Frederick Niven handles so plastically.

To the second group belong all those men, with a growing feminine contingent, whose aim is to fashion something close to reality, recognizable, touched with humor it may be, and wistful with pathos, and even smothered in Lowland talk and possibly "having the Gaelic," but entirely credible, and not distorted deliberately for alien consumption.

There are, in this field, particular genre sketches that, in tone and warm color, recall those very domestic interiors of the Dutch school, and latterly of Josef Israels, whose interiors are sheer Scottish in feeling. "The Shepherd's Calendar," whose title L. MacPherson borrowed from Spencer, is no sprightly idyllic picture, although it is pastoral. It creates the story of a lonely sheep farm nestling in the Grampians, that bulwark against Roman aggression, and still a bulwark against modernism. Lewis Gibbon's "Sunset Song," bare of mechanized "plot," is also essentially chthonic, a paean, occasionally a dirge, to "hive and horse and herd," murmurous with the living tragic tones of the farmer's daughter, torn by filial duty and long-

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ing for self-realization. It is a piece of poetised prose in line with the livid pictures of Maarten Maartens, that Anglicized Hollander. Eric Linklater also takes a remote corner of the land, those fringing Orkney Islands that bend back to old Viking times. It is "White-Man's Saga," re-echoing with embattled contacts with the Scandinavian coast. "The Grey Coast," again, from Neil Gunn's pen, centres round the fishing industry, an old, tragic industry, as Pierre Loti well realized. "Janet Thurso" becomes more metropolitan in Edinburgh, burrowing in its streets hoary with mediaevalism. "All Smoke," a harsh tale beaten out toilsomely by an erstwhile truckman, weaves its violent, acidulous story around clamant Glasgow. Lennox Kerr also takes town life, in "Glenshiels," as the background for a sullen, authentic story of a Scottish family that disintegrates into dolorous ineffectiveness through parental tyranny. But there are other tales, more numerous, and on the whole more characteristic, where local color is secondary, as it should be, to the human drama playing and aching against its background. Such a one is "The Path of Glory," George Blake's war commentary. It is a searing, moving tale of a Highland boy in war, and, more, it is the tale of his love for the bagpipes, that maligned instrument. In fact, the bagpipes become the unspeaking, though not soundless, chorus, launching their throbbing, plangent notes in camp and on parade ground and lastly and remotely against the blazing agonies of Gallipoli. Even more Gaelic in flavor is James Barke's "The World His Pillow." It was Duncan Carmichael who, like Barrie's whimsical alter ego, set out southward, this time to Glasgow, to set the city aflame. But his contacts with the fringe of politics and office routine, and rather pedestrian encounters with The Bright Young Things (including Shaw), are transient in their effect. Like Rutilius Namatianus, Carmichael represents a Scottish "De Reditu Suo," finding in his native Glenaraig a microcosmos of all that he had spiritually and emotionally been seeking.

Maurice Walsh has touched things Scottish intimately with his "Key Above the Door" and "The Small Dark Man," while O. Douglas is producing sober things like "The Setons," "Penny Plain," and "Eliza for Common." Competing with these are Robert Craig, M. N. Goold, Janet Laing, Nan Shepherd and Claire Spencer.

It should be noted that in spite of the small area of Scotland itself, there is as great a variety of type and character and tradition as there is between the stolid Norman peasant and his more volatile compatriot of the Mid. Scotland can still utter the old Gaelic tongue that flourished before the turbulent Romans touched these shores. In its wrinkled Highland glens it lives a life secluded, remote, hieratic. The Lowlands, again, with their yellowing fields and sheep pastures shadowed by dour hills, is a land unto itself, while the east coast lives mainly with and from the sea. And in between these

vales and flooding streams lie roaming stretches of gorse, clustering mining villages, mill towns, crofters' parcels of land, and wilder, untrodden glens and brooding mountains.

And the novel, in psychic correspondence, travels up and down the land, probing out the nooks and dells and giving them visibility. You participate in the whirring mill towns, clanging with clogs, go marching forward to feel the bite and snap of the lashing east wind howling round Inverness and sweeping down most of all to Edinburgh. Go further afield to the Hebridean Isles and the glens of Argylleshire, where Bonnie Mary still dwells. Accompany Neil Gunn to "The Lost Glen," moist with Highland mists and wrapped in the yearning loneliness of swaying heather. Then enter into colloquy with David Donald's "Padam Aram." And throughout it all you will observe how tense Scottish life is, how peculiarly sundered it can be, how rich in scenes vividly alive, in variation of type, in adherence to old ways that are swiftly passing but are, happily, being impressed into literary permanence.

HARRY E. WEDECK.
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HIGH POINTS

Let's Build a Theatre

A Project Proposing to Interest Slow Students in Literature by Means of Appealing to their Manual Skills

Shortly after the beginning of last term, I summarized for my own information the few genuine interests of my students in a third-term repeaters' class in English. I was dismayed to realize that apart from an interest in athletics, they seemed to enjoy only shopwork, drawing and, in the case of girls, sewing. On the other hand, they profoundly disliked reading of any sort, and frankly admitted boredom with all school books. For students so mechanically minded, and so disinterested in books, how was I to make Shakespeare seem to them an interesting adventure? That was my problem.

The first day set aside for a consideration of "The Merchant of Venice," I contented myself merely with showing the class pictures and diagrams of different theatres. I hoped to interest the boys in the floor plans, and fortunately I succeeded. In fact, so interested did the boys become in the discussion on floor plans and diagrams that finally, when I showed them a number of good plans of a Shakespearian theatre, one of the boys enthusiastically asked, "Couldn't we work with these plans and make a model of a theatre from it?" Overjoyed at this response, I heartily approved the suggestion, and soon the boys were eagerly discussing possible ways and means of building such a model. They formed themselves into a committee and, at my suggestion, de-

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termined to consult a few books on the subject of the theatre in Shakespeare's day before beginning the actual work.

By now the girls in the class began to feel excluded from the work of the class. In order to join the enterprise, one of the girls suggested that a committee of girls be formed and that they apply their knowledge of sewing to costuming dolls which would represent the audience in the theatre and the characters on the stage of the model. Again I was delighted with their suggestion, and once more I urged a preliminary study to precede the actual work.

A few days later, the two committees announced that they were ready with some preliminary findings. The "Costume Committee" had secured from a public library excellent pictures of Elizabethan costumes. These were shown to the class and provoked a thoroughly interesting discussion of the various classes of people who lived during the Elizabethan Age. The "Theatre Committee" then reported, and their pictures and explanations provided another interesting twenty minutes of class discussion. I was greatly interested in some of the unusual bits of information the students in both committees had been able to secure for the enjoyment of their fellow students.

For the next seven weeks the class made little reference to their project, for all their work was to be done after school hours. That the work was progressing well, however, and that a splendid transfer of interest had been effected, was clearly indicated by the genuine enthusiasm displayed in class during the reading of our play, "The Merchant of Venice."

Finally the model and the dolls were finished, and the class begged to be permitted to give a Shakespearian program during which their work could be properly displayed. On a certain memorable Wednesday morning, my students presented a series of short, informal talks, a dramatization of the Casket Scene from the "Merchant of Venice"—for this scene was represented in miniature on the stage of the model—and, finally, a brief discussion of the methods employed in building the model. The program in full follows:

A Program on Shakespeare

One: Interesting Facts about Shakespeare's Day.

Two: The Theatre in Shakespeare's Day (with reference to the model).

Three: Costumes worn in the Elizabethan Era (with reference to the costumed dolls).

Four: The Life of Shakespeare.

Five: The Story of the "Merchant of Venice."

Six: A Dramatization of the "Casket Scene."

Seven: How We Built our Model.

At the conclusion of the program, the students presented the model to the English department. Now the theatre is on exhibition in the school library and is used from time to time by other classes studying the "Merchant of Venice." Thus the students who participated in the project feel they have accomplished something of permanent value, and have contributed something worthy to their beloved John Adams.

Whether or not these particular students continue to read Shakespeare is not so important as the fact that they have at last glimpsed the idea that reading can open to them a world of new knowledge and experience. Certainly their attitude to reading—one of indifference and scoffing—has radically changed. From all indications, this particular group of students is now firmly convinced that books can yield worth-while ideas, and can be pleasant and desirable companions.

In conclusion, I want to add a few comments upon the model itself. Since I had no part in the actual planning and construction of the theatre, I feel justified in giving it the praise it rightly deserves. It is a large wooden model, approximately three feet by two and three-quarters, painted attractively in gray and red, with touches of blue, gold and silver, and showing clearly every detail of the theatre of the Elizabethan Age. Such care has been taken that the pillars on the outer stage are fluted delicately, the pit is covered with gravel, and the back stage is artistically curtained off from the outer stage. The miniature stage set shows Bassanio about to make his choice of the three caskets in the presence of Portia and Nerissa. The Caskets are charmingly displayed on a diminutive table.

Dorothy Marx Byrns.

John Adams High School.

Curtis Carnival

Like other schools whose auditoriums were built a decade ago when styles ran to large Gothic halls, we of Curtis have had to limit our school get-togethers to eye-appealing performances like last year's George Washington pageant and this May's central European carnival. Perhaps a school hall like ours has its advantages: responsibility for good performances rests on the shoulders of several departments, and a large number of students make up the cast—this year more than two hundred.

White Pierrot-clad ushers with a Roxy drill welcomed the audience, and Bizet's *L'Arlesienne Suite* and the Glee Club's *Come to the Fair* made it ready for the first scene of gay booths in reds, oranges, and yellows against a gray back drape. Gradually the carnival crowd, in two's and three's, rivaling the booths in color, sauntered and skipped in from auditorium side aisles—mammas in voluminous purples, papas, balloon venders, sellers of seed-cake (or whatever central Europeans nibble during carnivals), loving couples communing with each other's eyes, oblivious of the world, especially of the *enfants terribles* who minced behind in exaggerated imitation.

The spotlight picked out a barker in royal purple and much gold braid who introduced the freaks—the bearded lady, the giant (our tallest boy on stilts), the fat lady, the snake charmer, and the human skeleton. Two girl clowns in leap-frog dance, gracefully grotesque, were followed by the company of pink-tighted acro-

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bats in black shorts who performed different groups of pyramid acts. As the applause for the lady acrobat dancer who followed them died away, the audience craned its neck toward the center aisle rear, where an Elizabethan camel came swaying, flanked in side aisles by bears, monkeys, lions and tigers whose muffled roars (orchestra drums) were realistically accompanied by rhythmic whip cracks of a mustachioed master of ceremonies and red-clad lady lion tamers.

The animals mounted their barrels for the dance of the lion tamers, a variation of the acrobatic dances. A bear game with medicine ball followed. The dance of the hairy camu-el, whose neck movement alone might have warranted the name of the Pacific Swells, was a good foil for the cocoa-brown monkeys who jumped through yellow paper hoops.

A medley of Russian gypsy songs opened scene two, a gypsy encampment, with a prophecy of a gypsy crone (the only speaking part besides the barker's and the gypsy father's) who foretold trouble and joy for the gypsy princess. A kettle on a tripod displaced one of the carnival booths; a lively card game the other. The handsome hero in sideburns smoked somberly near the wings as he watched the movements of the princess, then with a dramatic flip of his cigarette bowed at the feet of the fair lady, only to be forced to wrestle with the other suitor. A gypsy dance and the gypsy king's blessing finished the quaint marriage ceremony of tying together the hands of the bride and groom. The grand finale was Ca... *minia,* sung by the carnival folk who had dribbled in during the gypsy scene.

The performance might have been disjointed and incoherent had it not been for the coöperation of all concerned—the stenographic, the music, the physical education, the art, and the English departments. But the really remarkable thing about it all is that at a time when central Europe is being torn by bitter nationalistic hatreds and mediaeval race and religious prejudices, we in a school that consists of less than four thousand can get more than two hundred children, representing twenty-two nationalities, including Chinese and American Indian, to work and play so well together.

X Y Z.

Curtis High School.

The Organization of Student Leaders in a Department of Health Education

The recent policy of the Board of Education in increasing the pupil-load of all teachers has given impetus to the more extensive use of student leaders as assistants to teachers of high school physical education.

Regardless of the extent of his training, no high school or college student is capable of filling the position of a regularly licensed teacher; nevertheless, as an emergency measure, we have found the utilization of trained student leaders to prove of great assistance in maintaining our complete activities program.

A trained student leader can be helpful in every one of the activity and service centers of the Department of Health Education, particularly in taking care of such routine matters as the checking of attendance and the dissemination of information regarding the program or procedure involved in any branch of the department. This is especially true of those students who assist in the service branch. The amount of training required therein is negligible; thus, the student of average intelligence who is selected as a leader in this branch can acquire sufficient knowledge from a list of standard practices and procedures that may be prepared by the chairman of the department or the teacher assigned as faculty adviser of student leaders. Of a more difficult nature, and certainly more important, is the assistance provided by student leaders in conducting a practice session in the recreational part of any period. Their correction of individual errors and demonstration of correct form during the group practice of skills previously taught in mass formation by the teacher, and their control of subsequent competitive games bulk large in the satisfaction, progress, and joy felt by the entire class. Furthermore, this indicates the need for thoroughness in the organization and training of student leaders in physical education.

The need for an organization of all student leaders of physical education activities within any large city high school is felt most keenly at the beginning and at the end of a school term. Particularly at these periods is the *esprit de corps* of the body of student leaders the only factor which will provide the inner urge for them to "carry on," in the most useful manner, despite difficulties. The newer schools are equipped with three gymnasia, two locker rooms, a swimming pool, and several athletic fields. Furthermore, with the tendency to overload classes so that a class of two hundred pupils is a common occurrence, the difficulties confronting the teacher who is obliged to work without trained student leaders becomes self-evident.

For the past few years, we at DeWitt Clinton High School have been experimenting with several plans of student leadership. We have reached the conclusion that the unification of the efforts of all student leaders in physical education activities at our school is highly desirable. We have merged our groups of leaders into an organization known as the Gym Leaders' Corps, providing insignia only to those members who are assigned to assist in the control and management of the activity areas in our physical education plant. The writer was given a special assignment as faculty adviser of the newly-formed organization, charged with the responsibility of supervising the training and performance of the leaders of the current term as well as the fundamental training of prospective leaders to fill vacancies anticipated by graduation and transfers.

In effecting the reorganization of the student leaders in our school, where each teacher had been selecting

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and training his own captains for many years, we conducted short examinations during the first week of the term. All students who claimed service records in the capacity of gym captains were required to demonstrate their efficiency in clerical duties and recreational skills. Only those who were successful in passing both parts of this special examination were retained to form the nucleus of the Gym Leaders' Corps. The most capable leaders were assigned as "ranking captains" to assist in the orientation of newly assigned leaders. Being confronted with a shortage of trained leaders, we then tested, during the next week, all students who possessed a good physical development and a desire to serve as leaders. The test was limited to the candidates' personal performances of the recreational exercises taught during the previous term. Those whose exhibitions were meritorious were given instruction in the clerical duties of a leader and then assigned to active duty in all the periods to which they were programmed for physical education. To fill the needs of most classes, we requested our veteran leaders to "donate" as many of their study periods as possible to actual service in the gymnasium. This solicitation met with their hearty response and soon we had an over-supply of leaders in many of our classes.

To avoid a recurrence of this oversupply in certain classes and a shortage in others, we secured permission to change the programs of student leaders. To avoid duplication and to simplify matters, we designed a loose-leaf card index to list the captains assigned to every class in each gymnasium. Of course we secured the coöperation of every teacher in the department. After a copy of the net registration in each physical education class was obtained from the chairman of our department, it was not a difficult matter to decide on the number of leaders to assign to that class. As a means of identification and introduction to their new teachers, all leaders were given an official assignment card which designated their detail to duty for definite classes. Only those leaders assigned to assist in the gymnasiums and playgrounds were required to attend bi-weekly meetings to discuss the problems confronting them and to obtain practice in the advanced program of activities that was scheduled for their near future. All other student leaders were chosen by means of a brief personality test and, since they were only to assist in the service bureaus, all instructions were furnished by the distribution of mimeographed bulletins.

The setting of high standards and the use of insignia helped to develop a fine *esprit de corps* in the Gym Leaders' Corps. The rapid development of many of the inexperienced leaders was in a large measure due to the sense of responsibility assumed by the veteran leaders designated as ranking captains. A student who was new to the position of a leader was easily bewildered by the many demands of his position. The steadying influence and assistance of these veterans, however, soon helped the new leaders to orientate themselves. In addition, their daily experience helped them to acquire a quiet, rapid, efficient style in the execution of their duties. Before many weeks had passed, we had developed an organization of which the school was justly proud. To carry over this pioneer work to the succeeding term, we adopted the following procedure.

Two weeks before the end of the term we posted an alphabetical list of student leaders whose performances warranted re-appointment for the new school year. This list contained transfers and promotions in rank deemed essential by the anticipated graduation of some of the veteran leaders. Instructions regarding general procedures during the opening weeks of the new term were appended to this list. The faculty adviser of the Gym Leaders' Corps was relieved of his regular program in order that he might complete the organization for the new term. During the first week of the new term the leaders who were to assist in the Service Bureaus, such as those of the locker rooms and departmental officers, were re-assigned according to their new programs. The leaders who were scheduled to assist in the Activities Bureaus made themselves generally useful in the gymnasiums while awaiting definite assignment to physical education classes during the second week of the term when, guided by the requirements as to the number of students registered, the faculty adviser made definite assignments for the new term.

The fact that the performance of all student leaders was expected to be at or near "concert pitch" for the entire forty weeks of the school yaer, made it essential that provision be made for humanizing a large organization.

Cognizant of the progression in the physical education curriculum of the school, the faculty adviser of the Gym Leaders' Corps was obliged to work as as coördinating agent, coöperating with the teachers in charge of each phase of the program and simultaneously serving as a sympathetic adviser of a large body of students in order to maintain their morale.

Despite the practices, in smaller cities, of the democratic election and rotation of student leaders, we have adopted contrary policies in our school on account of variable conditions whereby the students are programmed for physical education. Rarely did more than five boys from the same home room (sometimes known as the official section room) meet in physical education classes. Election by students who were unacquainted with each other was therefore not feasible. Another factor of not inconsequential nature was that the practice of alternating as leader and follower in large classes did not function as well as the practice of having permanent leaders for the entire term. These factors led to the formation of the policy of selecting all leaders and the resultant thorough organization of them as a quasi-administrative arm of the department of Physical Education.

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In this manner, the harnessing of a veritable Niagara of power in the form of whole-hearted assistance by students was accomplished by the functional-unit organization of all student leaders serving in the multifarious branches of our department. Furthermore, we avoided over-lapping instructions from different teachers, thus enhancing the efficacy of these student assistants.

This principle of organization was likewise used to consolidate the work of leaders in the field of intra-mural athletics. We are convinced that we have taken one of the most progressive steps in the field of modern physical education through the thorough organization and subsequent smooth functioning of our Gym Leaders' Corps.

JACOB J. BALLAS.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

A New Approach to the Appreciation of Architecture

Architecture must be thought of in three dimensions. The making of architectural designs on paper, without an experience in building in three dimensions, was unsatisfactory. It seemed necessary to give an awareness and realization of the volume of a building.

Modern architecture was studied by means of photographs, and after a discussion of the factors which influenced architecture it was decided that the materials, zoning laws, and use or function of the buildings showed that the shape of these buildings varied according to the use of the building. A helpful book to stimulate the imagination was found in "The Metropolis of the Future," by Hugh Ferris.

It was then decided to build the model with blocks. These had been ordered from the supply department. Three large packing cases of cubes, plinths, cylinders, and the like, were brought in. The class was divided into six groups of seven pupils each. Each group chose a captain and after discussion decided on a type of building. Buildings chosen were a theatre, science laboratories, railroad station, apartment house, business building, monument. Each member of the group contributed his ideas, and then under the direction of the captain building was started. At first, only the front side of the building was thought of, but it was found that all sides must be considered. Then the volume of the building must be planned. It was interesting to observe how naturally each point developed.

One group was too individualistic and the period passed with no result, while the other groups completed their buildings. It was interesting to see how once when the pupils of this group realized their fault, they made a very good building the next day.

The finished buildings were photographed. The next day, elevations were drawn from the buildings. The understanding of an "elevation" and "façade," was secured with no difficulty.

During the building with blocks, a small number of pupils had said, "If we only had more shapes and sizes of blocks we could make a much better building!" Other pupils had ideas of their own which could not be worked out.

The following lesson was an original design for the elevation of a modern building, with emphasis on use, proportion, spacing and variety. Light and dark were also considered. In this problem each had an opportunity to use his imagination and creative ability.

This series of lessons had worthwhile results. First, it brought a realization of three dimensions in architecture. One little girl said, "I never realized before that you had to think of four sides of a building." It emphasized the large relationships of the masses, and the light and dark effect of those masses. It gave a chance to experiment with changes of position, size and volume. It had value as an experience in group work. The original designs were much better than those which had been obtained before.

They all understood the elevations without difficulty. It helped materially in "Appreciation of Architecture."

I feel that the experiment was well worth while and had very helpful results.

CATHERINE LANCASTER.
Flushing High School.

The Relation of Dress to Personality

Our appearance has a three-fold effect, first on the observing public, then on the more intimate circle in which we move, and lastly, on ourselves.

Business and professional people admit that a person dressed in good taste will have a better chance than one who is unbecomingly dressed or careless in appearance.

We owe it to our family and to the inner circle of our acquaintance to be pleasing in appearance. The effect upon ourselves has a reassuring value as we are more or less clothes-conscious and our appearance has a great deal to do with our sense of repose or poise of manner.

If "personality includes all those peculiar powers that make up the individual," then an outstanding factor in a pleasing personality is one's personal appearance. Therefore, the subject of clothing should be a deliberate study rather than a haphazard one, or a kind of indifferent indulgence in fads or fancies of the hour.

Dress is a fitting background to personality (as a frame is to a picture), while the graces of the spirit, charm and refinement can only be the product of a beautiful mind.

Manners that denote sincerity and cordiality, with forms of expression that reveal true politeness are habits which, by custom and usage become parts of ourselves and enhance our personalities.

George Herbert has wisely said, "By all means, use some time to be alone, salute thyself; see what thy soul doth wear. Dare to look into the chest, for 'tis thine own, and tumble up and down what thou findest there."

While the art of good dressing is a medium of self-expression, it should

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never be emphasized to the exclusion of the finer qualities that make up a charming woman. While clothes *can* portray character, it is only when such garments express the wearer's ideas that they become individual.

We want to be able to judge quality and the suitability of fabrics in their relation to other things to buy the best for the money, and then to know how to take proper care, to repair if necessary, and to renovate at will.

When we think of textile values, we think of the quality, beauty, color, durability and comfort which each textile will give. In order to purchase wisely we must know how fabrics are manufactured in order to distinguish the real product from the artificial.

How to make good selections in clothing and home furnishings, how to develop the right attitude toward our responsibilities, how to manipulate tools, how to adapt the principles of color, how to construct a garment in an intelligent way, is the purpose of the Course in Clothing.

A girl must consider her health if she wants to be beautiful. Correct posture, a balanced diet, hours of sleep and exercise will (if consistently carried out) contribute to physical well-being.

To be able to discipline one's self is to increase vitality and thus enhance our powers.

Costumes change with time and eras, but there are certain established conventions which can be adjusted to our own individual needs and for all occasions.

Clothes that are planned to suit a woman's coloring, hair, eyes, skin, contour of figure and age have a quality of appropriateness which gives to her a social and economic standing.

The demands of modern life are creating new ideas for comfortable dress. Garments that will stand the strain of wear and contribute to the health and efficiency of the wearer are demanded by a great number of women who are able to earn outside of the home. Articles that are simply made, convenient for laundry purposes, and easily adjusted are recommended for daily wear.

Shoes should fit without strain. Hats should be light and becoming and the accessories of dress, such as jewelry, belts and neckwear, must be used with discretion, as an over-decorated appearance falls short of adornment.

The value of good grooming brings out the best in appearance and personality. Well-cared-for hair, skin and hands contribute to a feeling of assurance and respect.

While fashion dictates style, we can select colors, materials and patterns which suit our particular type and so set a standard which (if in good taste) will meet the approval of the present day stylist.

Patterns come in a wide variety of styles to suit every figure. The meticulous care which the leading fashion companies have used in issuing instruction sheets with every pattern, makes dressmaking today a joy and genuine satisfaction.

Whether we make a garment for the sheer pleasure of it, or whether we desire to effect economy, some fundamental rules of needlecraft, cutting, fitting and finishing must be understood and faithfully carried out in order to preserve the harmony of the ensemble.

The Course in Clothing offers our girls the knowledge that will help them to ascertain values, to recognize texture in materials, to be economical in buying, to be well-dressed and to be independent, whether they are to assume the responsibilities of a home, or in business. They will learn to relate facts, appreciate values, plan their budget, and to develop powers of judgment as well as a spirit of investigation.

M. Louise Walter.

Julia Richman High School.

Opportunities and Awards in Mathematics at Alexander Hamilton High School

At Alexander Hamilton High School there are many opportunities for the talented pupil to do work in mathematics that is far beyond the requirements of the regular syllabus. There are some group activities of an advanced nature, and other activities which require individual work and study. In addition, several awards are available for outstanding achievements in the classroom and out.

The two organizations devoted to the extra-curricular study of mathematics are the Mathematics Club and the Geometry Circle. The latter, as the name implies, is concerned primarily with the study of geometry, while the former spends most of its time in the field of algebra. At the meetings of these clubs, discussions are held on topics more advanced than those regularly studied and the usual classroom subjects receive a more intensive treatment. Topics such as the cases of factoring, now omitted from the curriculum, the u-v method of solving quadratic equations, finding the square root of a binomial surd, letter multiplication and division, and puzzle problems of the "Sam Lloyd" type are taken up by the Mathematics Club. At the meetings of the Geometry Circle some of the subjects presented are the nine point circle, the Euler line, homeoethetic figures, fallacies, and Ceva's theorem. Life histories of great mathematicians also appear on the programs of both societies. The clubs, furthermore, discuss topics not required by the Board of Regents, but which are demanded by the College Entrance Examination Board. In this way the boys are able to keep in touch with mathematics even if they are not enrolled in some mathematics course. At the same time they can prepare themselves for College Entrance Examinations should they desire to do so.

Another function of the Mathematics Club is to develop candidates for the Mathematics Team which participates in the Inter-Scholastic Algebra Contests. The members of the team are selected by daily contests among the members of the Club. A weekly meeting, however, is devoted to work which is not intended as a special preparation for mathematics contests.

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Another mathematical activity conducted at the Alexander Hamilton High School for the benefit of the bright student is the publication of a paper called the *Hamilton Trigon*. In this paper, a four-page magazine, there is ample opportunity for the ambitious pupil with a literary bent to express himself. Here the boys have a chance to write up any interesting current mathematical news, historical outlines, biographical sketches, opinions on controversial mathematical questions, problems and puzzles, or any topic relating to mathematics. The *Trigon*, printed twice a term and sold for five cents a copy, receives the support of the mathematics student body.

A semi-annual activity which arouses a great deal of enthusiasm among the boys is an algebra contest. This match, which is open to the entire student body, is an elimination contest conducted in the following manner: The examples or problems are written on the board and a time limit is set for each exercise. The answers are marked after each example. Contestants are eliminated after getting five examples wrong. The three who last the longest receive gold, silver and bronze medals respectively.

Besides the medals given to the successful competitors in the Algebra Contest, there are several other awards for excellent work in Mathematics. The *Hamilton Trigon* prints the names of those students who received 100% in the Regents' Examination and presents each of them with a certificate of merit. To the seniors who have actively participated in the work of either one of the mathematics clubs, the General Organization of the school awards certificates of service. The graduating members of the mathematics team receive, in addition, a book on some phase of mathematics. The Geometry Circle, too, offers three medals, gold, silver, and bronze, to the three members doing the best work in this organization. To the graduate whose work in mathematics and science has been outstanding, the Rensallear Medal for achievement in mathematics and science is presented.

The most coveted prize of all is a gold watch offered to the senior, at commencement, for excellence in Mathematics. This prize is based upon marks received in regular mathematics courses, participation in extra-curricular activities, and a comprehensive examination which includes such topics as the history of mathematics, analytic geometry and differential calculus. In preparation for this examination, the candidates must do a great deal of studying in these topics by themselves. This watch is given by one of the school's organizations, the Bookroom Club, which is under the guidance of the chairman of the Mathematics department. The senior receiving the prize also has his name engraved upon the School Honor Roll, which is likewise provided by the Bookroom Club. A second prize of a gold medal is presented by one of the alumni to the second best graduate.

It is evident from the above outline of activities in the field of mathematics that no student at Alexander Hamilton High School who shows a greater ability than the average need suffer from the lack of opportunities in which to develop his mathematical proclivities.

AARON SHAPIRO.

Alexander Hamilton High School.

The First Lesson in a Beginners' German Course

The question of what to do with a first term German class on the first day of school has occupied the minds of many teachers, especially of tyros! Our attempt here is not to formalize a routine to be imitated by others but to outline a method which was used effectively by the writer and which may serve to help others.

German suffers from a tradition which it is difficult to break down, namely, students believe that it is "even harder than Latin" and that nothing short of superhuman effort can give appreciable results. In order to restore confidence in these students it was found efficacious to challenge the class with the question: "Who thinks he does not know any German?" Most pupils are modest enough to admit that they do not and thus an opportunity presents itself to the teacher to show the students how much they really know. This challenge is a good form of motivation and the class is ready for action. The teacher then reads and places on the board sentences like these:

Der Ring ist von Gold.
Das Nest ist warm.
Der Wanderer hat ein Horn.
Die butter ist bitter.
Die Hand hat fünf Finger.
Der Winter ist kalt.

When asked for the meaning of these, which they readily knew, their faces beam with joy and the barrier of fear has been lowered. When, in addition, the teacher writes these sentences on the blackboard and the students behold that German uses the same form of writing as the English (and not script) then the barrier is completely broken down and German becomes a subject which can be studied, mastered, and enjoyed like any other. Having established confidence a good question is: "Why do we study German?" Various answers will be given by the students such as the following:

A knowledge of German helps us in a better understanding of English.

A knowledge of German aids us in studying medicine, higher mathematics, chemistry, and the like.

It is an asset for those who travel.

These and other answers will be easily elicited, but the direct answer will perhaps not be obtained. It will therefore fall upon the teacher to explain that the aim, above all, is to bring about an understanding of the institutions, the habits, and customs of the people speaking the language and a realization that each nation has different customs and traditions which we must understand if we are to bring the much desired brotherhood of mankind nearer to reality.

Through a concrete example the teacher can clinch the point. He may tell the class that Americans in Germany are stupefied by the fact that during the long intermissions in the theatre the German people suddenly

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produce packages, boxes, and bags out of which they bring forth food which they devour heartily. To the American such behavior is uncouth. The teacher's explanation will reveal that it is only natural to these people for in Germany places of business are closed between twelve and two since the German loves his Gemütlichkeit. This extra time is made up by closing these places later at night. If a German who loves the theatre wishes to see a performance he must go there directly after business since the theatres open earlier than they do in the United States. Every country has customs peculiar to itself and the teacher may cite the example of the Chinese who shake their own hands because it is unsanitary to shake the hands of others.

A fine procedure after this is to hand out outline maps of Germany and perhaps give an idea of its size, boundaries, and reasons for its importance.

If time permits the German alphabet may be presented to the class in this manner:

A, B, C, D, E, F, G,
H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P,
Q, R, S, T, U, V, W,
X, Y, Z.

BARUCH SCHACHTER.
George Washington High School.

An Experiment in Class Journalism

Probably the most effective way of teaching composition is by the project method; probably the most vitalized project is the class newspaper. The writer achieved such gratifying results by means of this device last semester that he feels impelled to describe it, in the hope that it may be of some benefit to those teachers who, while realizing the value of the project method, are getting somewhat weary of class books on such startling subjects as "The Home Beautiful."

This particular experiment had a most auspicious beginning, for the desire for it came directly from the students. A few remarks about what they *might* do, if they were really interested, served to spread the enthusiasm until nine-tenths of the class were as eager to be on the staff as the boy who suggested the idea.

A period was spent in organization. The class submitted suggestions for the name of the paper, which was selected by a majority vote. Then a staff was elected consisting of an editor-in-chief, two associate editors, a boys' sports editor, a girls' sports editor, a humor editor, an art editor, and two typists. Every remaining member of the class was to consider himself a reporter. Students who belong to clubs (and nearly every one belonged to at least one) were asked to cover those activities for each issue. It was decided that the paper would be published bi-weekly.

Then arose the question, what are we going to write about in the paper? Some were in favor of making it strictly a class paper and limiting it to news of the class, but it was finally decided, after much vigorous discussion, to include all news of the school. In addition to news, the class decided the paper must have a page of humor. Further than that, their plans were vague. There was talk of poetry and stories, and one student even suggested a serial story. The writer, wishing to make it an all-student affair, refrained from making additional suggestions, hoping that the paper would grow in the hands of the students.

The first issue was a slim affair, consisting of four sheets. On the first page appeared an editorial and various news articles. Page two contained club reports; page three was the sport page, and the last sheet was covered by a full-page cartoon, the contribution of the art editor. In appearance, issue No. 1 was quite mediocre. It was typed in one column (right across the page), and it had headings, or titles, rather than headlines. It had a top title sheet, so that, in fact, it resembled a magazine more than a newspaper.

The issue was read to the class in its entirety by the editor-in-chief. (Later issues were read only in part, for lack of time, since they were increasingly bulky, and then posted on the bulletin board in the English room where all had free access to them.) Suggestions were then in order for the improvement of the "sheet." These came in great abundance from the eager students.

It might be interesting to note that, upon the appearance of the first issue on the bulletin board, the contagion for a class newspaper spread to the remaining four classes (all second year) taught by the writer. The result was that soon five class newspapers fluttered gaily from the bulletin boards of the English room.

The growth of these class papers was indeed remarkable. The first issues were very plain and hardly worthy of mention; the last issues were such fine pieces of work that they called forth much comment and praise when they were displayed at the annual convention of the New York City Association of Teachers of English. In every issue changes were made and new features added. For instance, the students very soon decided to discard the top sheet and to make their bulletin more like a real newspaper by having the name right at the top of the first news page; with this same view in mind, the editor laid out his paper in three column form, instead of writing across the page. Soon the idea of real headlines arose, and from the one column head to the three column streamer was but a step.

In about the third issue an ingenious editor obtained a Photomaton picture of the newly elected G. O. President and from then on photographs of all kinds were regular features. These were pasted on the pages of the newspaper.

Each issue saw the papers expanded. Soon there was a page devoted to *Movie Reviews;* another was headed *Book Corner;* still another *Tuning in,* and so on. From insignificant four-page issues these newspapers grew to issues of twenty and thirty pages. And what is more remarkable, they came out *regularly* every two weeks. That was the true test of their worth;

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it is comparatively simple to get out one issue, but a different matter to publish nine issues in one term.

One of the reasons the issues often attained such bulk was that the columns of the class newspapers were used for publishing such class themes and other written work as merited the distinction. The motivation thus provided resulted in much improved composition work. Another reason for the growth of the newspaper was that the various editorial staffs were encouraged to imitate the good features of the others. Thus, five editorial boards being better than one, there soon appeared such features as serial stories, hobby pages (including a very interesting display of stamps in one issue), mathematical riddles, question and answer page, a Dame Gossip column, The Inquiring Reporter, Poetry Page, Short Story Contest, What Teachers Think, Fashion Page, Class Knocks, Tin Types (à la Skolsky) of Class Personalities, and others which their endless ingenuity devised.

The art editors had ample opportunity for fine work. In addition to making the heading, lettering the headlines, planning the lay-out, they embellished the various issues by writing appropriate marginal decoration. Thus, the Christmas issue was all holly and ivy, while the final issue was decorated with bespectacled students weeping tears of farewell.

The competitive spirit served as an impetus to better and bigger newspapers. Each class would read the pages of every other class, and they would vie with one another for scoops; very often the school newspaper itself was scooped.

While nearly every student in the class did some work for the class newspaper (even if it were only typing), the most gratifying feature (to the writer, at least) of the whole affair was that the project provided unusual opportunities for the more gifted students whose talents are ordinarily neglected in the rush of things.

JESSE GRUMMETTE.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Group Testing at the Abraham Lincoln High School from February, 1932, to February, 1933

The Otis Self-Administering Test, Higher Form, was given to our students in February, 1932, and again to different pupils in November, 1932. The first test was given to pupils in terms one through four, or to 3221 pupils, including those in the Annex. In the second term (as will be the case in future terms) the test was limited to new entrants in the Main building, or to 653 pupils. Our school median in February, 1932, was 96 I. Q., in November it was 97 I. Q. We are trying to establish age norms for our school, and also percentile ratings, but the results of several years of testing will be needed for that. Our lowest quartile in February, 1932, reached from 67 to 87 I. Q., in November from 74 to 90 I. Q. In each case, the I. Q., name of the test and the date were entered on the back of the Permanent Record sheet.

I made a separate list of all the boys and girls who received below 80 I. Q. on the test given in February. In November, 1932, I followed the same procedure, extending the list to 85 I. Q. as the entire group tested was smaller.

I sent duplicates of these lists to all grade advisers and deans, suggesting that these pupils be interviewed after each marking period.

With this list of names, were sent the following notes:

COPY OF A REPORT SENT OUT AFTER THE FIRST TERM'S TESTING

The Otis Intelligence Test, Higher Examination, Form B, was given to the first four terms on February 17, 1932. The Intelligence Quotient has been entered on the back of the Permanent Record. The following is Terman's Classification:

I. Q. Classification

Above 140	"near" genius or genius
120-140	very superior intelligence
110-120	superior intelligence
90-110	normal or average intelligence
80-90	dullness, rarely feeblemindedness
70-80	borderline deficiency, sometimes classifiable as dullness, often as feeblemindedness
Below 70	definite feeblemindedness

The Intelligence Quotient resulting from a group test is no infallible indication of mental ability, but it is a good check on the teacher's judgment and the pupil's scholarship record. It is to be used as an additional bit of information about the student, to help us in guiding him, but it never gives a complete picture of an individual.

How to Use It

For Low I. Q. Pupils in

1. Giving limited programs to pupils below 80 I. Q.
2. Referring pupils to teacher of vocational guidance.
3. Giving differentiated programs which take cognizance of manual or artistic excellence.
4. Transferring to trade or other schools where adaptation may be more successful.
5. Adding emphasis in discussion with parent that course of study should be changed or that the hope of college entrance is ill founded.
6. Urging extra-curricular activities.
7. Special grouping for repeaters and different courses and texts for them.
8. Special prefect and subject groups for pupils on suspense register while they are looking for jobs.
9. Placing in special schools or institutions for atypical children.
10. Decreasing truancy and retardation by individual attention to needs of pupil.
11. Referring special cases of truancy, or retardation, or emotional block to Mental Office for individual psychological tests, home visits, physical examination, and psychiatric treatment, where necessary.

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For High I. Q. Pupils in

1. Giving permission for graduation in less than four years.
2. Giving special program privileges in individual cases and recognition of talent.
3. Urging entrance into honor societies of school and competition for medals, awards, and college scholarships.
4. Urging failing students with high I. Q.'s to reach their true level of accomplishment and investigating causes of previous failure. This may necessitate a close scrutiny of relationship with teachers, home conditions, physical disabilities, emotional disturbances, etc.
5. Enriching curriculum by special courses, such as Journalism, Play Writing, etc., and clubs for pupils with special abilities.

At the end of the term, in June, 1932, I took out the requested new program cards of these low I. Q. pupils, and with the aid of the dean and grade adviser made out a program for each student that we thought he could carry with some success. In some cases, we limited the number of major subjects to three; for some we added electives such as Shop, Printing, Art Weaving, Sewing, Cooking, Typewriting, etc. We followed the same procedure in January, 1933, making special programs for the low I. Q. group resulting from the November tests.

The group tests were given after the students had attended school for about a month, so that the nervousness arising from a test in a totally unfamiliar environment would be avoided. The test was given in the English room by the English teacher who had been given a manual of instructions and a sample of the test several days before. All scoring was done in the Student Welfare Office by a very small group of teachers and pupils.

For the pupils of high intelligence, we tried to do the following: The deans and grade advisers received a list of those who had attained 120 I. Q. and above, so they could see whether these students had achieved the distinction of being in Honor Classes, or the Arista, or were working on school publications or the like. If a pupil on this list had not become affiliated with any such group, the dean or adviser called for an interview, during which the pupil was informed of awards, scholarships, etc., which he might easily attain if he exerted himself to the extent we knew he was capable of. This term we are interviewing all high I. Q. pupils (those above 120) and sending them to the Vocational Counselor for advice early in their school career.

At the end of the term, where a great discrepancy was noted between the I. Q. and the scholastic achievement, the pupil was interviewed and either retested with a different form of the same test or given the individual Binet-Simon examination.

After consulting the term's achievement, the I. Q. and other records such as that of absence, health, and the like, we have within the year adjusted and modified the programs of about 300 low I. Q. pupils. In each case the Program Committee honored all requests coming from the Student Welfare Office, and no matter how varied the programs were, showed the greatest coöperation and a sincere desire to make the program of a large school as flexible as possible.

Our deans and grade advisers have had many occasions to use the information on the I. Q. of a pupil, and have grown very familiar with these pupils on either the low or high I. Q. Lists. Many of the pupils interviewed later transferred, with the consent of their parents, to technical or industrial high schools, and have written to us of their gratification and pleasure in the new vocation they have selected. This transfer of pupils is a direct outcome of our group tests, as the advisers had had several interviews with the pupils thus brought to their attention.

Most of the pupils on the low I. Q. level stay with us because of economic difficulties, but with a carefully limited program suited to their individual needs, they may, if regular in attendance and persevering in their efforts, sustain themselves for a period of several years without the feeling of failure and defeat they might otherwise have suffered.

MOLLY TULCHIN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Flying at Bushwick

Harnessing interest in an after-school activity is often rewarded by an overwhelming student enthusiasm. The student who is apparently a scholastic loss has some "high point" in his make-up. The teacher fortunate enough to discover this outstanding quality may be further rewarded by the satisfaction of the carry-over of this interest into other subjects. The Aviation Club at Bushwick is achieving success in such correlation.

Aviation has magnetic attraction and is adaptable as an extra-curricular activity. The club members are of widely varying grades and intelligence. The organization is run on a purely democratic basis—the presiding officers having complete charge. The results of popular choice were not very encouraging at the outset to the club's adviser, owing to the fact that the "best" were not chosen. The great surprise came, however, when these officers became conscious of the responsibility of their respective offices. They responded in a truly business-like manner. The necessity for good diction and clear thinking became obvious to them. This led to outside preparation of short talks on the history and technique of aircraft.

The club's chief activity is model building, which is conducted after the short business of the regular bi-weekly meetings. Members supply most of their own materials and build models only after they have acquired the groundwork and theory in the principles of flight. Practically all of these models are of original design with the exception of the scale models which are replicas of real aircraft. Self-initiated visits to aircraft factories and airports have provided

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additional interest. The outstanding event of the semester is a contest in which all members may enter their best models. Prize models are put on exhibition in the trophy case in the school corridor.

Recently the club prepared the program for one of the school's assemblies. Short talks on various phases of aviation were given by five of its members. Then several flight demonstrations of various types of aircraft were made. The assembly as a whole was a very lively and enthusiastic one, each exhibit and flight having been roundly applauded by the audience.

The club is now completing its fifth term of activity. Some of the older members, now graduated or out of school, are in the aviation industry or in professional aviation schools.

MARTIN KRAMER.

Bushwick High School.

Winding Up the Term in a Publication Office

With the commencement of the new term, the work of the faculty adviser of student publications begins anew. Regardless of the fine and efficient system developed during the previous term the entire structure is to be rebuilt the following term. Because the faculty adviser is not a full-time publications worker, and because very often the faculty adviser has other assignments at the beginning of the term, many things arise at that time which are of necessity postponed. This postponement in turn occupies subsequent time and thus overcrowds the schedule.

With a view to expediting matters, the forward looking faculty adviser will realize that certain matters can be done prior to the commencement of the term.

Instead of sitting back and availing himself of a well-deserved rest from a strenuous term's activities, the adviser can spend the last week or two of the term planning and preparing for the following term. The sooner he starts the new term's activities, the prompter will be the response of the staff and of the student body. Activity breeds activity. When the staff sees an indolent faculty adviser they react similarly. When they behold, however, an active and energetic faculty adviser they realize that they have to be fast-moving to keep pace with him. Furthermore, certain activities cannot wait for the opening of the term. These call for attention at the earliest possible moment. The most propitious time for such work would be when the "last issue is off the press."

In schools where the G.O. has its own membership campaign, where the athletic activities try to sell season tickets independently of the G. O., and where the several other activities have to fight their way and compete with one another, the publications office (which very often is nothing more than what the faculty adviser wants to make of it) will find it of advantage to be ready to start the campaign the very first day of the term, to "get the jump of the other activities."

With this in mind, the undersigned has prepared for himself a "check list" of things to be done by him before he leaves for the summer vacation so that when the new term starts he will be in readiness for another busy season. He is submitting them for the possible service these suggestions may render to other individuals similarly situated.

1. Secure applications for placement on the Publication Staff. Prepare and hold examinations for placement on Publication Staff.
2. Send follow-up letters to delinquent advertisers who haven't paid their bills.
3. Bills to advertisers.
4. Preparation of list of Publication Staff members entitled to awards for having rendered exceptional services.
5. Preparation of list of class representatives entitled to awards for having secured the highest percentage of subscriptions in the school.
6. Preparation of Commendation Cards to staff members for excellence in Publications.
7. Note to English Teachers requesting from them names of good writers and also some commendable manuscripts received during the term in the course of the regular work in English.
8. Mimeograph all Publications forms:
   a. Instructions to Class Publication Representatives.
   b. Instructions to Circulation Staff.
   c. Instructions to News Writers.
   d. Questionnaire to teachers concerning extra-curricular activities in their charge.
   e. Advertisement insertion orders.
   f. Petty cash vouchers.
   g. Summary of cash receipts for the day.
   h. Notification of acceptance of manuscripts submitted for magazine.
   i. Rejection notice.
   j. Staff meeting notice.
9. Preparation of a letter to be sent to potential magazine writers concerning their writing between terms for the coming issue.
10. Preparation of calendar for coming term.
11. Tentative appointments to the staff for the coming term.
12. Note to staff members concerning their programming for the coming term.
13. Meeting new members and assignment of feature articles for the coming term.
14. Preparation of a list of advertising prospects and distributing them to advertising staff for work between terms.
15. Call in class "pay cards."
16. Call for class Publications representatives and have them close their accounts.
17. Notify office of names of delinquent subscribers so that any person owing money to Publi-

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cations is not discharged from the school.

18. Secure a transcript from the G. O. treasurer of funds sent to him in the course of the term and compare with records of the Publications Business Manager.
19. Prepare a report for the term's activities.
20. Have all desks and closets cleaned.
21. Work up a "morgue."

I. DAVID SATLOW.

Bushwick High School.

A La Carte

In the *Atlantic Monthly* some years ago appeared an essay called "Straining at the Tether." The author observed, as he was sitting on a gentle hillside overlooking the glorious Bermuda waters, "Surely it is very odd that every goat in sight is straining at its tether. The grass is fresh and toothsome, and none is fastened in a bare spot; there are no bare spots. Why should they do this thing? Yet every goat is straining at its tether."

This picture has often recurred to me as I marveled at the restless energy of the young people who in recent years have come under my supervision. They have such an abundance of opportunity, comfortable, attractive classrooms, the very best of modern text-books and equipment, all the culture of the past offered in a far more pleasing form than a quarter of a century ago, yet they are unhappy, bored, indolent, constantly seeking an outlet from the monotony of their existence. "The grass is fresh and toothsome. There are no bare spots. Yet every goat is straining at its tether."

Because of this situation, and frankly, because I too occasionally strain at the tether against a routine sameness, I like to vary my methods of presentation in my English classes from term to term.

Someone has said that "a schoolboy is a person who can tell everything in the order in which he learned it," and that this is the lowest form of association. This definition is applicable to a vast majority, and it is in an effort to offset this mechanical tendency that varied devices have been used in my English classes.

The first term offers a fertile field for experimentation because the boys and girls welcome new projects so wholeheartedly that other ideas just naturally spring into being over night. The aims of all these experiments—to establish habits of accuracy, clear thinking, and initiative, to stimulate originality and to foster leadership—are such obvious objectives that it is scarcely necessary to mention them, but underlying all the devices used were one or more of these fundamental aims.

All young people delight in games. That is a self-evident fact, so, when a group reacts lethargically to spelling, my favorite device is an automobile race. This game is not original, but one that I observed when visiting a New Jersey teacher. The class is divided into two groups. The best speller from each group acts as chauffeur, and he selects a name for the racing car. The names of the competing cars are placed on the board. Then four passengers from each group go to the board, write simultaneously each word that is dictated, then return promptly to their places. No changes or erasures are permitted. The chauffeurs, with my help, check the words, for every correct word five miles are credited to the car's record. For a side totalling one hundred per cent, a bonus of fifty miles is added. This game is always enthusiastically received.

Another method of stimulating interest in spelling is to have anagram races. One row at a time is given this privilege. Each pupil has a set of anagrams which I purchased at the ten cent store. They race to see how many words listed in the English Handbook they can make in twenty minutes. A leader acts as inspector and keeps a record. This game is permitted as an award to the row scoring highest on a written test. It promotes quickness and accuracy.

Written descriptions are frequently boring and inexact, and, when descriptions are read in class, very few except the teacher listen attentively unless some unexpected stimulus is applied. Desire to eradicate this general indifference led to the introduction of a game called "Can You Guess?" Descriptions were written and read, and the class had to guess the object described. We found it stimulating and amusing. The following is one written by a first-term pupil:

Its face is like a plate; its hands are very thin.
It tells you when to come to school and when your work begins.
To me it's always smiling. How does it seem to you?
I'm sure you all agree with me when duty comes to view.
For instance in the morning, when it's time to go to school,
Do you always greet it as you should or greet it as a tool,
Do you turn it down upon its face to stop its noisy bell?
If you can't guess what this is, I'm sure I'll not tell.

Literature, like composition, tends to monotony at times and needs variety in presentation.

"Treasure Island" always has its appeal to young people, but so many of them have made its acquaintance before coming to high school that they are apt to rely on their previous and sometimes hazy knowledge unless it is approached from some new angle. About the most enjoyable term that I can recall was a year and a half ago when an enthusiastic little group organized themselves into a band of pirates and adopted names suitable to their bloodthirsty calling. The band consisted of such members as Blackheart McGinty, Terrible Dick, Murder and Death, and Cutlass Kate. They decided to live on an island, so hurriedly transformed the classroom into one to suit their fancy. Due to lack of space, a tent was substituted for the blockhouse, but it was well guarded at all times by a stockade and by a sentinel, John Silver, carved realistically out of wood and stationed at the entrance to the tent. Skulls were scattered freely around the stock-

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ade, and bones made from wood and painted hung from the molding. Guns, of all sizes and varieties, and the inevitable daggers were there. Even a tree, on whose branches sat a parrot made from real feathers, stood near the entrance to the tent. The pirates banded together and made a large chest in which to conceal their treasures. Everyone agreed to make and contribute an article, and each had to be accompanied by a written explanation of why this particular treasure was buried in the chest. On a definite date the chest was brought in with great ceremony by the leader, and the articles were displayed. The accompanying exposition, letter, or poem was read, the treasures were wrapped, and the chest was closed. Some of the contributions were quite amusing. One boy contributed a black, ponderous looking tome made from a cardboard box. On the front was a skull with crossbones, and a dirk inscribed with the title "Buccaneers' Bible" was emblazoned in white ink. Accompanying this was the following rhyme:

"I'm Terrible Dick of the Spanish Main;
I've notched my gun for all I've slain.
With my ship under foot and the tide at flood,
I cruise around in a sea of blood.
My crew never questions the orders I give,
They know to refuse is to cease to live;
We fight with others, but peace reigns on board;
They know I'm Master and the law's my sword.
All Buccaneers who come after me
Must follow this creed to conquer the sea."

Then the band divided into groups to write their history, each group being responsible for one chapter of the story. A committee heard the plans of each group and suggested changes to make the story cohere. An interesting account of an imaginary voyage resulted.

Devices are by no means confined to the lower terms; on the contrary, the maturity of the pupils heightens the possibilities. In the fourth term, classics that lend themselves to varied experiments are "A Tale of Two Cities" and "A Son of the Middle Border."

Today, perhaps more than at any time in the history of our nation, school should play a prominent part in developing sound character, in assisting young people to find some of the enduring satisfactions of life, in teaching them to weigh values and to discover the underlying causes of genuine success and to dissociate it from the purely superficial success which is so ephemeral. In a recent number of the *Journal of the National Educational Association*, the statement was made that "our schools must be dedicated primarily to educating men and women so that they may work and live together more successfully in and through the institution of a civilization that must be constantly adapted to changing conditions." A school must aim mainly at the fullest possible development of a social rather than a selfish personality. These classics, "A Tale of Two Cities" and "Son of the Middle Border," certainly are illustrative of the importance both of adapting oneself to changing conditions and of the development of a social personality.

In our discussions during the term, the danger of an attitude of disregard for changing social conditions was pointed out as exemplified by the utter indifference of the French aristocracy just before the Revolution. The lack of leadership among the nobles was considered, and we made emphatic the importance of developing statesmen to lead our country safely and peacefully through future crises similar in magnitude to the one we are now facing. Characters in "A Tale of Two Cities" were studied and their strength and weakness weighed. The interest later centered around the pioneers of the Middle Border, represented by the Garlands, and an attempt was made to discover how they developed the sturdiness to persevere in the face of great odds. Their characteristics were carefully considered, and why these characteristics existed was the source of much discussion. Certain definite conclusions were drawn: first, that the Garlands' home-training—the absolute obedience and respect on the part of the young people and the very wise and sympathetic guidance on the part of the parents—was a contributing factor; second, that the Garlands lived frugally, obtained enjoyment from simple pleasures, avoided debt, and developed in their home a spirit of harmony and sincere affection.

Compositions on these topics followed the discussions: "Home-life Then and Now," "Characteristics Essential to Success," "Character in Relation to School," "Manners and Character," "How I Can Help Economize," and "The Kind of Home I Want." They were divertingly genuine and refreshing.

Here are a few excerpts that give an idea of their sincerity.

A. "I, myself, hope that some day I shall have a home and children to be proud of. I fully realize that I can't have such a home and wonderful children by just wishing for it but will have to work for it. If I do have children and a decent home, I shall try to make these children happy, educate them, and train them to face the world. There is one big 'but' in this; children can't be made happy by giving them their own way as many people think. I shall listen to their quarrels or arguments. I shall train them to obey and to have respect for their parents. In case of trouble or any wrong-doing, I hope they will not try to hide it, but that they will come and confide in their parents and learn the right thing."

B. "Happy children can more easily do their school work and think better for themselves. They will not take their troubles too seriously, either. Some people do not realize how important it is for children to have a happy home life."

C. "I hope to be a 'buddy' to my son, to share in his misfortune and to profit by his reward. This partnership between father and son and mother and daughter is a very important factor in home development."

D. "I want to do my little bit now to economize. The largest expense in a budget, excluding food and rent, is clothing. Within the past few months I have been making my own dresses,

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and I don't find it hard work in the least, but really enjoyable. As everyone else is taking a cut, I can see no reason why I can't take one too. Last week my allowance was cut, which makes me like everyone else."

Jane Addams in "The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets" said, "We may either smother the divine fire of youth or we may feed it. We may either stand stupidly staring as it sinks into a murky fire of crime and folly, or we may tend it into lambent flame with power to make bright our city streets." Literature is a power which fans that "lambent flame." In fact, I shall go further and say that projects keep the flame from dying, for they supply an outlet for the pent-up energy and prevent the fire of youth from smothering. Opportunities to lead and to initiate new ideas "feed the divine fire."

HELEN E. REETS.
Richmond Hill High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

New Federal Office of Education Service

How the Federal Government is moving swiftly and vigorously through ten new agencies and established departments to pull the United States out of depression will be reported this year in *School Life*, official monthly journal of the Federal Office of Education. The articles are especially planned to help teachers of history, civics and current events who wish to keep their pupils informed about the swift changes in national affairs.

September *School Life* carries articles on "Ten Thumbnail Sketches of the Ten New Agencies of Government," "The Children's Code," describing the effect of the child-labor ban, and "Public Works Funds for Schools." *School Life* will also tell how to obtain free, or at small cost, the laws, important documents, and mimeograph material describing the new work of the Government.

Articles on the changes in Government will supplement *School Life's* regular service of condensed findings of Federal Office of Education studies for easy reading. Regular features include: New Government Aids for Teachers (maps, pamphlets, films, exhibits), Electrifying Education, Recent Theses in Education, Have You Read?, and Education Abroad.

The fee for *School Life* remains the same—50 cents per year for 10 issues. Subscriptions to begin with the September issue should be entered now with the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. (Check or Money Order.)

Lectures at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, 1933-1934

The Metropolitan Museum of Art offers for the season of 1933-34 a varied and comprehensive program of lectures, gallery talks, study hours, and story hours planned for the interest and pleasure of the general public and of students concerned with the history and appreciation of art and with its practical application. Several courses are being given this year for the first time, and others have been extended in their scope.

Members of the Museum are invited to study, in courses planned especially to meet their needs, Painting in France and the Netherlands or the Mediaeval Spirit and other subjects presented in gallery talks at the Museum or at The Cloisters. Also for Members are study hours on color and its use, and for their children story hours and gallery talks given on Saturday mornings.

The free lectures on Saturday and Sunday afternoons will be presented, as in former years, by speakers of distinction in their fields. Among them will be Laurence Binyon, Walter Pach, William B. Dinsmoor, Rhys Carpenter, Günther Roeder, Royal Cortissoz, Ananda Coomaraswamy, Porphyrios Dikios, and Edward Alden Jewell.

Study hours for practical workers, gallery talks on the collections, lectures for the deaf and deafened, and story hours for boys and girls are other free courses to be offered on Saturdays and Sundays.

To teachers in the public schools of the City of New York, and to teachers and students in the College of the City of New York and Hunter College a number of courses are open without charge, and the successful completion of these will be accepted by the Board of Education as fulfillment of the study requirements for increments in salary. These courses are available also to students of other institutions and to the public on payment of a fee of twenty dollars for each course.

Among the most practical courses offered by the Museum are the study hours on design and color, arranged for employees of stores and of manufacturers. In 1933-1934 this group will include evening courses presented in coöperation with the Art-in-Trades Club and The Art Directors' Club. These study-hours are conducted by Grace Cornell, of the Museum staff, assisted by specialists in various fields. They are planned to show the relationship of the principles of design and color to the problems of designing, producing, and selling merchandise.

Two groups of motion pictures will be shown at the Museum: those produced by the Museum, dealing with various phases and periods of art, on Thursdays; and those made by Yale University, the Chronicles of America photoplays, on the first and third Tuesday of each month.

Finally, supplementing the talks given in the Museum, brief accounts of current exhibitions, recent acquisitions, and other subjects of particular interest are to be broadcast regularly over three station, WEAF, WOR, and WNYC.

An Announcement by the United Parents Associations of New York City

The Child Development Institute of Teachers College, Columbia Uni-

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versity, will assume direction of the training of mothers and fathers who serve as discussion chairmen of the study groups of the United Parents Associations for 1933-34, it is announced by Mrs. Roger A. Johnson, president of the Federation.

Of the 171 Parent Associations connected with the schools of the city and belonging to the Federation, an increasing number have established smaller, more intimate groups within their organizations for intensive study of child development and family relationships. In each of these study groups two members are chosen to lead discussion and these have been trained, in the four years since the activity was inaugurated, by a member of the professional staff of the United Parents Associations. For the coming year, this phase of the work will be directed by the Child Development Institute, but the organization will continue to contribute to its support. The service is offered free of charge to the individuals in training.

Immediate conduct of the work under the new arrangement will be in the hands of LeRoy E. Bowman, who is added to the staff of the Institute for this purpose. Mr. Bowman has for three years been identified with the Federation as a member of its governing board and an active participant in the work of a number of committees. As director of the Institute, Dr. Lois Hayden Meek will supervise the work, which is placed in the unit headed by Ernest G. Osborne, associate in child development and parent education.

Other members of the staff of the Institute and some advanced students in parent education will assist in the consultation and supervision of the groups. The study group committee of the United Parents Associations will continue active promotion of interest in this intensive form of parent education among the member associations.

Opportunity will be afforded for the training of a considerably larger number of leaders than in previous years. In the 1929-30 term when the activity was begun, there were twenty-eight study groups and this number had grown to fifty-one groups in the past year, of which ninety-five leaders were in training, and, in addition, 37 prospective leaders attended classes.

Careful records of progress will be kept so that the Institute and the organization may determine the most successful procedures for training lay persons for leadership in parent study groups.

A significant development of the work as planned by Mr. Bowman will be in inclusion this fall of fathers in the local study groups and in the classes for the training of leaders. While men have taken an increasingly active part in the work of parents' associations in general, especially in the past year, in part as a result of the activity of a fathers' committee of which Mr. Bowman was chairman, they have not hitherto participated in the study groups.

For the convenience of fathers who wish to take part in this phase of the

work, one or more classes for discussion chairmen will be held in the evening.

Changes

I should like to do something unusual for a teacher: utter a few words in defense of our present educational system. We are so apt to criticize details of technique and other things that we forget the great strides that have been made in the last century. This progress is most forcibly brought to light by the following quotation from Marx. If we have advanced so far in one century, what may we not do, perhaps with movies, radio, television, in another?

"Previous to the passing of the Factory Act, 1844, it happened, not infrequently, that the certificates of attendance at school were signed by the schoolmaster or schoolmistress with a cross, as they themselves were unable to write. 'On one occasion, on visiting a place called a school, from which certificates of school attendance had issued, I was so struck with the ignorance of the master, that I said to him: "Pray, sir, can you read?" His reply was: "Aye, summat!" . . . The inspectors, when the Bill of 1844 was in preparation, did not fail to represent the disgraceful state of the places called schools, certificates from which they were obliged to admit as a compliance with the laws, but they were successful only in obtaining thus much, that since the passing of the Act of 1844, the figures in the school certificate must be filled up in the handwriting of the schoolmaster, who must also sign his Christian and surname in full.' Sir John Kincaid, factory inspector for Scotland, relates experiences of the same kind. 'The first school we visited was kept by a Mrs. Ann Killin. Upon asking her to spell her name, she straightway made a mistake, by beginning with the letter C, but correcting herself immediately, she said her name began with a K. On looking at her signature, however, in the school certificate books, I noticed that she spelt it in various ways, while her handwriting left no doubt as to her unfitness to teach. She herself acknowledged that she could not keep the register. . . . In a second school I found the schoolroom 15 feet long and 10 feet wide, and counted in the space 75 children, who were gabbling something unintelligible.' . . . I have been in many schools where I have seen rows of children doing absolutely nothing; and this is certified as school attendance, and, in statistical returns, such children are set down as being educated." . . .

Another interesting quotation, relevant to education, is the following. It casts some doubt on the axiom of educators that a 40-minute drill achieves twice as much as a 20-minute drill.

"The factory inspectors soon found out by questioning the schoolmasters, that the factory children, although receiving only one-half the education of the regular day scholars, yet learnt quite as much and often more. 'This can be accounted for by the simple fact that, with only being at school for one-half of the day, they are always

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fresh, and nearly always ready and willing to receive instruction. The system on which they work, half manual labor and half school, renders each employment a rest and a relief to the other; consequently, both are far more congenial to the child than would be the case were he kept constantly at one. It is quite clear that a boy who has been at school all the morning cannot (in hot weather particularly) cope with one who comes fresh and bright from his work.' Further information on this point will be found in Senior's speech at the Social Science Congress at Edinburgh in 1863. He there shows, amongst other things, how the monotonous and uselessly long school hours of the children of the upper and middle classes, uselessly add to the labor of the teacher, 'while he not only fruitlessly, but absolutely injuriously, wastes the time, health, and energy of the children.' From the Factory system budded, as Robert Owen has shown us in detail, the germ of the education of the future, an education that will, in the case of every child over a given age, combine productive labor with instruction and gymnastics, not only as one of the methods of adding to the efficiency of production, but as the only method of producing fully developed human beings."

H. D. GROSSMAN.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English

Recent Experiments and Experiences in English Teaching will be the theme of the twenty-third annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English to be held in the Statler Hotel, Detroit, November 30-December 2.

At the opening session on Thanksgiving Day evening, Professors R. L. Lyman of the University of Chicago and Charles Swain Thomas of Harvard will discuss outstanding recent research in language, composition, and literature, and Dr. Dora V. Smith of the University of Minnesota will point out promising innovations in English teaching. President Walter Barnes' address will deal with English research and the National Council.

Professor C. C. Fries of the University of Michigan, whose forthcoming book, *Inflections and Syntax of American English*, is expected to cause as much discussion among educators as did *Current English Usage*, the survey published by the Council last year, will report on the organization's study of usage. Dr. Thomas A. Knott, general editor of Webster's *New International Dictionary*, will report for the committee on College English. Among those who will take part in the conferences and section meetings are Professor John T. Frederick, editor of *The Midland Monthly*, Dr. Janet Rankin Aiken, inventor of a new simplified grammar plan, Bess Goodykoontz, of the U. S. Bureau of Education, M. R. Robinson, editor of *Scholastic*, Mary Lamberton Becker, of the *Saturday Review of Literature*, and Howard R. Driggs, author of *Oregon Trail* and *Ox-Team Days*.

Of interest to educators generally, in view of the public attention recently focussed on children's reactions to movies by publication of the findings of the Motion Picture Research Council, will be the report of the Council's novel experiments in cultivating photoplay appreciation through English classes of fifty high schools. The report will be presented by William Lewin, of Newark, chairman. The use of radio as an adjunct to the classroom will be discussed by Max J. Herzberg, chairman of the newly formed Radio Committee.

The annual banquet on Friday evening will be devoted to the human and humorous sides of English teaching. Among the speakers will be Professor Franklin T. Baker, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who will relate some reminiscences of the long teaching career which has brought him a national reputation.

The sessions will be interspersed with sightseeing and social gatherings and will close with a luncheon on Saturday with well-known writers as guests of honor. All who are interested in educational progress are invited to attend the convention, whether they are members of the National Council or not.

The principal air lines are coöperating in arrangements for air travel to Detroit, and for the first time a number of teachers will fly to the annual meeting. The railroads are offering the usual special rates. Full information may be obtained from the National Council offices, 211 West 68th Street, Chicago, or from the Public Relations Committee, 246 Waverly Place, New York City.

The programs for the two evening sessions are as follows:

Thursday, November 30, 8:00 P. M.

Address of Welcome
FRANK H. CODY, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit

Outstanding Recent Research in Language and Composition
P. L. LYMAN, University of Chicago

Outstanding Recent Research in Literature
CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS, Harvard University

Promising Innovations in English Teaching
DORA V. SMITH, University of Minnesota

English Research—and the National Council
WALTER BARNES, New York University

Friday, December 1, Annual Banquet . . . . . 6:15 P. M.

Toastmaster, E. L. MILLER, Asst. Superintendent of Schools, Detroit

The Fun of Professing Books
EDWIN O. GROVER, Rollins College

These Statisticians
BURGES JOHNSON, Syracuse University

The Best I Can Remember
REV. EDGAR DEWITT JONES, Detroit

Teaching Literature — Now and Then
PROFESSOR FRANKLIN T. BAKER, Teachers College, Columbia University

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The conference on School Journalism includes the following discussions: "The School Publication as a House Organ," Gertrude Turner, Abington High School, Philadelphia; "When News Is English," Charles R. Gaston, Roosevelt High School, New York; "Relationship of College Undergraduate Journals to the Classroom," Helen Lockwood, Vassar College; "School Journalism as a Newspaper Man Sees It," Lee White, *Detroit News;* "An Experiment in Building a Journalism Curriculum," Margaret Sullivan, South High School, Cleveland; and "Nosing for News Down the Trails of Literature," Mary Wrinn, New York.

Work Relief Authorized for Unemployed Teachers

Needy, unemployed teachers will be given an opportunity to work for their unemployment relief at their regular occupation, according to an announcement today by Harry L. Hopkins, Federal Emergency Relief Administrator.

Stressing that the primary purpose of his action is to provide the necessities of life to unemployed teachers, Mr. Hopkins made known the fact that he has authorized State relief administrations to pay work-relief wages to teachers who will be assigned to regular school officials to teach in rural schools that have been closed or drastically curtailed. Some of the teachers may be assigned in cities, as well as in rural communities, to teach adults who cannot read and write English.

The expenditures from relief funds will be confined to the minimum needs of the teachers, and no relief money will be allowed for fuel, textbooks, or other school expense.

"I consider this kind of work relief one of the most constructive applications of the principle of exchanging service to the community for public aid," Mr. Hopkins said. "The need for relief to teachers is clearly apparent. Thirty-three States have reported through their education officials that approximately 80,000 teachers are unemployed. Some 15 States have definitely reported shortened school terms, and in some districts this has meant curtailing them to the vanishing point.

"While it is most emphatically not the intention of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration to subsidize the school system in any community or to relieve school officials of their responsibility, I believe that the expenditure of work-relief funds in the interests of destitute teachers will result indirectly in great community benefit.

"In many rural communities the complete closing of schools, virtually means the disintegration of community life for children. No one will ever be able to make up the loss to the children who are deprived of education, for the plastic state of childhood mind comes but once.

"Where schools are closed or terms are reduced to a month or two a year, despite increased enrollment, we have a great paradox. It is the expectation of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration that this paradox can be righted, in some part, by permitting the teachers to give their services on the basis of their relief needs."

Reports from one State showed that out of approximately 2,000 schools, 178 will not open this fall, depriving more than 2,000 pupils of educational facilities. Nearly 500 schools in the same State will open for only four months or less, while only a small percentage will hold the regular nine-months term. These curtailments will result in approximately one-sixth of the teachers being out of jobs, with many of them dependent on public aid for relief.

"While such figures are but a sample, they indicate to some extent the needy teachers who will have to turn to relief for their existence this year," Mr. Hopkins said.

The full text of Mr. Hopkins' communication to Governors and State relief directors follows:

"Your relief commission is authorized to use Federal relief funds now available or to be made available by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration to pay work-relief wages to needy unemployed teachers or other persons competent to teach and assign them to classrooms up through the eighth grade, provided: first, that these teachers are assigned by the relief offices to appropriate educational authorities who will have entire supervision over their activities; second, provided that they are assigned only to those schools which prior to this date have been ordered closed or practically closed for the coming school year because of lack of funds; third, this applies only to rural counties.

"State relief administrations are also authorized and urged to pay from above funds relief-work wages to needy unemployed persons competent to teach adults unable to read and write English. This applies to cities as well as rural counties. Under no circumstances should relief funds be used to relieve counties of their proper responsibility for education, nor should these activities permit the substitution of relief teachers for regularly employed teachers."

Pupil-Teacher Relationships

What is a wholesome personality? What kind of a human are we trying to shape in our classes, in our assemblies, in all the influences of the school? We would say, I suppose, a happy, successful, esteemed girl, the kind of a person who can and does think for herself, preferring the social good to individual indulgence.

And how do we in our relations with our pupils contribute to this personality? It seems to me that in so far as we contribute to their economic success and their personal efficiency we do this—and in so far as we elevate their tastes and build up their ideals of conduct, and stir their souls with beauty, we do this. Thus each day, every moment, to achieve these purposes, we are developing fine habits of work and important standards of achievement, decent ideals of person and conduct, aesthetic tastes for leisure time, an awareness of, and

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conscience for, socially alive issues. We saturate the most receptive, we tinge the less absorbing, we hope we guide the maladjusted. And in proportion as we operate for these ends in an atmosphere of affection for our pupils, trust of them, friendliness with them, relaxation, and freedom of pupil activity—so in proportion do we contribute to their wholesome personalities. And this we do nearly all of the time.

But do we always contribute to the wholesome personality? Teachers are occasionally accused of being domineering, dictatorial, too often ordering others. If we can be self-critical, must we not admit that we sometimes forget the rights of our pupils? May I suggest times when perhaps we do?

We call girls out of study hall and order them to do so and so for us; we forget to say frequently, "Have you time, or are you busy?" We let children stand first on one foot, then on another, waiting for us, while we go on working. We neglect to say sometimes, "Just a moment"—something courteous. We use the pupils' elevator between periods, embarrassing the elevator operator and forgetting the poor pupils whom we are causing to be late to class. Girls complain that we are inconsiderate in rooms and halls during examination time. They accuse us of being partial, favoring only the bright pupils. They say we show a grudging spirit sometimes about staying after hours to help them. We treat pupils one way, and other teachers another. We sometimes forget to apologize when we have been rude or bad tempered to a class or in the irritation of the moment have hurt the sensitive spirit of some girl. All this undermines fine relationships and thwarts the wholesome personality. Do you not think so?

But in the life of our school, these instances are so rare and isolated. Essentially we are kind, sympathetic people who value the personalities of our pupils. There is no opposition of pupil and teacher here. Our relationship stands for mutual respect, trust and community of interest.

MARY DENSON.
Julia Richman High School.

A Communication from Clyde R. Miller, Member of Executive Committee, Progressive Education Association (address Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City)

An appeal to the teachers of America "to emancipate themselves completely from the domination of the business interests of the nation," and to help strip the present economic system of evils by which a privileged caste obtains the lion's share of the wealth and income, is made in a manifesto issued by the Committee of the Progressive Education Association on Social and Economic Problems.

This committee, under the chairmanship of Professor George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, declares that "the progressive minded teachers of the country must unite in a powerful organization, militantly devoted to the building of a better social order."

The committee's manifesto is being issued in pamphlet form by the John Day Company under the heading, "A Call to the Teachers of the Nation." Committee members, in addition to Professor Counts, include Merle E. Curti, Professor of History, Smith College; John S. Gambs, Associate in New College, Teachers College, Columbia University; Sidney Hook, Associate Professor of Philosophy, New York University; Jesse H. Newlon, Director of the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University; Willard W. Beatty, Superintendent of Schools, Bronxville, New York, and President of the Progressive Education Association; Charles L. S. Easton, Director, Staten Island Academy, New Brighton, New York; Goodwin Watson, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Frederick L. Redefer, Executive Secretary, Progressive Education Association, Washington, D. C.

The committee's manifesto points out America has everything needed to banish poverty, with modern machines "capable literally of deluging men with goods and services of every description."

Under such conditions, it asserts it is possible to "bring economic activity into a balanced program of living, and engage in the building of a truly humane, beautiful and majestic civilization."

Notwithstanding the fact that America is a land of almost boundless plenty, the committee declares that a small privileged minority get most of the nation's wealth and income and that "for all except the most favored, life is an endless battle either for the simple necessities or for social status founded on the acquisition and display of property."

"Even during the much-vaunted period of prosperity ending in 1929," the manifesto states, "certain great industries, such as agriculture, coal and textiles, were in a state of chronic depression, and sixty per cent of the population were living below the level of comfort and decency."

It asserts that "under the existing economic system natural resources are exploited without regard for the future, the interests of property are placed above human rights, and the struggle for material gain tends to corrupt the moral, the political, and the aesthetic life of the nation."

"If men must suffer," declares the committee, "they should do so with heroism; if they need not, they should revolt. In the present age they should accept no apologies for a social system that fails to make full use, for the benefit of all, of the productive resources of the nation. Such a spirit should be bred in them from earliest infancy."

The manifesto urges that "short shrift" be made "of those men in posts of power who, while evading income taxes and indulging in every extravagance, seek to propagate a defeatist attitude among the people, give out a counsel of despair with regard to the future, argue that material prosperity for the masses is sinful, that the day of opportunity for the common man is over, that the great majority of the

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population must accept a reduction in the standard of living."

"Capitalism," it adds, "with its extremes of poverty and riches and its moral degradation of millions, makes an empty farce of our democratic professions and dooms multitudes of children to lives of severe privation."

It states further that teachers, as guardians of childhood, must know that the multitudes of children so doomed "will have to forego not only the luxuries which are literally showered upon their more fortunate brothers and sisters born to wealth and privilege but even those things demanded by the laws of physical and mental health. Teachers can never be reconciled to a social order that even in the days of 'prosperity' needlessly violates the deepest loyalties of their calling. Consequently, they must work boldly and without ceasing for a better social order."

Ultimately school revenue comes from all who labor by hand or brain, the manifesto points out, and adds; "This the teachers should never forget. Their loyalty, therefore, goes to the great body of the laboring population—to the farmers, the industrial workers, and the other members of the producing classes of the nation. They owe nothing to the present economic system, except to improve it; they owe nothing to any privileged caste, except to strip it of its privileges.

"They will have to emancipate themselves completely from the domination of the business interests of the nation, cease cultivating the manners and associations of bankers and promotion agents, repudiate utterly the ideal of material success as the goal of education, abandon the smug middle-class tradition on which they have nourished in the past, acquire a realistic understanding of the forces that actually rule the world, and formulate a fundamental program of thought and action that will deal honestly and intelligently with the problems of industrial civilization."

The manifesto advocates a broad program of adult education to bring to the parents of the nation full knowledge of the richer standard of living a more humane social order would bring to adults and children alike if America's resources were utilized for the good of all instead of for the profit of a few.

The manifesto urges teachers as American citizens to fight not only for their own rights in matters of tenure, compensation and formulation of educational policy, but also to oppose efforts of publishing houses, business interests, privileged classes, and patriotic societies to prescribe the content of the school curriculum.

The committee warns teachers that they will be crushed if they make such a fight as individuals. It appeals for a powerful organization of teachers "equipped with material resources, legal talent and trained intelligence necessary to wage successful battle in the press, courts, and legislative chambers of the nation."

"To serve the teaching profession of the country in this way," the manifesto concludes, "should be one of the

major purposes of the Progressive Education Association."

The Race Between Education and a Catastrophe

Those who saw active service in the world war and those who suffered from the effects thereof know its gruesome results and are firmly against another such disaster. However, one can notice with alarm that the members of the rising generation—those who were young and innocent in the storm and stress days of the late war—already entertain thoughts of grandeur about the next war. Little do they think of destruction, hunger, want, death! They see only snappy uniforms, "buddy-relationships," and a chance for a good fight. These budding soldiers are, however, not alone in their adherence to Mars. They are joined by that class of people which believes that war is inevitable. To them there must be wars—to end wars, to fight for democracy, and so on. These facts are significant. On the one hand, we have seeming evidence that there is a pugnacious instinct inherent in man, and on the other hand we find that Plato's belief is still valid, namely, nothing exists without having been preceded by an idea.

It is those very persons who talk about the inevitability of war who bring it about. Already yielding souls have whispered about the coming war and some have described its every detail.

What can our schools do to eradicate war from the list of human experiences? They can inculcate attitudes of friendship, of love, of coöperation between individuals and among nations. They can create an understanding which will make for forgiveness and no revenge. "Tout comprendre c'est tout pardonner." The supreme goal of education is to overpower narrow nationalism.

The school can direct the attention of students to unbiased films re-enacting the horrors of war, to actual photographs depicting scenes of war, and to institutions housing those unfortunates who are living witnesses to the injustice of war.

In the words of the modern apostle of Peace, Premier Ramsay McDonald:

> "Let's put documents on one side. Let's put signatures on one side. Let us substitute for them the less tangible, and the more real friendship, based upon a complete understanding of each other, a friendship which will allow a quarrel, a friendship which will allow a difference of opinion, a friendship which will not be broken if we were to vote against each other in the League of Nations, *a friendship that is kind because it is based upon a complete understanding*——"

Let us be mindful of "the race between education and a catastrophe." May Education win!

B. SCHACHTER,
George Washington High School.

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REVIEWS

Educational Leadership, Progress and Possibilities

Eleventh Yearbook, published by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1933.

Though this yearbook is concerned chiefly with the educational leadership of the superintendent of schools, it will appeal to every supervisor and classroom teacher who is seeking a vital philosophy of leadership. A brief analysis of its contents will serve to indicate that it is a rich source of information on what constitutes the ideal supervisor and that it offers a stimulating challenge to all readers.

The book opens with a statement of those basic principles which should guide the leader who assumes responsibility for the success of others. We learn that educational leadership

1. Is exercised in and for a democracy;
2. Recognizes the school as one of the many institutions developed for the improvement of the social structure;
3. Recognizes that the school is dependent for its support and success upon the faith and will of the people;
4. Finds expression through the personality of individuals;
5. Is based upon character, intelligence, and feeling;
6. Requires judgment, patience, courage;
7. Represents vision, statesmanship, growth;
8. Is evaluated in terms of service to childhood and youth.

It is then pointed out that, as new economic and social forces make themselves felt, mankind in America seeks, through public education, solutions for the new problems. Educational leadership must, therefore, take into account the fact that ours is a dynamic civilization. The educator cannot ignore the implication of the interdependence of nations, the questions as to what form of government will lead to future happiness of the American people, the interdependence of man, the place of leisure, recreation, and avocation in educational planning, the forces that have been operative in the creation of a huge criminal class, and the needs of underprivileged members of society. It is obvious then that "a changing society will prosper as it entrusts the responsibility for its educational progress to an enlightened and well-trained leadership into whose thinking and planning have been interwoven the ideals of service for the common good."

With these principles as the ground work, the book proceeds to trace the development of leadership, that fascinating story of the battle to free the public schools. Then follows what is so important to us in these trying times of "cuts" and curtailments of budgets—the consideration of the importance of coöperation between lay and professional leadership. Then we have an extensive statistical report on the characteristics and qualities of those who are superintendents today. Our chapters are devoted to training of leaders and the place of research in educational progress.

The volume closes with a self-rating device whereby a supervisor may evaluate his progress. These are the items under the individual aspect of the scale:

1. The leader is a student of professional literature.
2. The leader utilizes and contributes to professional research.
3. The leader uses his leisure time worthily.
4. The leader is democratic and friendly.
5. The leader is intelligent and creative.
6. The leader displays courage and drive.
7. The leader is scholarly and cultured.

We must not fail to mention another contribution to our educational literature that this yearbook has made, a series of tributes to great educational leaders of the past; accompanied by photographs. There is a wide chronological distribution and a great diversity of interests and contributions.

We have often been accused by laymen and by our own critical brethren of failing to show any signs of having a national educational philosophy. The authors of the "Educational Frontier" attempted to formulate such a set of principles by vigorously attacking our educational "idols." This yearbook certainly helps the good cause by showing clearly what part a supervisor should play in carrying out such a philosophy. It just as clearly indicates the rôle of the classroom teacher. Whether we be supervisors or teachers we cannot help but be inspired by the biographies of our great leaders and we cannot help but measure ourselves by the principles set down. Finally, it is interesting to ask whether the philosophy of educational leadership advocated in this volume will be adequate to offset the social and economic handicaps that are weakening social progress on all sides today.

GUSTAVE SHOR.
Morris High School.

Social Studies Instruction

By Robert E. Swindler. Prentice-Hall, N. Y., 1933.

Present economic conditions are bringing sharply to the attention of educators everywhere the fact that emphasis has hitherto been placed on the natural sciences to an extent which has proven detrimental to the development of those studies which make for civic and social betterment. More adequate instruction in the social studies, with special attention to the needs of the gifted students who are the potential leaders of tomorrow, is the obvious need of a spiritually and culturally impoverished world.

In his timely publication, "Social Studies Instruction," Dr. Robert

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Swindler, who is a member of the faculty of the Department of Secondary Education in the University of Virginia, makes no effort to deal exhaustively with such aspects of social studies instruction as have been treated competently elsewhere by Dawson, Knolton, Tryon and others, but concentrates his attention on some of the more recent theories, methods and classroom practices with special attention to the important function of the school library in relation to the social science curriculum.

Practical suggestions as to the establishment of sound criteria for the selection of library material and motivation of its use by students and teachers and a bibliography of American history, which, though not as inclusive with respect to recent historical biography as one might wish, is in other ways most admirable, are among the useful features included in this volume.

In a closing chapter on "The Library and the Librarian: Their Conditions and Needs," references to Dr. Harold Rugg's recognition of the desirability of convincing American school communities of the serious need of spending large sums of money on school libraries for the provision of "a wealth of reading material which will introduce the youth to a vivid understanding of the current American scene," and R. T. Hargreaves' warm appreciation of constructive service to the cause of socialized education rendered by school libraries, sound a note of much needed cheer to members of a profession which has been designated accurately elsewhere as "the red-headed step-child of the American school system."

ISABEL M. RANDALL.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Essentials of Business Law

By Edward M. Kanzer and Charles W. Gerstenberg, New York. Prentice-Hall. 551 pages.

At last a long felt need has been filled by the authors of "Essentials of Business Law," a need for a usable text-book for pupils and teachers of Commercial Law. Heretofore so-called text-books for use in teaching commercial law have been written to supply the need of the business man as well as the pupil and as a result of the divided objective have failed to meet the need of either.

"Essentials of Business Law" is a teachable text. Each subject has been divided into topics, each of which treats completely one phase of the subject of the chapter and is a lesson unit in itself. Thus the teacher has a guide as to the amount of material to be covered from day to day and this arrangement presents a clear and simple picture of the material to the pupil.

This text employs a new method of approach. Most topics are developed inductively by first presenting a problem and then formulating the principle of law involved. However, in the reviewer's estimation, the authors have slightly overemphasized the inductive method to the detriment of a smooth readable text. Although this is a fine device for use by the teacher in the developing of the subject in the classroom, we may question whether a high school pupil, in reading his lesson at home, will stop to cogitate over an introductory problem before going on to the principle of law involved.

"Essentials of Business Law" introduces a method of answering legal problems which will train pupils to suspend judgment until the problem has been thoroughly digested and logically reasoned to a conclusion. This method obliges the pupil to use the following steps in answering such problems:

1. To restate the essential facts in the pupil's own words.
2. To state the disputed point at issue.
3. To give the principle of law involved.
4. To discuss the problem, including a clear analysis of the essential facts, followed by the reasoning based on the principle of law which leads to
5. The decision.

Although the foregoing method has been used from time immemorial by judges in writing opinions, its use in the field of commercial law is novel.

The sequence of subjects and their groupings are logical with the possible exception of "The Law of Negotiable Instruments." This subject follows the chapters on "Contracts." There is very little which the pupil has learned in the chapter on Contracts which he can apply to his study of Negotiable Instruments. On the other hand the gap from Contracts to Sales is much narrower. The pupil has already studied the Statute of Frauds as applied to the sale of personal property and a great number of problems used to illustrate the Law of Contracts are contracts involving the sale of personal property.

On the whole, the book should recommend itself to both the pupil and the teacher because of its simple and clear language, its helpful summaries, and its adequate questions, drill problems and review problems.

ZACHARY S. ZIMMERMAN.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Supervision in the Social Studies

Third Yearbook: The National Council for the Social Studies.

Here is a volume which is of great importance to the supervisor or head of department in the social studies, and one which ought to capture the interest of the progressive teacher of those subjects. It is, as its title indicates, the annual volume of the National Council for the Social Studies which devotes each of its annual publications to some special phase of the teaching of the social sciences.

There is a wealth of pedagogical literature on the theory of supervision, but this book is an attempt to give the reader an intimate picture of the head of department seated at his desk and surrounded by his multiplicity of problems. Here is a real effort to permit the supervisor to "see the wheels go 'round" in the *sanctum sanctorum* of some harassed contem-

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porary. To give a wide scope to this study of the problems of supervision there is assembled a series of articles presenting supervisory programs developed in cities which are under the guidance of a special city-wide director of social studies, programs developed by the heads of department in individual secondary schools, and those developed in the one- and two-teacher rural schools.

To the classroom teacher the work of the head of department appears too often to consist of a number of visits per semester for the purpose of observing the teacher at work, visits which the classroom teacher does not contemplate with any degree of pleasure, and a larger proportion of the supervisor's time spent in unimportant routine activities not definitely connected with the problems of the teacher. This volume paints the supervisor in clearer perspective for the classroom teacher, brings him closer to the day-by-day teaching act, and consequently engenders a more sympathetic perception of the supervisor's problems, the reasons for many of the supervisor's acts which the teacher encounters only in their fruition, and as a result tends to promote a more intelligent coöperation between teacher and head of department.

The two chapters which will most vitally interest the heads of departments in New York's high schools are the articles by Miss Alice N. Gibbons telling her experiences as head of department of a large high school in Rochester, N. Y., and by Miss Jessie C. Evans, describing her work in a similar position in Philadelphia. In these articles one reads the story of a courageous, intelligent, progressive attack on the problems of supervision. It is as though these writers were each in turn saying, "These are the conditions I found, these are the measures I adopted to make my position one of constructive leadership and guidance, these the results achieved, these the objectives aimed at but not achieved, and this is the position we have not reached."

There is a minimum of theoretical discussion and a clarity and fullness of practical illustration which should make the supervisor grateful. He will find a detailed description of the administrative duties encountered by these heads of department, those same burdens which weigh so heavily on his own shoulders and threaten, he fears, to reduce him to the position of a glorified clerk. He will find treated in a direct and analytical manner the problems which beset the academic side of his work, such as keeping abreast of progressive ideas in his field, imparting those ideas to his colleagues, planning units of study, devising testing programs, and in general contributing to the pedagogical progress of the members of his department.

Consciously or otherwise the reader, especially the head of department, will find himself comparing the procedures used in his own department with those of the departments placed beneath the microscope of this volume, and he will perhaps experience a feeling of satisfaction when he discovers that his department is making use of procedures and programs similar to those which are set forth as worthy of commendation. But there will also arise a number of disturbing questions which will necessitate a wholesome stock-taking. There will be such questions as: "What courses besides a year of European History and a year of American History are offered in my department? Are they the most desirable courses available? What does my department do in the matter of ability grouping? If we are doing nothing in that direction, is it because I feel that ability grouping is pedagogically unsound, because there are too many administrative difficulties in the path of such a procedure, or is it simply inertia? Is it worth making an effort to secure ability grouping? What percentage of my time do I spend in visiting teaching? Has my department a feeling that they know definitely the objectives of the teaching of their subject and the methods to be employed in achieving those objectives? Are we teaching according to the 'unit plan'? If so, are we following the most progressive procedures, e.g., the Morrison method, toward obtaining maximum results from such a plan?" The list of such questions could be extended indefinitely. Suffice it to say that a critical reading of this volume with subsequent action on the questions which will inevitably present themselves will do much to help heads of departments contribute to the improvement of the teaching act, and to teacher growth, the chief aim of supervision.

MARTIN G. HALPRIN.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

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DIGEST

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

NOVEMBER 1933

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions *should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper* 8½" *by* 11" *in size.* They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

. . . All of us, whether in public service, in private business or on the farm, have difficulty in seeing very far ahead. I know, however, that I can speak for the teachers and educational administrators of the country in assuring you that in the face of unparalleled difficulties we are going to "carry on" patiently and that we are going to work as diligently as any group in the country toward the solution of this great social problem which is our mutual concern.

For it must be remembered that the schools do not belong exclusively to the children, the teachers or the superintendents. They are the common property of us all and in the long run there must be public assent for every important change of educational policy and for every provision for financial support. What is done about the schools in this present emergency will therefore be determined around our firesides and in our public gatherings.

Throughout the coming year those of you who have been fortunate enough to be steadily employed and many millions of others, who are again joining the ranks of productive wage earners, will have the familiar but highly significant personal problem of how to spend your income. I have no doubt but that after so long a period of self-denial there will be a great rush to secure those personal necessities of which many people stand in great need. We should not, however, permit ourselves so to indulge in passing pleasures as to forget the more enduring satisfactions which we get out of our social institutions including our schools and colleges. . . .

My friends, we seem about to emerge from a great economic crisis which has tried the souls of men and women far more than the great world conflict which ended in 1918. I know that I speak for the schools and colleges of the country when I say that they will coöperate with President Roosevelt and the Congress to the fullest extent in helping to pull the country out of the depression. With common purpose and united effort we shall certainly succeed in overcoming the enemy.

However, as men and women again find themselves gainfully employed and are thus able to supply themselves with the necessities of life, we are faced with another great crisis which will test the quality of our citizenship more than anything which we have yet encountered. We shall have an opportunity to demonstrate whether we wish the advantages of education for ourselves and our children enough to pay for them. We are now being called upon to decide whether we will retain and develop those evidences of culture and civilization which alone make life worth living. We are confronted with a choice as to whether we will spend the great amount of leisure time which is being thrust upon us in idle dissipation, or whether we will use it in a great program of self-improvement. Those who know the history and the heart of America can never doubt what course the American people will take. In this critical emergency the schools and colleges stand ready to serve as the chief agency of social progress. Out of trial and adversity, we can yet have we shall yet have, through a broadened educational system, opportunities for a better, fuller life than any with which the American people have so far been blessed.

GEORGE F. ZOOK

United States Commissioner of Education.

In His Radio Address of September 11, 1933.

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF THE GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT OF THE SAMUEL J. TILDEN HIGH SCHOOL

It is hoped that this report will help to answer many of the questions which are being asked concerning Guidance in Samuel J. Tilden High School. The report sets forth a comprehensive, rather than an exhaustive, account of one year of Guidance in a large city high school.

Because this has been the first year the emphasis has necessarily been upon staff training in aims and techniques and upon office organization. The machinery, however, has consistently been devised to serve human ends, not to control them.

The report purposely omits long discussions of theories, objectives, and many other controversial points in which Guidance abounds. It attempts to tell the factual, objective, quantitative story. To write the full story in its subjective setting would be infinitely more difficult, as difficult as human personality is subtle. It would mean painting a picture of 1,089 different personalities, each the hero in a drama of the forces of life itself. The record of each one lies, as a matter of fact, between the covers of a folder in the confidential files of the Guidance Office. It will be the material for a later chapter of the report. At present it forms the voluminous appendix to this report.

Any justification of Guidance, at this stage in Tilden High School, must rest largely on *a priori* grounds. That an individual boy or girl stands in danger of being lost in the mass in a school numbering 5,848 souls, where subject teachers are bedeviled with many and large and heterogeneous classes and long syllabi, where administrators have the exigencies of huge numbers and rigid curricula to meet —stands in no need of support. That the social and economic and industrial order is undergoing rapid reconstruction adds to the complexity of life for growing boys and girls who are preparing for an uncharted world.

What does the Guidance Department think it can offer to offset the tremendous forces that are at work? Surely a handful of Guidance Counselors do not presume to set the world in order? Yet that is precisely the task that the Tilden Guidance Department has set for itself. But the world is each boy's and girl's small world, handled one by one. Setting it in order means sitting down calmly and quietly with a boy, helping him to analyze his world, to see it objectively, to distinguish reality from fancy, to measure it by eternal as well as material values, to see it in perspective, which is nothing more than admitting at once its significance and its insignificance. It means understanding that world sufficiently to make an intelligent adjustment to it.

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Our Guidance Department inclines to think with Dean Donham that it can make its best contribution to social and economic problems by creating methods of adjustment rather than through a reliance on foresight, inasmuch as Guidance is not prophecy.

The counselor can provide the opportunity and the motivation and some techniques for accomplishing these ends. She can attempt to integrate and coöordinate and pull into focus the bits of experience and environment that make up an individual's world. Do not the mere recognition by a school of the need of this kind of service and the mere fact of provision for it in a school furnish justification for Guidance?

The report of the accomplishment of the first year of the Guidance Department in Tilden High School shrivels by contrast with these immense aims. What progress has been made toward them, toward better human adjustment, through the activities of this Guidance Department, you are left to judge and the future to fully reveal.

Who Came to the Guidance Office?

During the first year of the existence of the Guidance Department at Tilden High School, from September 12th, 1932, to June 15th, 1933, one out of every five students of the school visited the department. That makes a total of 1,089 students, or 18.6% of the 5,848 students in the school. This total does not include 334 applicants for employment—full or part time—whose problem was exclusively one of placement. Neither does it include a group whom we have called casuals who dropped in to consult a counselor on some point which could be cared for at once. There were 331 such casual visitors.

Of the 1,089 students who came, 491 were girls (16.5% of all girls in the school and 45% of all those who came for Guidance) and 598 were boys (20.7% of all boys in the school and 55% of all those who came for Guidance). Five hundred ninety-three were general course students (19% of all general course students and 54.4% of those who came for Guidance), and 496 commercial course students (18.1% of all commercial course students and 45.6% of those who came for Guidance). Seven hundred twenty-two were in the early session (22% of all early session students and 66.3% of all students who came for Guidance), and 367 were in the late session (or 14.2% of all late session students and 33.7% of those who came for Guidance).

Their state of advancement in the high school course was as follows:

Term	Number
1st	121
2nd	97
3rd	164
4th	169
5th	134
6th	155
7th	141
8th	108
Total	1,089

Who Sent These 1,089 Students?

They came through many different channels. Eighty-six of them (7.9% of those who came for Guidance) were referred by administrators as follows:

John M. Loughran, Principal	7
John Shea, Administrative Assistant	3
Olga H. Hingsburg, Administrative Assistant	12
Joseph O'Toole, in Charge Early Session	20
Nathaniel Singer, in Charge Late Session	31
William J. Hanley, Attendance Officer	5
Michael J. McCaffrey, Annex	8
Total	86

Of the total number coming to the office, 242, or 22.2% were sent by 80 teachers (28.8% of the teachers of the school), as follows:

Department	No. of Teachers	No. of Students Referred
Accounting	1	1
Art	2	4
Biology	1	12
Economics	3	33
Elocution	3	11
English	14	23
French	7	13
German	3	6
Guidance	5	6
Health Education—Boys	2	12
Health Education—Girls	1	53
History	6	6
Home Economics	2	3
Joinery	1	2
Latin	3	6
Mathematics	4	7
Music	1	5
Physical Science	2	2
Spanish	3	6
Stenography	7	14
Grade Advisers	5	6
Custodian	1	1
Clerks	3	10
Totals	80	242

Thirteen students (1.2% of those who came for Guidance) were referred by their parents.

One hundred eight students (9.9% of those who came for Guidance) were referred to the Guidance Department by agencies, as follows:

Board of Child Welfare	95
Board of Higher Education	1
Bureau of Child Guidance	1
Catholic Home Bureau	1
Hebrew Orphan Asylum	1
New York Foundling Hospital	1
Pride of Judea Home	1
Rehabilitation Bureau	1
Mr. Shapiro, E. N. Y. Continuation School	1
United Jewish Aid	3
Vocational Service for Juniors	2
Total	108

The Guidance Department itself initiated the visits of 374 of the students who came (34.3%). Three hundred forty-seven of these represent those students throughout the school who had previously failed in three or more majors in one term. Twenty-seven of them were outstanding students eligible for correlated work in Physics and Mathematics, whom the Guidance Department counseled regarding the advisability of taking these courses.

And last, though most important, is the group numbering 266 (24.4%) who came of their own accord. The Guidance Department is inclined to measure its success to some extent by these, since it seems to argue student confidence in the Guidance Department. Students, in the long run, will not waste time coming to an office which does not serve them intelligently and constructively. Our success during this first year, therefore, in attracting 266 students to the Guidance Office as voluntary petitioners for counsel gives us good

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cause, we think, to rejoice. In these students we have at once a yard-stick and an inspiration.

Why Did They Come?

They had all reached a crossroads of one kind or another. Sometimes it was a place where conflicting emotions met, or desires, or perceptions; sometimes it was a place where parents and children had to part in order to meet again as adults; or it was a crossroads where choices had to be made regarding a vocation or a college, or a course of study, or formal education of any kind at all. These students wanted, in general, to have pointed out to them the destinations of one or more roads.

Most of them had questions to ask. The questions were usually very close to their innermost ambitions and struggles, or else they skirted round them. They were really questions related to living, to getting a living, to securing success in school scholastically, athletically, socially, to obtaining satisfactions; in a word—to being happy. Some of the central problems around which the questions centered were:

Problem	Those Who Came Number	%
1. Serious school failure	347	31.8
2. Physical handicap	64	5.8
3. Home adjustment	95	8.7
4. Behavior in school	271	25.2
5. Educational plan	150	13.7
6. Vocational uncertainty	162	14.8

As we noted above, applicants for employment are not included here. Wherever a student applying for employment was considered to be in need of Guidance along the lines indicated he was referred for counseling.

Students in need of relief exclusively were taken care of by the Administrative Assistant.

Who Counseled the Students Who Came?

The personnel of the Guidance Office was as follows:

Elsa G. Becker	Chairman
Josephine D. Borkes	Counselor
Albert J. Levine	Counselor and Psychologist in charge of testing
Imelda S. McCann	Placement Counselor
Jennie Montag	Secretary to Chairman and Counselor
Regina C. Weiss	Counselor

In addition the department was fortunate in having, during the second semester, the volunteer services of two men who undertook the work capably and contributed materially to the work of the office. They were

Irving R. Stone	Assisting Counselor, on full time
Burrill Freedman	Visiting Psychiatric Adviser—½ day a week

The counselors, without exception, had both teaching and business or industrial backgrounds. It was, however, for their attitudes, sympathies and emotional stability as well as their professional experience that they were selected for the Guidance Staff, for the counselor is a new kind of group person in the school—new at least to the students' experience. She does not write marks in a book, or issue orders, or say, "Stop talking" or "Straighten lines"; but listens and shares experiences and suggests and treats one pretty much like another human being.

The greatest part of the counselors' time was devoted to interviewing. A total of 4,397 interviews was given to students. Of these 1,089 were first interviews and 3,308 re-interviews. The average is four interviews per student counseled. As a matter of fact, of course, some students had many more interviews than others, depending upon the problem to be solved.

But to those 4,397 student interviews must be added 1,432 with individuals involved in the students' adjustment. Perhaps the chief boast of a good Guidance Office is that it deals with the boy or girl as a complete personality, with consideration for his or her life in all its varied phases—not only the school or intellectual phase. If the whole child is to be understood, the school must open its doors and go out into the home and the community to learn the background of the child's life and the influences that are creating attitudes. In counseling the 1,089 boys and girls who came, it was found necessary to conduct 1,432 personal interviews with faculty members, parents, and representatives of community agencies as follows:

	Number of Interviews
221 Parents	239
58 Agencies	284
154 Teachers (including 9 Grade Advisers, 8 members of the Clerical Staff, 1 Librarian)	720
8 School Administrators	189
441 —— Totals ——	1,432

Coöperation ranged all the way, among teachers and administrators, as well as parents and agencies, from active intelligent participation to total neglect. Interaction of this kind stands in need of constant development. All working for the boy and girl must become better and better acquainted with each other for the maximum contribution to the boy's and girl's welfare. And without good will in the community and in the school, the Guidance Department will be seriously blocked in its work. A partial list of the 58 agencies contacted by visit either of the counselor or of the agency's representative follows:

Adjustment Service
Board of Child Welfare
Boy Scouts of America
Brooklyn Juvenile Protective Association
Bureau of Child Guidance
Cardiac Vocational Guidance Service of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association
Community Church Clinic
Curative Workshop of the American Rehabilitation Committee
Flatbush Branch of the Brooklyn Public Library
Flatbush Boys' Club
Girl Scouts of America
Guild for the Jewish Blind
Hebrew Educational Alliance
Hebrew Orphan Asylum
Hospital for Ruptured and Crippled
Institute for Child Guidance
Institute for Crippled and Disabled
Jewish Hospital Clinic
Jewish Hospital School of Nursing
Jewish Agricultural Society
Metropolitan Junior Achievement, Inc.

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Mount Sinai Psychiatric Clinic
National Occupational Conference
New York Foundling Hospital
New York League for the Hard of Hearing
New York State Employment Service
Division of Junior Placement
Division for the Handicapped
New York State Education Department
Pictorial Review—Vocational Guidance Bureau
Post Graduate Hospital
Pride of Judea Home
Psychiatric Institute, Medical Center
Psychological Corporation
Rehabilitation Bureau, New York State Education Department
Saint Mary's Hospital
Seward Park High School Mental Hygiene Clinic
Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children
United Jewish Aid Society
Unity Hospital
Vanderbilt Clinic
Visiting Nurse Association of Brooklyn
Vocational Adjustment Bureau
Vocational Service for Juniors
Welfare Council, City of New York
Y. M. C. A.
Y. W. C. A.

Is the Interview a Pleasant Chat—and Nothing More?

Because the interview is the most important tool employed by the Guidance Department the counselors have made a special study of it over the year in an effort to acquire increasing skill in using it.

Teachers and even parents have often expressed surprise that the Guidance Counselor had unearthed some aspiration or fear the recognition of which was important to adjustment. One parent said appreciatively, "Well, there are tricks to every trade." And he was right, if valid, effective techniques are tricks.

The counselor unaware of such behavior tendencies as resistance, projection, introjection, and transference is not the best counselor. To know when and how to use an indirect attack, and how and when to make a student feel he is an equal who can exchange opinions, how to dispel the fear that the counselor is "an arm of the law or an abettor of school or home discipline"—is to be equipped with useful devices for good Guidance.

The Guidance Department, therefore, worked on a project each semester to discover the techniques of interviewing. Some of the questions answered by the study were:

To what may reticence or inhibited responses on the part of interviewees be due? How may these be removed?

What information would you wish to obtain in interviewing a boy or girl seeking help in selection of an educational program? A boy or girl seeking a position? A boy or girl seeking help with personal problems?

What value have returns on employment interviews for teachers? For counselors?

What are the criteria for determining the success of a personal interview?

What About Testing?

The Guidance Department administered 223 tests, as follows:

To measure so-called general intelligence	168
To measure mechanical aptitude	46
To measure emotional traits	6
To measure character traits	3
Total	223

The tests were found in some instances to be a valuable check on school marks and teacher estimates, the I. Q. having been especially valuable for diagnosis where it has been at variance with school achievement. It has had a certain prognostic value—chiefly of a negative kind—in cases where vocational ambition exceeded a reasonable estimate of ability.

Experience with mechanical aptitude tests inclines the department to the belief that because it was not possible to cover a greater range of special aptitudes and because of the lack of refinement and standardization of the tests themselves there was not much value in administering them.

The personality testing has been too limited to permit an expression of opinion.

Tests have been consistently regarded as *another* tool, not to be compared in importance, in the present stage of development, with the interview. Test results have been carefully used, care being taken not to pin too much faith on them. They have been weighed against results of interviews, school records, and all available ratings. The subjective findings of the psychologist have had some value. The test report has included wherever possible a statement of behavior during examination, analysis of results, and recommendations.

For some students it has been possible to obtain the testing services of outside agencies, which have usually been superior to the testing in the Guidance Department in point of physical facilities, completeness of the battery, and the specialized experience of testers.

What Besides Interviewing Made Up a Counselor's Day?

The counselors found a place in each day for countless other duties besides interviewing students, parents, teachers, and visitors. These are some of them:

Writing Up Records

The Guidance Department does not make a fetish of records, and will never aspire to three-inch folders except in unusual cases. It does, however, insist upon a succinct account of every contact made in a case, with enough information to enable a newcomer to continue treatment where it was left off. Twice a year every case handled is briefly summarized on an appropriate form, in order that no student may escape proper follow-up.

Contacts by Telephone

To homes, community agencies, schools, employers, and the like.

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Visiting Classrooms

Writing Letters

Each counselor is responsible for her own correspondence unless it involves matters of departmental policy.

Attendance at Weekly Department Meetings

For discussion of problems.

Interviews with the Chairmen, Psychologist, and other Counselors

Field Work

Visits to community agencies, other schools, employers, an occasional home.

Writing of Reports

On field work.

Attendance at Conferences

Writing of Articles

For the student paper (*Tilden Topics*).

Meeting Two Auditorium Groups

On Thursday of each week, either for a short talk on prepared subjects or to invite questions.

Building and Proctoring Assignments

Did the Counselors Think They Needed Alertness Courses?

It happened that none of the counselors was required by the By-laws of the Board of Education to take alertness courses, for one reason or another, but here is the record of their attempts to keep alert:

Full courses attended in mental hygiene, child guidance, testing, vocational counseling	15
Full courses attended in related social problems	5
Full course given in social problems	1
Attendance at Mental Hygiene Clinic as Psychologist	1
Lectures attended on Guidance subjects	24
Personal visits to outside agencies including schools	75

Each counselor, while remaining a general counselor responsible for carrying a boy or girl through from beginning to satisfactory conclusion, was responsible for some particular field of interest as follows:

	Opportunities and institutions for handicapped students, with special reference to cardiacs.
Dr. Levine:	Mental hygiene and mental testing resources of Brooklyn and Manhattan.
Mrs. McCann:	Non-profit making employment agencies in Brooklyn.
Miss Montag:	Occupational information.
Miss Weiss:	Opportunities and institutions for the handicapped with special reference to the crippled, the hard of hearing, and those with defective eyesight.

All of these individual experiences have very generally been shared with the entire department, through discussion and report. Reports of all courses, lectures, and visits are on file in the Guidance Office. All of these visits and lectures represent time outside of the prescribed schedule.

The chairman is happy to have the opportunity to say that the counselors showed splendid professional spirit, regarding their duties in the light of *service* rather than a mere *job*. Time given freely to the office, and time and energy devoted to visits, courses, and lectures, do not adequately describe their attitude. The constant reading in the vast field of Guidance, as well as thinking and discussion along Guidance lines, attendance at professional luncheons and dinners, and membership in professional organizations, come nearer to telling the story of their adventures in alertness. The problem of the chairman was not how to spur counselors on to activity, but rather how best to direct superb energy.

Was the Guidance Department Represented Outside of Tilden High School?

The Chairman of the Department had the opportunity of speaking at the following meetings:

High School Teachers Association

Association of Teachers of Vocational and Educational Guidance

New York Branch of the Vocational Guidance Association

Secondary Council of the United Parents' Association

Parent-Teachers Association of Tilden High School

Museum of the City of New York

Alertness course in Vocations and Industries, Civics II, four lectures

She served on the following committees:

Revision of Civics II Syllabus
Member of several subcommittees
Chairman of subcommittee on bibliography

Brooklyn Council of Girls' Service Organizations
Chairman of committee on Vocational Guidance

Association of Teachers of Vocational and Educational Guidance, Program Committee

Y. W. C. A., Central Branch, Brooklyn, Employment Committee
Chairman subcommittee, Personal Service Division

She published guidance articles in the following professional papers:

School December 29th, 1932
High Points February, 1933

How Did the Guidance Department Make Its Wider Approach to the Rest of the School?

I. *To the Faculty*

The Chairman issued six memoranda to the faculty during the year:

Fall Term

Date	*Subject*
October 3, 1932	*The Form for Referring Students to the Guidance Office*
November 1, 1932	*Detecting Problem Boys and Girls*
December 1, 1932	*Mental Hygiene Reading*

Spring Term

March 1, 1933	*Vocational Problems of Tilden Students*
April 5, 1933	*Vocational Guidance in a Chaotic World*
May 3, 1933	*Vocational Implications of the Subjects You Teach*

The Guidance Committee of the Faculty was organized with representation from each department of the school. The first meeting of the committee took place on April 12th, 1933. It began to work on a long-term project to uncover the vocational significance of the present curriculum.

The Chairman addressed the faculty twice during the year. They were also reached through the school

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Calendar and through invitation (in individual cases) to attend Guidance Department weekly conferences.

II. *To the Student Body*

Every issue of *Tilden Topics*, the student paper, carried an article known as the Guidance feature, written by a member of the Guidance Department. The titles (assigned by student editors) are given below:

Dates	*Titles*
October 7, 1932	*Let Future Vocation Be the Guide for Programs Advises Counselor in Charge of Guidance*
October 21, 1932	*"All Aboard!" Trip Through Vocation Land — Salesman or Architect—Where Will You Land?*
November 4, 1932	*Salesmen Must Overcome Sales Resistance: Training and Serious Preparation Needed*
December 23, 1932	*More Attention in Class — Less Work at Home*
February 17, 1933	*Are You in the Right School?*
March 3, 1933	*Guidance Counselors Visit Industrial Schools: Observe Method of Teaching Through Projects*
March 17, 1933	*Mechanical Courses Gain in Popularity*
March 31, 1933	*Little Red School House Offers Modern Instruction*
April 7, 1933	*Spirit of Comradeship Reigns in School Where Boys Take Courses They Like Best*
May 2, 1933	*Beauties and Butchers Mingle in Novel System*
May 18, 1933	*Waves and Manicures Are Part of Day's Work in School Where Work Is Play*
May 26, 1933	*Mysteries of Manufacturing Divulged at Deskless School*

The *Tilden Guide* also carries a message from the department to students.

During the Fall term counselors by turns addressed the morning session students each week at four twenty-minute auditorium meetings. The subjects covered were:

An Airplane View of Occupations
A Close-up of Some Occupations
What an Employer Will Want to Know About Me
Study Hints

This auditorium program was not, on the whole, successful, due rather to poor acoustics and a general school problem than to causes over which the Guidance Department had immediate control. However, speaking to large groups of students requires skill which some of the counselors will have to develop in order to make use of group counseling methods. And then, unless a talk were to cover merely the most superficial points, considerable research was required to talk intelligently and informingly on either a wide or narrow occupational field. While it is expected that counselors shall equip themselves in this respect, the process of doing so is necessarily a progressive one that will take time to achieve.

During the Spring term, the Guidance Department experimented with another means of meeting the student body in a group. A counselor went into the auditorium as formerly, but merely announced that she would be available at a table near the platform for consultation with anyone who wished. She sometimes arose to

say a few words on some subject suggested by student discussions of the moment. This seemed to have definite values in giving specific vocational information (though of a sporadic sort) as well as in informing the student body of the nature of the services of the Guidance Department.

Another type of group counsel has grown out of a similarity of needs evidenced by several students coming for interview by one or several counselors. Such individuals were gathered together and led in discussion by a counselor. This was an occasional occurrence, however, which will need encouragement to develop into a counseling technique in the department.

What Machinery Did the Guidance Office Set Up to Facilitate Its Work?

The creation of a Vocational Bookshelf and of an Occupational Pamphlet File in the Library of the school have brought results, if the circulation of the books and pamphlets indicates anything. Miss Emily K. Colwell, Librarian, reported as follows on this point:

> One of the sections of the library that has been used the most during the past year is the Vocational Guidance Shelf. These books are taken out by teachers and students. The students seem particularly interested in any book that will give them information about vocations. For the number of books that are in the library on these subjects, the circulation is quite large.

The Reference File of Pamphlets on Vocations seems to be of special interest. This is used constantly—during almost every period we have requests for some or all of the pamphlets. Besides the individual students interested in vocations, classes are sent in from the Economics department, the English department, and the New York City Industries classes. These groups spend a whole or a part of a period in the library consulting the pamphlet collection. Students have also come from the Annex in the afternoons to consult the file.

In order to answer the requests for information on these subjects the library needs especially more books on individual vocations. More pamphlets and additional copies of those already in the collection would be very useful.

The Guidance Department advertised the Vocational Bookshelf and Pamphlet File to the faculty through a circular, distributing a classified list of both books and pamphlets. Both shelf and file need, as Miss Colwell indicates, considerable and constant extension. To this end the Guidance Department has asked to be placed on the mailing lists of organizations and institutions furnishing occupational information. The range of vocations covered by the file may be seen from the list given below. The numbers refer to the *different* pamphlets for each occupation.

Accounting	2	Interior Decoration	1
Advertising	5	Jewelry	2
Aeronautics	38	Journalism	5
Agriculture	1		

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Architecture	5	Laboratory Tech.	2
Art	1	Laundry	1
Banking	5	Law	12
Beauty Culture	3	Librarianship	4
Bookbindery	1	Linotype	4
Business Executive	1	Lithographing	1
Buying	1	Luggage and Leather	1
Ceramics	1	Mathematics	1
Chemistry	2	Medicine	5
Coast Guard	1	Veterinary	1
Confectionery	1	Mining	1
Dentistry	3	Music	2
Department Store	1	Navy	2
Electrical Work	2	Nursing	13
Electrical Research	1	Pharmacy	2
Engineering	4	Photography	1
Chemical	2	Physical Education	4
Civil	2	Printing	2
Electrical	3	Psychology	1
Locomotive	2	Radio	2
Mechanical	2	Salesmanship	2
Research	1	Show Card Writing	1
Farming	1	Social Work	4
Fireman	1	Stage Careers	1
Foreign Com'l Service	1	Steel	5
Forestry	7	Stenography	4
Foundry Work	1	Stereotyping	1
Garment Trades	10	Tea Room Mgmt.	1
Geology	1	Teaching	7
Glass	1	Telegraphy	3
Hairdressing	1	Telephone	2
Home Economics	3	Textile Design	1
Illustration	1		

The following seventeen forms were evolved out of the needs of the office:

Teacher's Referral
Report to Teacher
Result of Interview
Daily Interview Record
Interview Sheet
Call for Student
Call for Transcript of Record
Answer to Employer's Inquiry
Inter-office Communication
Psychological Report
Board of Child Welfare Investigation
Request for Testing
Scholarship Summary
Summary
File Sheet
Teacher's Estimate
Cumulative Record
Employment Rating Sheet

An index of occupational materials, following the lines of the five-fold index originated by the late May Rogers Lane, has been of the utmost use to counselors in the vocational guidance aspects of their work. It has made available for ready reference the vast accumulation of daily and weekly news items, magazine articles, memoranda, mimeographed reports, clippings and extracts which are often more valuable than book material, but extremely elusive unless their acquisition is systematized. The index to date is the product of contributions from all the counselors and some of the more coöperative and progressive teachers. It is ably administered by Miss Jennie Montag, counselor in the department.

A central alphabetical index is used for the identification of all students under the direction of the office. And the files of the department, made up of folders for individual students, are confidential to the department.

A Question Box, kept under lock and key, received the written communications of any and all students. A number of shy students were heard from in this way, who might not have had sufficient courage to make the first approach to the office personally.

What Became of the Students Counseled?

I. "Closed" Cases

During the year the Guidance Office closed the cases of 244 (22%) of the students who came to it or were sent to it for help. Of these, 10 were considered to be beyond the skill or scope of the department to treat further. Perhaps they spelled failure for the department. Of them it can only be said that the counselors exhausted their own skill, availed themselves of the services of experts, enlisted coöperation where need for it was indicated, consulted with the staff — and still failed. They represented personality difficulties requiring adjustments of a complicated or subtle nature. The Guidance Department made every attempt to coördinate the factors — chiefly home, school, recreational, physical, emotional — entering into each situation. School adjustments were relatively easy to make, since teachers and companions were accessible and pretty generally amenable to suggestion, and the utmost latitude was allowed in scheduling studies. But home situations very naturally proved less flexible. And sometimes home coöperation was not forthcoming or was definitely antagonistic to the treatment proposed.

It may reasonably be asked — Why then *close* the case? The answer is two-fold; first, closing a case does not mean that it will not be followed up at relatively long intervals; second, the Guidance Department exists to serve the *entire* student group. When, after very careful consideration by the staff, it is found that further work with a student will consume time altogether disproportionate to results, the chairman closes the case so far as regular interviewing is concerned. The student may, of course—and often does—still drop in to see the counselor. This policy is dictated by the necessity of benefitting the largest possible number of students and by the principle that it is the function of the Guidance Department to discuss, diagnose up to a point consistent with its training and skill, refer, coöperate, evaluate, and suggest, but not to make decisions that *should* be made by parents, boys, and girls.

The remaining 234 students of this group closed for active guidance may be divided into those numbering 173 (73.9%) whose adjustment was effected through removal from the school into another environment, including 20 graduates. Forty-three of these 173 were transferred to other high schools, industrial schools, private schools, and the National Farm School. One hundred thirty-one of them (75%) were discharged for physical care, employment, or further education or training. It may be mentioned here that out of the 334 students who applied for working papers with the intention of leaving school, 88 (26%) were enabled to remain in school through program adjustment, change of session, and part-time employment.

Sixty-one still remain as students of the school, discharged from the active care of the Guidance Department because adjustment has been

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effected. How temporary or permanent the adjustment is time alone will tell. The following tabulation indicates the various accomplishments with these 61 boys and girls:

Change of attitude effected		
To studies	15	
To teacher	4	
To social situations	4	
	—	23
Decision reached concerning further education or training		18
Tie-up with school agency effected		7
Methods of study improved		5
Schedule of studies adjusted		4
Tie-up with outside agency effected		
For physical care	2	
For speech defect	1	
For vocational information	1	
	—	4
Total		61

II. *School Failures*

How many of the 347 students counseled by the Guidance Department on account of serious school failure improved in that respect? Because these boys and girls were selected for having failed three or more major subjects improvement may be defined as the passing of at least one out of three majors. Because of the pressure of end-of-the-year duties the three counselors who guided the majority of this group made a random selection of 149 students (31.8% of the failing group) and examined their final term ratings. The results follow:

Counselor	*Size of Random Sample*	*No. Showing Marked Improvement* (1)	*No. Showing Good Improvement* (2)	*No. Showing Slight Improvement* (3)	*No Improvement* (4)	*Retrogression* (5)
Mrs. Borkes	55	24	18	12	1	0
Miss Weiss	50	24	16	6	4	0
Dr. Levine	44	16	18	0	6	4
Total	149	64	52	18	11	4
		43%	35%	12%	7%	3%
			90%			10%

If the improvement of the school record in these cases constitutes proof that the Guidance offered was effective, then these results are cheering, for 90% of the records improved, 43% in a marked degree, and only 10% remained unsuccessful or developed additional signs of maladjustment to school.

In the light, however, of the close study of a group of failures and drop-outs of the school made by the Chairman during the Spring of 1932, and the experience of the department thus far, there are many qualifications to be made to these results.

Inasmuch as the recommendations made in connection with the Guidance of these failures as a group covered the following general points

Home Conditions
- Physical
- Financial
- Attitudes

Emotional Adjustments
- Guidance Office
- Psychiatric Clinic
- Teacher Help

Employment
Extra Help
Methods of Study
Health Adjustment
Recreation
Socialization
Change of Program
Change of Session
Change of School

may not Guidance have functioned effectively without necessarily producing the arbitrary sixty-five per cent?

The department inclines to disparage exclusive dependence upon pragmatic proof in matters of this kind. It therefore considers it not entirely impossible that some success may have been achieved by working even with those students (the 10%) who failed to improve their school records. By the same reasoning it also admits that the 90% group of those with improved school records does not reveal the whole story, for it omits the human adjustments indicated by the list of recommendations given above.

We must also temper the results showing improvement for the following reasons:

1. Each of these students carried only three major subjects, as opposed to four last term.

2. In the majority of cases, two of these three subjects had been studied last term, so that the student required two terms to complete the work of one. In such cases, it is difficult to determine whether passing the subject is due to any change within the student, or to outside and extraneous factors.

3. In a number of these cases, the mark achieved after repeating the subject was merely 65%. In many instances, this 65% was the only passing mark achieved during the term, both class mark and uniform examination marks at the end of the second third of the term having been failures.

III. *Vocational Counsel*

The 162 students who came to discuss their vocational future were helped in accordance with the policy of the Guidance Department which was expressed in a memorandum to teachers on this subject.

In addition I wish to say that in the Tilden Guidance Office we are committed to the policy of counseling in this perplexing time with a view to creating in students understanding of the facts and difficulties confronting them, courage in facing them, intelligent optimism in planning for the future, a sense of the wisdom of laying broad vocational foundations, the need for adjustabil-

(1) Passed all subjects, one or more over 75%.
(2) Passed two out of three subjects.
(3) Passed one out of three subjects.
(4) Continued failure in all major subjects.
(5) Failure plus other maladjustment.

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ity, for an attitude of flexibility towards vocational life.

Dr. Paul S. Achilles of the Psychological Corporation has said that the purpose of vocational guidance is

> to show an individual the relation of facts about himself to facts about occupations and vocations.

This aptly suggests the method employed by the Tilden High School Guidance Department in directing the students' thinking on the subject of vocational choice. Vocational Guidance is not fortune telling or pulling rabbits out of a hat. Counselors do not "play God without benefit of omniscience" in this Vocational Department of Guidance, or in any other. The vocational needs of individuals can never be extricated from their psychological and spiritual, their physical and social needs.

What then has become of these 162 seekers after vocational adjustment? Realizing that, ultimately and pragmatically, we must see what the next five, ten, or twenty-five years will tell, the Guidance Department believes that insofar as it makes students conscious of the need for vocational planning on broad lines, and gives them techniques for studying themselves and occupations in relation to one another, and insofar as it creates attitudes of flexibility towards vocational life, it is succeeding in its work of vocational guidance.

IV. *Educational Problems*

The students coming for discussion of future educational plans, whether for the remainder of the high school course or for higher schools, were interviewed with a view to furnishing not only specific data concerning courses and schools but techniques for organizing knowledge and making decisions, and more especially a variety of points of view concerning possible decisions. How this has functioned in the Guidance Department at this point is not wise enough to say. And it strongly suspects that the justification must for many years to come rest on *a priori* grounds.

Twenty-eight students were individually interviewed as a special project in order to determine the advisability of recommending a correlated course in Physics and Mathematics to them for the following term. Factors besides purely intellectual ones were of course considered, in accordance with the Guidance Department's standard of viewing the problem whole. The results, so far as the correlated course in Physics and Mathematics is concerned, were as follows:

Election of course	14
Rejection of course	
1. Program difficulties, including considerations of college entrance	11
2. Lack of ability in the estimation of the counselor	1
3. Lack of interest or greater interest in another subject	1
4. Failure to report	1
Total	28

The counselors report that in five cases the student's decision was influenced by dissatisfaction with Mathematics teaching methods and attitudes which the students had already experienced.

V. *Physically Handicapped*

Sixty students suffering from cardiac disorders were interviewed as a special project to determine to what extent the Guidance Department could help with their adjustment. Fifty-one girls and nine boys were referred by the girls' and boys' Health Departments. The students were studied from as many angles as possible, for coördination of their various activities inside and outside of school, with a view to effecting maximum efficiency and satisfactions, present and future, for them.

The study was put into the hands of Mrs. Borkes, Counselor, who with characteristic understanding and thoroughness carried it through to completion. The resulting report of February 20, 1933, made to the Principal, included the following points:

> As a group the cardiacs studied are better than average students, 71.6% of them having passed all major subjects, and 87.5% of all major subjects having been passed by them.
>
> It is notable that nothing was revealed to indicate that cardiacs are necessarily maladjusted children.
>
> The Guidance Department is of the opinion that, in general, the Health Departments adequately cared for the needs of the sixty cardiac students under examination. Only five of the entire group appeared to need counsel of a kind that the Guidance Department is preëminently equipped to give. It is therefore recommended that the care of cardiacs as a group be left in the hands of the Health Departments; that the Health Departments report to the Guidance Department those students for whom there is indicated a need for advising or investigation of a type which the Guidance Department is especially equipped to give.

VI. *Behavior Difficulties*

Two hundred seventy-one of the students coming to the Guidance Department presented difficulties which we call difficulties of behavior. To measure results with them is not easy. Superficially, it might be said that many of them have been to some extent adjusted. Teachers have so reported and counselors have so estimated. Evaluation of the work with this group has not yet been attempted. The criterion of the department is the progressive ability of the individual to adjust himself to situations involving elements similar to those for which he received guidance. Temporary adjustments cannot, therefore, adequately measure guidance outcomes here. Future strains will furnish the ultimate test. Again long-term follow-up is necessary.

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But if relief from strain, worry, and anxiety counts; if happier, more significant life inside of and outside of school counts; if choices wisely made, and hobbies developed, and wholesome companionships formed, and home and school relationships improved—if all of these count in the lives of boys and girls, then something of importance personally and socially was accomplished by the Guidance of these students.

Relatively few of this group, two (.7%), were found to be definitely and seriously neurotic or psychotic. Outside mental hygiene clinics assisted with them, in one case arranging for hospitalization.

Mr. Burrill Freedman, volunteer psychiatric adviser to the department, makes the following statement concerning them.

> One boy has panics, obsessions, and depressions to a degree that keeps him continually out of school and dangerously suicidal. Another has states or moments at which his mind wanders; he answers questions irrelevantly, and makes fantastic statements which he does not remember and later denies.

Being episodic and still self-maintaining, these cases are not easily institutionalizable. The attitude of the family discourages or is hostile to regular outside observation or treatment. The only way they will be sure to get it is through and in the school itself.

A larger group (the number of which is not yet accurately estimated) was found to be incipiently neurotic or psychotic. Again to quote Mr. Freedman:

> These include the dangerously seclusive, hypochondriac, and schizoid types, psychopaths, and suspiciously turbulent and hypomanic trends. Even if most of these manage to get along without breaking out into overt disease, it is at a great cost of mental, emotional, and social efficiency.

But by far the largest group consists of nondescript behavior cases—girls with crushes, sexually disturbed boys, truants, cutters, bullies, class fools, students afraid to recite, seclusive students, show-offs, and so forth. What they needed was a friend rather than a psychiatrist, psycho-analyst, or psychologist. This they found in the counselor, a person with an objective point of view, as well as warm consideration, skill, and intelligence.

To tell the story of each of these would extend this report beyond the limits intended. A few summaries are offered, however—more or less typical:

R. K. represents a typical "Truancy Case" requiring Guidance. He was a handsome lad, a fellow, standing at bay between the Attendance Officer and his mother who, in a strident voice, was proclaiming that it was not *her* fault, he was just a bad boy. R. proved to be a fine type of boy, suffering humiliation from his mother's constant reminders of his "luck" in being permitted to go to school when he wasn't earning anything towards his own support. R.'s truancy was the result of his efforts to find a job. He is now attending school regularly, working after school hours, passing in all subjects and eager to join the staff of the school publication for next term.

H. L. was a gentle soul, with a high I. Q. but handicapped by a marked speech defect. His efforts to control it sometimes resulted in a high, artificial note resembling Ed Wynn's "So-o-o-o". His recitations disrupted the class and as first he was punished because the teachers thought the sound was intentional. An appeal to the individual boys in the class brought fine results. They are helping him with his work and are giving him some companionship. He will be treated at a clinic next term, although the cause of his difficulty is largely emotional. Hyman is now a "protégé" of the class and is no longer an object of continuous ridicule.

A father who left his family periodically, a mother who "always hollered," abject poverty, a figure made unsightly by masses of flesh, a thin squeaky voice, a nervous smirk which invariably convinced teachers that he was a "smart Aleck" had combined to give M. a reputation for poor conduct throughout the elementary grades. During his first term in high school he failed all subjects, but succeeded in obtaining a large number of pink "discipline cards" in addition. Aid from the School Relief Fund, medical treatment, discussion of his problems, and club facilities were made available. M. has passed all subjects this term; has done additional projects not assigned to the class; has become a stranger in the disciplinarian's office.

At the age of twelve, Ruth had attended school with seven-year-olds and, despite the age difference, they had excelled in everything but arithmetic. It was agonizing to one who had been a good student in a European gymnasium to find herself the class dunce, to be classed with these younger children, to be ignored by all. And it was certainly not conducive to self-confidence to be told over and over again, as she was told by the relatives who had reluctantly taken her in at the time of her mother's death, that she was older than the other girls in high school, that she was stupid, that she would never amount to anything and might as well leave school. Ruth began to withdraw more and more into herself, to shun the few friends whom she had, to dream in class and fail in her work. At present she is absorbed in her school work and school activities, not yet happy, but less discouraged and seclusive than she was.

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What Does the Guidance Department Plan to Do Next Year?

In the Spring of 1932 Mr. Loughran approved a plan covering five years which the Chairman sent to him. The plan is presented below and it is left to those who have read this report to form their own judgment of the progress made toward its accomplishment during the first of the five years.

A Five-Year Plan for Guidance

The Guidance Office plans during the next five years to direct effort toward the following major ends:

I. Development of a greater vocation-mindedness among faculty and student body. This involves a program such as the following:
   1. Organization of a vocational committee of the faculty along departmental lines, to define vocational objectives. This to result in a student pamphlet indicating to what vocations the subjects of the curriculum point, as well as to serve as a means of educating the faculty.
   2. Individual interviews with all seventh-term students to assist them with their vocational plans, whether immediate or in the future.
   3. The contacting of as many employers as possible on a plan which will be largely determined by the vocational preparedness of the students.
   4. A series, continuing through each year, of group talks to students and of articles on vocational guidance in the school papers.
   5. Further organization of the school's placement service if economic conditions permit.
   6. Exploitation of all available extra-curricular means in the school of affording training and try-out experience to the students.

II. Orientation of first-year students and entrants from junior high school by means of systematic counseling, individually and in groups. This would be accomplished at first by an experimental approach to three or four official class groups. It would entail the use of a simple questionnaire devised to educate the student as well as to serve administrative ends, on the basis of which students would be selected for interview. The questionnaire would be preceded and followed by discussions with each group concerned to furnish interpretations and crystalize desirable attitudes.

III. Organization of a system of individual care for problem cases originating in the classrooms, involving
   1. Home visiting.
   2. Referral to agencies.
   3. Coöperation and coördination with official and subject teachers.
   4. Coöperation and coördination with advisers and other school administrators.
   5. Further preparation of forms for office and intra-office use.

IV. Devising a system for advising and helping students who fail to pass at each marking period. This might follow somewhat the lines along which Seward Park High School proposes to act — sifting the cases through Chairmen, official teachers, and finally the Guidance Office.

V. The growth, through the findings resulting from I, II, III, and IV, of:
   1. A mental hygiene point of view on the part of the faculty.
   2. Desirable attitudes on the part of students.
   3. Further wholesome recreational activities within and without the school.
   4. The habit of broad vocational and educational planning by students.
   5. An occupational and vocational library.
   6. Adequate courses in occupations.

I suggest that while this plan must develop as a whole, since no one part is totally independent of the other, we concentrate major effort during 1932 to 1933 upon I, the *vocational objectives*.

Specifically next year's plans include:

1. Follow-up of all work begun in 1932-1933.
2. Continuation of types of work already begun.
3. Enlargement of range of work to include (if size of staff permits)
   a. Gifted students.
   b. Entrants from junior high schools.
   c. Students holding high office.
4. Group counseling in the Annex which has the younger students, for whom some orientation would be practicable.
5. Coöperation with the Parent-Teachers Association, perhaps conducting round table discussions.
6. Vocational selection in coöperation with several typical commercial houses.
7. Emphasis upon work with the Guidance Committee of the Faculty.
8. Coördination with junior high schools.
9. Reorganization of testing program.
10. Emphasis upon the following needs within the school:
    a. Greater coördination with administrative offices.
    b. Further education of the faculty concerning functions of the Guidance Department. It is found that lack of knowledge and understanding, misconceptions of purpose and method, were responsible for any unfavorable teacher attitudes met—rather than basic disapproval.
    c. More opportunity for staff discussion of problems, with

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teacher participation where advisable.

11. Emphasis upon the following needs within the Guidance Office:
    a. Refinement of techniques of case handling.
    b. Organization of interviews.
    c. Carefully regulated follow-up.
    d. Broader acquaintance of counselors with vocational fields.
    e. Progressive contacting of community agencies—with particular emphasis upon those devoted to leisure-time use or recreation.

ELSA G. BECKER,
In Charge of Guidance.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.
June 15, 1933.

REPORT OF THE TEACHER TRAINING COMMITTEE OF THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

I. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

This report is the result of a two-year investigation of the subject of Teacher Training for Secondary Schools in New York City. The data on which the conclusions are based, includes the following:

1. A series of conferences between the members of the Teacher Training Committee of the High School Teachers Association and the following educators:

Professor Paul Klapper, Dean of the School of Education, College of the City of New York.

Professor George M. Falion, Director of Townsend Harris Hall High School of the College of the City of New York.

Professor Thomas H. Briggs, in Charge of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Professor John W. Withers, Dean of the School of Education, New York University.

Mr. Tristram Walker Metcalfe, Acting Comptroller, Long Island University.

2. A questionnaire, circulated personally by members of the committee, among chairmen of departments in New York City high schools. Responses received from twenty-seven chairmen in four different schools were tabulated.

3. A questionnaire, circulated personally by members of the committee, among recently appointed teachers, on temporary license in the high schools of the city. Responses received from forty-seven teachers at five different high schools were tabulated.

4. The experience of the members of this committee as brought out in discussion at meetings of the committee.

The committee has tried not to lean too heavily on any one of the foregoing procedures for securing data. Less weight is attached to questionnaire responses than to the opinions of educators, for more thorough discussion and clarification was possible at the conferences with these gentlemen.

II. SHOULD A MORATORIUM BE DECLARED ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

The committee is of the opinion that teacher training for secondary schools should undoubtedly be continued for the following reasons:

1. Despite the huge surplus of licensed teachers for New York City elementary schools, this situation does not exist in the high schools of the city. The number of teachers now on eligible lists for high school subjects is not exceptionally large, and the overwhelming majority of these are employed as permanent substitutes. In several subjects, there is an actual shortage of regularly licensed teachers.

2. A large percentage of the students at our local colleges and universities are being trained for service in high schools outside of New York City. Standards of the teaching profession can well afford to be raised through the influx of university trained men to those other communities.

3. Even if there were few positions anywhere, teacher training must be continued to furnish new blood to the educational system. Let the best survive. Other professions are overcrowded at this time, too. There is no logic in driving all aspirants for teaching positions into other already overcrowded fields. Even a long wait for a vacancy is better under the circumstances than aimless groping in some other profession.

III. WHAT ARE THE LOCAL COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES DOING TO PREPARE TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

The committee notes with satisfaction that the local teacher training institutions are trying to meet the entire problem of teacher training squarely and progressively. Great progress has been made in the past two or three years, particularly in the reduction of the number of students permitted to take the special courses that prepare for teaching and through drastic elimination of those considered unqualified. The committee learned that:

1. Practically all local teacher training institutions have an elaborate system for eliminating undesirable or unqualified applicants. Scholarship, use of English, personality and other basic requisites for teaching are adjudged by members of the Education Department of the school and by the professors of the special subjects in which the students are interested. The question of whether teachers are born or made, is, of course, relevant to this discussion. Our leading local educators felt that "Whether a teacher is born or made, training and education will make a poor teacher better and improve a good teacher." The committee agrees.

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2. Changes in the course of study which prepare students for teaching, such as educational psychology, methods, principles of education, etc., have been rather few except in the field of pupil teaching. Neither chairmen of departments in the high school system, newly appointed teachers nor deans and professors feel sufficiently opposed to any particular course to have it eliminated from the College School of Education nor sufficiently enthusiastic about any new course that should be introduced. Though as many as 28 of the 47 newly appointed teachers felt that the course in general methods of teaching was of "most value" among the method courses, 29 of these 47 were unable to list a single course that they would consider of "least value" among such methods courses as general methods in elementary school practice teaching, tests and measurements, and so on.

Among the theory courses Educational Psychology had the largest number of supporters (12 out of 47). The strongest objection was felt to History of Education, yet only 7 of the 47 teachers voiced such objections.

The questionnaire answered by the high school chairmen shows that the chairmen feel that the greatest shortcoming of young teachers are classroom teaching, use of English and scholarship in the order named. Of 16 shortcomings noted by the 27 chairmen who answered the questionnaire, the vote was as follows:

Shortcomings of Newly Appointed Teachers in Order of Importance

	1	2	3	4
Classroom Teaching	6	4	3	4
Use of English	7	3	8	1
Scholarship	2	8	2	6

The figures are far from convincing except that they show a trend, which the committee believes most local colleges have noted and attempted to remedy in recent years through their efforts to eliminate prospective aspirants for teaching license, on the basis of scholarship, use of English, or experience as pupil teachers.

The committee is not prepared to recommend any changes in courses at colleges with most deans, chairmen and teachers undecided or vague on the matter.

IV. Pupil Teaching

In this particular field the committee believes itself qualified to make definite recommendations. The evidence is convincing. Young teachers, chairmen and professors at the colleges agree that the system of pupil teaching needs revision and both chairmen and professors welcome the revision. The reason for the difficulty here is that the college introduces its student into a school administered by an extraneous organization, a principal and staff not responsible to the college and oftimes not coöperative in spirit. A committee of the High School Principals Association recently drew up a report on the subject which is a step in the right direction. Your committee, however, wishes to report on several phases of the subject not covered in the principals' report.

The Problem

1. There are over 40 high schools in the city, with hundreds of first assistants and thousands of teachers. To establish contact with these schools and their staffs and to obtain their coöperation is a serious problem; physically, because of their distance from the college in many cases; financially, because professors must spend many hours traveling, oftimes to observe but one pupil at school; and practically because not all high school administrators and teachers approve of pupil teachers or welcome them. The system of pupil teaching must be continued; college deans are certain of this; chairmen approve (the vote was 18 to 8 in favor in answer to the questionnaire); and high school principals agree (—"all city high schools should assume the responsibility of training pupil teachers").* Pupil teaching in model schools attached to the college is not true to life. Dean Withers of New York University disapproves of the plan of model schools, while Professor Briggs of Teachers College admits the inadequacy of this plan tried by Teachers College for many years. Model schools are expensive, besides the special conditions, the best pupils, the best teachers, small classes, and the like, that exist at model schools, make these schools of little value in training teachers for conditions in the public high schools of the city.

2. There is at present no uniformity or standardization of hours of observation, of teaching by pupil teachers, observation and reports by teachers, chairmen and college professors. There is not a uniform procedure in approaching the subject teacher, who, in the long run, does the actual training of the pupil teacher. There is little uniformity among the colleges in checking attendance or in rating the pupil teacher.

3. Some of the colleges engaged in teacher training are public institutions (Hunter, City College of New York, Brooklyn College), and others are private (Teachers College, New York University, Long Island University, etc.). New York City can by law or otherwise regulate conditions of entry, training, and so forth, for publicly owned colleges, but private institutions are more flexible in their requirements, and in addition deal with students from every section of the country.

Recommendations of the Committee

The committee believes the following procedure will eliminate many of the difficulties involved in the problem of pupil teaching.

1. Those schools which should be selected are the ones in which the principal and administration approve of the policy of pupil teaching. No difficulty will be encountered in securing enough schools.

* Report of the Committee on Pupil Teachers of the High School Principals Association of New York City, December 3, 1932.

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2. Those departments which should be selected are the ones in which the chairmen are definitely enthusiastic.

3. Those teachers who are temperamentally and exceptionally qualified educationally should be asked to have pupil teachers. They must also be in accord with the idea of pupil teaching.

4. Lists of such principals, chairmen, and teachers should be drawn up annually by a group such as the High School Principals Association.

5. After approval of arrangements by the principal and chairman, the college authorities should deal directly with the regular teacher in all matters affecting a pupil teacher.

6. After these preliminaries, a modus operandi must be worked out so as not to burden the teacher who thus qualifies and is desirous of doing the work. The college authorities (the deans of all the local teacher training institutions), a committee of the High School Principals and a committee of the High School Teachers Association, meeting jointly, might draw up a reasonable code of ethics and responsibility on the matter of the relationship of the high school teacher and the pupil teacher. The following is offered tentatively.

A. What the Teacher Should Do for the Pupil Teacher

1. He should consult frequently with the pupil teacher on the merits of lessons taught by either.

2. The regular teacher should observe the first four or five lessons taught by the pupil teacher for the full period. Later he may leave the pupil teacher to his own disciplinary devices for no more than fifteen minutes at a time.

3. The teacher should write out (type, if possible), a full criticism of one lesson, to be mailed to the college authorities at least once a term, together with any other reports the college may request. The chairman should not be asked to observe at all, in view of his other duties, unless he cares to do so voluntarily.

B. What the Pupil Teacher Should Do to Lighten the Teacher's Burden

1. Every time the pupil teacher teaches, the throat and voice of the regular teacher are relieved.

2. The pupil teacher may justly be asked to mark quizzes or sets of papers, after the system of marking has been fairly standardized and explained fully to the pupil teacher. The teacher should go over several papers already marked by the pupil teacher, to point out the errors of judgment in marking.

3. To maintain a spirit of cooperation and fellowship, the teacher and the pupil teacher might be allowed some leeway to work out the degree of their coöperation in other matters. Cases of abuse of pupil teachers should be reported to the college authorities and those teachers may be avoided in future assignments of pupil teachers. Attention is called to the fact that ambitious teachers here have an opportunity to acquire skill and technique in the observation and rating of teachers which can be of great help in examinations for higher licenses.

We agree with Dean Withers of New York University that, "Education is a changing temporary expedient for progress and coördination," and that we dare not fix a definite permanent plan. We, therefore, recommend that this report, particularly those sections dealing with pupil teachers, be referred to the High School Principals Association for their approval or modification, following which a joint conference of representatives of the Schools of Education of our local colleges, of the High School Principals Association and of the High School Teachers Association be held to adopt an official procedure in the matter, for temporary trial and experiment.

The committee wishes to thank the deans and professors of our local colleges mentioned in this report, for their coöperation in spending an afternoon with the committee addressing us and answering all our questions. We are grateful to the many chairmen and teachers who answered the questionnaires and to the High School Teachers Association for the opportunity to be of service.

Respectfully submitted,

Teacher Training Committee of the High School Teachers Association.

Elizabeth Brogan, Jamaica High School.

Morris Cohen, James Monroe High School.

Henrietta Fligelman, Morris High School.

Herbert Fried, Erasmus Hall High School.

Abraham J. Kovar, Bushwick High School.

William Low, Bryant High School.

William A. G. Main, Brooklyn Industrial High School for Boys.

Barnet Cohen, Thomas Jefferson High School, Chairman.

A COMPARATIVE TENSE COUNT IN FRENCH

Last year Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages in the public high schools of the city, issued a list of desirable "school experiments or investigations" in the teaching and learning of modern languages. One of these was a "Tense Count." The Department of Modern Languages of the James Madison High School decided to undertake such an investigation in the form of a department project. The coöperation of all the teachers of French was enlisted.

It was thought advisable, for a more comprehensive and accurate count, to use four representative forms of reading matter. Accordingly a novel, a play, a Parisian newspaper and a book of what might be termed "popular science," were chosen. The investigation throws some light perhaps upon the following problems

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raised by the reading objective: (1) the time and emphasis to be devoted to a particular tense in presenting and drilling it; (2) which tenses should be taught first; (3) the choice of reading material.

The forms of reading material chosen were (1) a novel, "Colomba," by Mérimée; (2) a play, "Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon," by Labiche and Martin; (3) a newspaper, "Le Matin"; and (4) a "scientific treatise," "La Mer," a volume of the collection called "Encyclopédie par l'Image."

Tense-count sheets were prepared covering the ten indicative tenses, the four subjunctive tenses, the imperative, and the present participle. The imperative included, for our purposes, the second person familiar and polite forms, the first person plural ("let us——"), and the third person singular and plural ("let him——," "let them——"). The infinitive was not included since it was agreed to consider this form an item of vocabulary.

A running count was made of the occurrence of these tenses. Finally all the lists were combined and totaled. The number of times a tense occurred in each reading text is listed in the column headed "Score." In order to facilitate comparison, the scores have been converted into percentage ratings.

In Table I we have the score and percentage rating of each tense for each representative form of reading matter; in the last columns, the combined results. In Table II we have the tenses listed in order of frequency for each text and finally the combined texts. The most frequently occurring tense heads the list.

The novel "Colomba," it will be observed, uses all of these tenses, some very sparingly. The play, "Le Voyage de M. Perrichon," has over 50% of the verbs in the Present tense. This is to be expected, of course, in the dialogue form. The Past Definite, occurring at a frequency of 21% in "Colomba," is met just once in the play. In the newspaper, "Le Matin," we find the Present occurring at a frequency of 50%. It may be interesting to notice, also, in the case of the newspaper, that the Past Anterior, the Future Anterior, the Imperfect Subjunctive and the Pluperfect Subjunctive do not occur at all. A similar situation obtains in the scientific work, "La Mer," where the Past Anterior and the Pluperfect Subjunctive do not occur at any time, the Imperfect Subjunctive once, and the Future Anterior three times.

Now, if we look at Table II we see that, taken together, the most frequently occurring tenses are the Present Indicative, the Imperfect Indicative, the Past Definite and the Past Indefinite, in the order named. This would seem to raise the question whether the reading objective is best achieved by introducing the Past Definite at an early stage. The novel has influenced greatly the high position of the Past Definite in the frequency list, and this was to be expected. This tense is comparatively low in the "Perrichon" and "La Mer" lists.

TABLE I. COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF TENSES

Tense	Novel: "Colomba"		Play: "Perrichon"		Newspaper: "Le Matin"		Science: "La Mer"		Totals	
	Score	%	Score	%	Score	%	Score	%	Score	%
1. Present	1,914	29.27	1,060	54.55	741	50.61	1,078	77.22	4,793	42.26
2. Imperfect	1,322	20.21	87	4.99	120	8.19	24	1.72	1,553	13.69
3. Past Definite	1,407	21.51	1	0.06	122	8.33	3	0.21	1,533	13.52
4. Future	273	4.18	137	6.86	99	6.76	23	1.65	532	4.69
5. Conditional	169	2.57	33	1.89	25	1.71	37	2.65	264	2.33
6. Past Indefinite	337	5.14	198	10.26	171	11.61	90	6.45	796	7.02
7. Pluperfect	231	3.54	12	0.69	37	2.53	5	0.36	285	2.51
8. Past Anterior	15	0.23	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	15	0.13
9. Future Anterior	12	0.19	6	0.34	0	0.00	3	0.21	21	0.18
10. Conditional Anterior	47	0.72	3	0.17	8	0.54	1	0.07	59	0.52
11. Imperative	236	3.61	175	9.04	23	1.57	2	0.14	436	3.84
12. Present Subjunctive	77	1.19	25	1.43	29	1.98	13	0.93	144	1.27
13. Perfect Subjunctive	15	0.23	3	0.17	1	0.07	2	0.14	21	0.18
14. Imperfect Subjunctive	66	1.01	1	0.06	0	0.00	1	0.07	68	0.60
15. Pluperfect Subjunctive	43	0.64	2	0.12	0	0.00	0	0.00	45	0.40
16. Present Participle	375	5.76	200	10.29	88	6.01	114	8.17	777	6.85
Totals	6,539		1,943		1,464		1,396		11,342	

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TABLE II. TENSES NAMED IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY

(The most frequently occurring tense is at the top of the list.)

Novel: "Colomba"	Play: "Perrichon"	Newspaper: "Le Matin"	Science: "La Mer"	Combined Results	
1. Pres. Indic.	Pres. Indic.	Pres. Indic.	Pres. Indic.	Pres. Indic.	1.
2. Past Definite	Pres. Part.	Past. Indef.	Pres. Part.	Imperfect Indic.	2.
3. Imperfect	Past Indef.	Past. Def.	Past Indef.	Past Def.	3.
4. Pres. Part.	Imperative	Imperfect Indic.	Conditional	Past Indef.	4.
5. Past. Indef.	Future	Future	Imperfect Indic.	Pres. Part.	5.
6. Future	Imperfect Indic.	Pres. Part.	Future	Future	6.
7. Imperative	Conditional	Pluperf. Indic.	Pres. Subj.	Imperative	7.
8. Pluperf. Indic.	Pres. Subj.	Pres. Subj.	Pluperf. Indic.	Pluperf. Indic.	8.
9. Conditional	Pluperf. Indic.	Conditional	Past Definite	Conditional	9.
10. Pres. Subj.	Fut. Anterior	Imperative	Fut. Anterior	Pres. Subj.	10.
11. Imperf. Subj.	Cond. Anterior	Cond. Anterior	Imperative	Imperf. Subj.	11.
12. Cond. Anterior	Perf. Subj.	Perf. Subj.	Perf. Subj.	Cond. Anterior	12.
13. Pluperf. Subj.	Pluperf. Subj.		Cond. Anterior	Pluperf. Subj.	13.
14. Past Anterior	Past Definite		Imperf. Subj.	Fut. Anterior	14.
15. Perf. Subj.	Imperf. Subj.		Past Anterior	Perf. Subj.	15.
16. Future Anterior			Pluperf. Subj.	Past Anterior	16.

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ROBERT BUDA,
For the Department of Modern Languages.

IN DEFENSE OF CREATIVE YOUTH

IN a recent essay published in this magazine,* a writer raises some questions which he proposes to answer, and which, based on an insufficiency of data, lead him to wrong conclusions, particularly in his major premise. He asks: Is youth creative? If it is, then why are not adults as creative as youth is supposed to be? What happens to the creative spirit as we grow older? Who kills it and how?

On the other hand, is it not possible that we as teachers have become so intoxicated with the fine results we have obtained in making youth articulate that we have ceased to be realists in this matter?

Now, these are categorical questions and require categorical answers, which Mr. Auslander does not give. Dismissing the whole proposition with the assertion that "young people are not even as creative as their elders," he limits his discussion to quotations from the poetical output of some students of his in the Literary Society of his school, and retires to his ivory tower to contemplate a "creative" scene of his own creation, content that he has laid the ghost of youthful creativeness forever and a day.

But the problem and its solution are not so simple as that. Even if we accept his definition of "creative" as that "which has been fashioned from pre-existing material into a new pattern," the statements which he makes do not follow. To say "It [an act of creation] can be done only by fully mature men and women who have abundant tools with which to reshape this material according to a crystallized purpose and vision, usually known as talent or genius," and further, that "we may . . . expect the literary output of our high school boys and girls to be imitative, emulative, derivative, critical, even cynical, but not creative," is to reveal critical myopia. For we have here an apparent misunderstanding of the creative impulse and its manifestation both in youth and in maturity. To match case for case—though the present writer intends to introduce the products of students of his as exhibits—is not the purpose of this essay. Rather is it to clarify the problem and to show that youth is the period of creativeness, and that only insofar as the elders are able to keep the youthful qualities of innocence and wonder, is their work creative.

To start with beginnings. Creativeness shows itself not only in poetry writing, but in every activity in which people engage. Thus we may have youth creative in music, in play, in manual arts, in graphic and plastic art; in fact, in anything which he undertakes, for creativeness is the rearrangement of pre-existing material

* "Poetry in Stuyvesant High School," by Charles Auslander, in the September, 1933, issue of HIGH POINTS.

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into something which has never been before, or, to put it better, into something which, as far as the child is concerned, has never existed before. Hence imitativeness, though not necessarily conscious, is found in the arts. For the child who speaks of "dancing flowers" or "caressing breeze" or other banalities without having heard them before is as truly creative, has as truly seen through experience to a reality, as he who first sang of a "rosy-fingered dawn." And even he who consciously imitates or uses a phrase coined by others is not a plagiarist or an imitator *in toto*, since, if his piece has emotional or imaginative realization, he has truly created something which has not existed before. What a writer of the first type needs is wider reading to acquaint him with what others have done; the second type needs only to be told that imitation is not invention, and therefore has no literary value.

So far we have limited our consideration to the writing of poetry—and we shall continue to do so in the rest of this paper because Mr. Auslander has limited his discussion to patterned verbal or linguistic creativeness. But that children are creative in every field has been attested by the experience of such men as Professor Cizek of Vienna, who shows how, because he "took the lid off," children did astonishing things in the manual and in the graphic arts; by the work of Mr. O'Toole, in his music classes in New Jersey; by dozens of obscure workers in the experimental and progressive schools here and abroad. If anybody doubts the creativeness of children at play (before they have been spoiled by the plethora of mechanical toys that glut the market and the home), let him watch a child or children at play with but a few sticks or stones, or rags, or any available object.

Is youth creative? Youth, until strait-jacketed by the old-line disciplines, is creative in everything it does until we teach it decorum and the amenities, because these, to us, are the easiest ways, the ways we understand, the ways in which what follows is predictable.

We were told that youth, in its poetry, is imitative. We have just seen that from a truly serious viewpoint, they are not. They are no more imitative than their elders who, attempting to speak of love or nature or hate or revenge or adventure, gave voice to songs which needed a "barbarie yawp" to remind a gloating world that it was tinsel on which it was gazing; that it was a clock-cuckoo to which it was listening. Yet no one will deny that there were poets in the nineteenth century—not great poets, yet poets, *makers* of song and music.

Then we are told that high school boys may be "emulative, derivative, critical, even cynical, but not creative." Mr. Auslander surely has heard of the "American Wordsworth," the "American Tennyson," the "American Browning." He must have thought of "Mourning Becomes Electra" in connection with its Greek ancestors. Even the Immortal Bard himself leaned on his contemporaries, Marlowe in particular and his predecessors in general, so heavily as to justify the gibe that he wasn't original; yet nobody in his senses would deny that the personages implied the factor of creativeness. For derivativeness itself does not preclude the creative ability. It is a sound principle of criticism that it is not the subject, but its treatment, that makes a work of art in any field. And that treatment must be purely personal and individual. If a child be permitted to handle his theme in his own way, provided, of course, he has something to say and has the ability to say it, his product is no less unique than if it had never been attempted before—and uniqueness is essential to creativeness.

To give to youth a "critical" ability or a "cynical" one, while denying it creativeness, is to give a tree branches before giving it roots, if to criticize is to evaluate and to be cynical is to devaluate. For really to criticize is far more difficult than really to create; they are, of course, two different abilities, the one demanding insight, intelligence, or reason, the other intuition. The creator intuitively gets at "the essence of experience" and interprets it beautifully; the critic, jumping the intuitive step, contemplates the product and sees it in its relation to the whole of life. (By critic, of course, we mean the *judge*, not the formulator of opinion.) The critic, then, is a philosopher, a lover, hence, a "knower" of beauty; but beauty is only a part of wisdom. To say, then, that youth may be critical but not creative is to honor and flatter it, but it hardly helps in understanding it.

This writer happens to believe that young people can be taught to write verse, to paint, to model, to compose, provided they are normal and are taught early enough by the proper teachers. That Mr. Auslander's experience has been disappointing is probably due to its not being broad enough. We, too, have seen in high school literary journals pieces that by no stretch of critical sympathy could be termed poems. Yet that does not mean that these journals could not have had them or can not have them. It may be that they do not know how to get them; but to say, on the basis of a narrow and local experience, that creativeness among youth does not exist, is to fly into the face of too great a wealth of contradictory proof to indicate discretion. For whatever a poem is, it is not that by virtue of the age of its composer, but by the intensity of its emotion, the splendor of its imagination, the realism of its invention. Children do not lack any of these factors. Though they may lack breadth of experience, they do not lack ability to interpret experiences within the limits of their comprehension. It is when we get poems on love from a pre-adolescent, poems on nature from a child who has never seen it except in a city park, poems on life from one whose experience with it is limited to that vicariously gained from reading, that we are likely to get the ill-conceived, imitative, derivative pieces with which Mr. Aus-

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lander's article is adorned. And that, of course, is the fault, not of the child, but of his teacher. Why should a student want to write a "Thirteenth Idyll," indeed, if not for a medal or for publication? Surely Mr. Auslander will not deny the title of poet to Hilda Conkling, to Nathalia Crane, to Tom Prideaux, to the author of "Renascence," to the writer of "Thanatopsis"? If these were only "on their way" when they startled a literary world, then nine-tenths of the poets whose work fills anthologies and slim-backed volumes have not even gotten under way. A poet grows by the breadth of his experience, in the richness of his reaction to it, not in intensity of emotion, in imagination, in honesty. If a child is a poet, he is one by virtue of what might be called the "poetic temper," which can be developed. Lacking that, he is not a poet. He is not a poet who shows promise. He "must have arrived" in order to be one.

Youth, then, is creative. If that is so, then why are not adults as creative as youth is supposed to be? That is our second question. Instead of saying that adults are not so creative as youth because youth is not creative, thus cleverly knocking a straw man down, we will examine mature life and see why it cannot be. Any artist will testify that creative work requires time. Markham's one per cent of inspiration and ninety-nine per cent of perspiration is no journalistic catch-phrase. Time, leisure in which to do the actual labor of writing, painting, composition, sculpturing; the peace and quiet necessary for concentrating; reading and study—all these are the gift of only a relatively chosen few, for the terrible pressure of economic necessity, the goad of social expectation, the attitude with which the creative worker is still largely regarded (the moon-struck, ineffectual, starving, unsuccessful individual), the level of our cultural *mores*, our mad emphasis on material achievement (measurable only in dollars and cents), these are some of the shafts that mow down the creative spirit. Getting a job, making a living, raising a family, keeping up with the Joneses, dissipating and draining our intellectual and emotional energies in insane work and in madder play, these choke the creative urge. It is only those among the chronologically mature who keep their childhood wonder and delight at nature and experience, to whom living is a perennially new adventure of breath-taking discovery, who can withstand the eternal pressure for material success; it is these who keep alive the creative spirit and are our poets and creators of beauty.

What happens to the creative spirit as we grow older? Who kills it and how? The creative spirit becomes diffused, is lost, is sublimated in the scramble for security that reaching adulthood entails. Just as acquisitiveness may be made to function in the piling up of wealth in whatever form, or in gathering culture; just as pugnacity may become bullying, or sympathy for the oppressed, so may creativeness become mature artistic expression or sink to the level of

vicarious thrill-seeking. The former being denied to most of us by the exigencies of our existence, we seek speed and speakeasies, the emotional paralysis of the movies, the catharsis of prize-fights and wrestling matches, the tame thrill of baseball, the barbarity of football. These, we believe, are our outlets for dammed-up creativeness. Thus is our emotional impasse compensated.

As for the final question—realists, we take it, call a spade a spade, and do not take credit for doing so. Though poetry to be poetry must be articulate, articulateness is not poetry. To be a poem (or any other work of art) a piece of work, as implied above, must be emotionally and imaginatively realized. It must be based on experience. It must be honest and sincere. None of the trappings and trimmings of poetic, figurative language, rhyme, even recognizable rhythms, to mention only a few—are essential. Yet these latter, because of their obviousness and authority, give the stamp of "poetry" to much student effort which is that only by gracious courtesy. And the fault is not the students', rather it may be laid to the lack of a critical faculty among these who guide the destinies of aspiring, youthful poets, who judge wrongly not only the work of their charges but that of professional (by which is meant published) poetry as well. Lacking perspective or principles of criticism or both, ignorant of what poetry is (as are most poets themselves who know only what it does or should do), teachers praise (sometimes for encouragement) where adverse criticism would be most salutary. But this does not mean that youth is not creative, for creativeness does not lie in the path of poetry alone, nor that the young could not write poetry if properly guided. This only means that the criticism is bad or faulty, and the "critic" wrong, not that the child is lacking what may be called "a second nature."

To this reader, at least two of the poems published by Mr. Auslander were real poems, having the qualities enumerated above, plus the integration of these elements which is greater than their sum, and which make poetry — "Valleyward" and "The Ruthless," by Alexander Epting. The others are not creative, not because they are derivative or imitative, but because they fail to have that integration, "that beauty and love which is the daily food of paradise."

I append these poems by members of the Creative Writing Course at the Samuel J. Tilden High School without comment, precisely because they are emotionally and imaginatively realized, are sincere and honest, and are based on experience. If all our students are not capable of such work, it is because we have not the talent to draw them out, or because we did not get to them early enough.

Disillusion

Softly beam your eyes on me,
  As when at some late hour,
The Moon through veiling cloud peeps forth,
  A great, grey, lonely flower.

And, oh, so softly does your hand
  In silence seek mine own;
While o'er around us has a veil
  Of grateful silence grown.

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So kiss me, dear, and silence keep,
And on me hold your eyes;
For then I leave the earth beneath
And soar to Paradise.

But you must never speak, my dear
For if one word you utter,
Your pedestal beneath you falls,
And leaves you in the gutter.

—*Max C. Norman.*

Poem

Our house still stands,
Where it stood before;
Nothing there is changed,
Except that there is dust on the floor.

You and I are still
Just as we were before;
Before the house of our beings,
There is still a locked door.

And like our real house,
I suppose, if I found the key
That I have now ceased searching for,
There too, I would find only dust on the floor.

—*Esther Milder.*

Rain

It was good to feel the rain against my face, washing my powder off.
I thought of us as two human beings, whose individualities were hidden in a maze of powder.
I wished the rain would drip into our souls and wash it off.
Then I looked into the mirror and I saw my skin was shiny and my nose an unbecoming red.
I was glad, then, that the rain could go no deeper.
For our souls might look quite scrubby and old without their covering.

—*Esther Milder.*

Sonnet: "Organ-Voiced Milton"

Hence, a vain, deluding Milton! to thy door,
A right good round of mischief's to be traced:
With powerful, ungifted hands thou hast
Essayed to learn the jeweler's trade; wherefore,
With wond'rous patience, adding score on score,
A host of brazen Titans didst thou cast;
Thy weighty pudding of poetry doth taste
A mite too floury, needing kneading more.
But seriously, my lad, it may have been
No fault of thine; perchance, howe'er uncouth
It sounds, the Lord did on thee stage a joke,
And thou wert born, if thou getst what I mean,
Not with a silver spoon, as are some folk,
But with, instead, an organ in thy mouth.

—*Max C. Norman.*

Truth

You said you did not fear my wit,—
In fact, defied it, dear;
Then why so anxious as you read
These verses here?

Perhaps you fear that on this page
I'll slur or slander you?
Then fear not: Truth can slander none;
And what you fear is true.

—*Max C. Norman.*

Memo

When that occurs, don't weep for me
Too much;—or plant above the heap
A bowlder to my memory.

Just fix the thing for rest and sleep,
And cushion me through decay;
And,—oh yes! rig up a radio,
To fiddle the worms away.

—*Max C. Norman.*

Sonnet

Yes, I write lyrics;—not the gushy kind,
That late-houred ladies in lounging robes peruse
So languidly, and yawning, turn and talk,
Between the cigarette puffs, of dress and men.
Nor like those semi-dreamsprites, faced with chalk,
Do I enshrine a perfume-tipsy pen,
For filling the school-girl's mother-haunted mind
In secret, with seditious, daring views
Of chaste, illicit love. And yet I wish
Most for the middle pathway. I don't care
To grunt of butchering hogs and vending fish.
Neither alone is truth. I banish these;—
As one forgets the broken, leafless trees
Forlorn and dead, in ancient Union Square.

—*Max C. Norman.*

The Gods

To whom shall we pray?
The Gods do not speak
From where they sit,
Each in his divinity.
We'll pray to the God of Laughter
To send us mirth for which
We cannot pay,—
But our Gods never listen,
They are too busy arranging clouds
For the different seasons,
And making notes of all they have not seen
And mean to, when the next century
Comes crawling upon the legs of adolescent time.
Some day the Gods will lift their wooden faces
And totter from their thrones
Calling upon us to save them.
But we, too, will be busy—seeing new things!

—*Lillian Moskow.*

Poem

I thought that as long as I made you happy
And filled your life with laughter and song
You would stay in the valley with me,
Content . . . . .
But then I found you gazing at the distant hills.
I said, "Go my dear,—the valley is too low for you."
And you went, and I stood in the valley, and watched you go.

—*Eva Honigman.*

Mutation

As one who, workworn, rests his head on hand,
And, sleeping, dreams again forgotten dreams,
Then wakes to find them yet again forgot;
So through Time's haze, I seek to understand
My purposes, and scrutinize what seems
My former self, and find I know it not.
God! when I think of that unnoticed drift,
Its present bearings and its future course,
And feel the eddy-streams within me now,
As yet untried and torpid but as swift
As ambushed silence and with greater force,—
Then when I think where they may carry me,
I like to hope that some day I may grow
A bit more like the way I used to be.

—*Max C. Norman.*

Wise

So silent, blushing, and demure,—
She sighs to me;
So glib, original, and sure,—
She lies to me.
For histrionics of high degree
I give the prize to her;
And yet, she lacks the wit to see
I'm wise to her.

—*Max C. Norman.*

Sigmund Fogler.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

AN EXPERIMENT: INVESTIGATING THE DEPRESSION, OR WHY IT IS CALLED DEATH VALLEY *

It is a stretch of territory some hundred and forty miles long and fifteen miles wide which, in ages past, sank to a depth of 310 feet below sea level. On either side tower mountain ranges to heights of from six to eleven thousand feet.

I had read about this inferno in southeastern California, famed in literature from the days of '49 on. I became literally "fired" with ambition to see it and to test the truth of its gruesome reputation and of the seemingly exaggerated reports of its exalted summer temperatures.

Perhaps my diary will best carry on the story.

August 13

This day starts shortly before 5 A. M. When and where it will end, I don't know. I am and have been

* Mr. Cole has spent many of his summers visiting the most notable physiographic and geological features of the country—Editor.

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"stuck" for the last six hours in the middle of Death Valley with no help in sight, the thermometer breaking altitude records and the nearest human being six miles away at Stovepipe Wells, a trek to which place I shall not attempt until after sundown and hope to end by moonlight. Here's how! (Note the date. It's not Friday, anyway.)

Pursuant to plans I arose at 5 A. M. Breakfasted and had lunch put up and with final instructions from Peterson, George's partner, I started out. (Carrying plenty of water and food, thank goodness!)

Made and crossed Panamint Valley all right and also slowly negotiated the 5,200 feet of Townsend Pass grade successfully (eight miles up, twenty down) over the Toll Road. At Stovepipe Wells in Death Valley came the first intimation of trouble. I thought my starter had "jammed," but the only inhabitant discovered that the trouble was a "short" in the starter.

He got me started by pushing and told me he thought I could find a mechanic at Furnace Creek Inn, twenty-three miles ahead, but on no account to kill my motor until I reached there. I knew enough for that, but six miles out ran into some sand and, of course, the motor had to stop—at 10 A. M. So, here I am and likely to stay until my walk in the moonlight. It is now 4:15 by my watch. I hope my watch is slow.

All day I have been trying to keep my mind off my serious predicament by doing everything I can think of. First I read a magazine I happen to have along. Then I bring my diary up to the minute. Back to the magazine, trying to forget the blistering hot breeze as it whistles through some of the scrubby mesquite bushes. This is the hottest time of the day in the Valley and were it not for this unexpected breeze, it would be stifling. I try to sleep, but without success. I have to shift continually to keep out of the rays of the moving sun. I happen to remember there is a can of grape-fruit juice in the car. It will help pass some of the time to open and mix this with my drinking water. The result is highly satisfactory.

I have with me six gallons of drinking water, enough to last me a couple of days if I stay in the car. But if help should not come, these seething days will have sapped so much energy I will not have a chance to walk to safety. No, the moonlight walk is the best bet!

Now is the time to jot down the few necessities I can take with me when I cut loose. Here is my list: flash light, two-quart thermos bottle, keys, glasses and my one remaining sandwich. Am going to force myself to eat the other just before I start. I have no appetite. How am I to carry these things? In six miles they'll weigh a ton. Why not place them in the collapsible bucket? Is has a broad handle and should be fairly easy to carry. The shadow of the car lengthens on the sand as Old Sol prepares to slip below the Panamint Range. The mountains are beautiful

in the setting sun. I cannot resist snapping a couple of pictures of the peaks called Panamint and Funeral (ominous name).

But now the sun has dropped below the rim. I look at my watch. Just six o'clock. I ought to make it by midnight. Until then I will have the light of the full moon. After that nothing but the flash. Carefully checking off the items on my list, I prepare to depart. Two quarts of water are all I can carry. Well, I will allow myself a drink only at the mile posts. My last act before starting, an identification slip from a page of my notebook. Well, here goes, Mr. Moon. I see you're waiting patiently for our promenade together.

Locking the car and taking a firm hold on the bucket, I step briskly off on the highway. Like fun, I do! I shuffle off into the ruts, depending on a slow steady pace to pull me through. Almost immediately I find myself plodding through sand, not the easiest surface to walk on, by any means. Well, I did not notice much of it on the way out so I guess I'll be out of it soon. Now the car has disappeared and darkness has fallen, but my friend, Mr. Moon, lights the way.

It is neither swelteringly hot nor cool but a parching of my tongue tells me the temperature is at least in the upper 90's. Slowly I push along. More of that sand. Where does it come from? I don't remember seeing it this morning. Well, I've got to get out of it sometime. No drink until the first mile post. Will it ever appear? I keep shifting the bucket from one hand to the other and realize I could never have done without it.

At last, a patch of white which grows larger as I move forward. Always forward, I resolve, no backward step on this trip. The black and white sign grows distinct—"Stovepipe Wells Hotel, 5 Miles." I look at my watch —forty minutes for the first mile. Not so bad. Well, Mr. Moon, one-sixth of the distance. Another mile and it will be one-third, another one-half and—but, not so fast. Let's have a drink. I pour the cap of my thermos full and let the lukewarm liquid trickle down my parched throat. My tongue doesn't feel quite so large.

Shall I rest a while? No, I'll get drowsy and forget to arise. Not five miles from my goal. Get up, you, and go on. From my seat at the roadside I slowly raise myself and, staggering a bit at first, resume "speed."

On to the second lap. Now the road becomes covered with loose rock and the going increases in difficulty. How about another drink? No, sir; at the next mile-post. Do you want to run short? If that happens, pick out the little pile of rocks beneath which you will rest in peace, if human hands reach you before the vultures do.

On, on, on, surely they must have moved that four-mile sign. Eight-thirty and no white patch yet. Well, what of it, you're always going forward. Forward, that's the heartening thought. The sand has now almost entirely given way to loose rock and I am suspicious a blister is forming under one of my big toes. Forget

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it. What was it that Hunter said this morning about the water at Stovepipe being so salt? Well, salt water is the best thing in the world for tired aching feet. It will be the first thing I'll ask for if I reach the hotel. Stop that "if" business, you dumb-bell. Are you a quitter?

A sign? Well, this mile was certainly longer than the first. Never mind, a third of the distance gone. But that means twice as far to go. Stop thinking of that and move on. Are you still with me, Mr. Moon? Well, you said a drink. All right, but don't waste time. Let's have one more look at the sign. No, it can't be true! "Stovepipe Wells Hotel," not four, but three and a half miles!

Yes, you may give three conservative cheers. Gee, that's encouraging. No wonder it seemed so long. Surely, the next one should be two and a half miles.

O. K. for a drink, but no prolonged rest now. Keep moving. Each time it becomes harder to get up. Now it's rocky, now it's up grade, but always on, on, on.

Now for the next marker; will it be three or two and a half? Guilty of a secret longing to see it two, but not daring to hope. Surely, I've covered more than half a mile so it can't be three. It's going to be two and a half. What time is it? 8:10. My watch is my only means of gauging distance as I figure my pace has been fairly uniform so I should now be on my way to the two and a half mark. The blister is doing famously, but remember the salt water at the end of the road. Yes, another drink is in order, don't you think, Mr. Moon?

That two and a half marker is a long way. Perhaps I'm going slower. Never mind, you boob, you're going forward. Surely, from the next rise I'll be able to see the patch of green that marks the hotel, even if it's a couple of miles off. But the next rise simply fades into a similar one, and now alarming symptoms begin to develop. For a while back I have felt a slight twinge of cramp in one foot, but have scarcely dared to think of it.

Now the muscles of both legs begin to be unmistakably affected. I am still, at the very least, two miles from home and a let-down now would be almost certainly fatal. I sit down for another drink and the cramps become acute, doubling me up. I simply must walk them off. Rubbing my legs vigorously, I rise quickly to my feet and swing into step before I have time to think about it. I stagger momentarily, then plunge on.

And now a new thought enters my mind. A lusty shout at frequent intervals will cost me little effort and might possibly reach Hunter's ears at the hotel, although I'm sure he must be asleep. Eight-forty by the watch. I let out a whoop which would turn any Indian green with envy. Only the breeze answers. I notice with some concern that the light wind appears to be blowing away from the hotel. I have long since ceased to think of my tortured feet and am plodding on mechanically, but always forward.

Whooping it up as I stumble along with my companion, Mr. Moon, looking down with apparent approval, I derive only lung exercise. There must be no more signs. Well, the longer they delay putting in their appearance, the less mileage they should indicate when they finally come into view.

As I keep my eyes fixed ahead, I spot something some distance away. It looks like a grove of trees, but I can hardly believe that my eyes are not deceiving me. Were it in the daytime, I would swear it must be a mirage. For trees on the desert almost always mean human habitation. I am convinced, at last, that the hotel cannot be very far off. I double and redouble my shouts, still to no avail. Well, if I can't make the hotel, at least I will be where they'll be sure to see me in the morning.

Now pushing ahead almost blindly I shout lustily once more. A sound! A voice! "I'm coming!"

Down I sit in the middle of the road. A light flashes. I hear a car start, and down the road comes a pair of gleaming head-lights. I still have strength to take out my watch. It is just 9:15. Only three and a quarter hours for those tortuous miles! What you can do when you're fighting for your life! Well, we won, Mr. Moon. Good-night to you.

Sympathetic hands soon helped me into Hunter's Chevrolet and we drove the few remaining yards to the hotel while I kept asking only for a cabin and a tub of salt water. More ready sympathy came from Mrs. Hunter, a charming lady, as they both told me how concerned they had been about me ever since I left the hotel. In fact, in the afternoon Hunter had driven four miles out on the road, and there I was stalled at six! As I thought, they had been sound asleep and had not heard my shouts until I turned the last corner.

A large tub was soon filled with warm salt water from the well and it's a wonder I didn't step into it shoes and all. Boy, it felt good. Hunter emptied my thermos and filled it with some of their cool water. "Only a couple of cupfuls were left in yours," he said. I must have been drinking without being conscious of it, for I remember only four or five occasional drinks. I was told it had probably been not 120° but 130° out where the car was and that a month ago I could never have accomplished the walk as it frequently remains well over 100° in the Valley, even at night. "Indeed," said Hunter, "the margin between stark tragedy and safety in your case was very narrow." And I readily agreed with him.

I spent the remainder of the night alternately sleeping and making visits to the tub of soothing water.

Here endeth a Memorable Day.

Why do they call it Death Valley? I almost found the answer.

HARRY D. COLE.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

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HIGH POINTS

Ideals to be Realized in the Growth of Boys and Girls

As the Resultant of the Educational Forces in the High Schools of New York City

1. The Will to Perfection. That he have built up the will to do and the resulting habit of always doing as well as it can be done by a person of his capacity whatever seems to him worth doing to that degree of excellence.
2. That he have acquired effective methods and habits of work. The capacity for prolonged intensive effort, intelligently directed to the realization of a clearly defined objective.
3. That he have gained the power and habit of analysis. The habit of arriving at decisions on the basis of evidence accurately evaluated.
4. That he have acquired critical-mindedness as a constructive attitude toward life, the want of which in American life is largely responsible for corrupt and inefficient government.
5. That he be open-minded, intellectually sympathetic; aware of his mind sets; able to review his convictions with a view to a revision of his own judgments.
6. That he be tolerant, realizing that every one, by virtue of the fact that he is a human being, has something in his experience that is worth while to another. That he be not only willing but eager to get the other person's point of view and therefore willing to credit the other person with honesty of conviction; and, as the outcome of this attitude and practice, that he develop the power and habit of finding the best in other people.
7. That he have the courage of his convictions; the intellectual and moral courage to carry into effect a decision intelligently arrived at. Courage to follow the truth when once it is seen.
8. That he be dependable; that having once taken upon himself a trust, he will discharge it no matter what disagreeable experiences may be entailed.
9. That he possess a highly developed imagination and rich emotional responsiveness to rich emotional stimuli, with an appreciation of the beautiful in music, in the representative arts, in Nature, in literature, in speech, coupled with the moral obligation to realize it.
10. That he have a habit of reflection, creating in him humility and reverence.
11. That he possess a respect for craftsmanship and a joy in his own craftsmanship as the outcome of the cultivation of at least one creative activity.
12. That he be intellectually curious, possessed of an inquiring mind which carries him constantly into broader, deeper, richer fields of experience and which results in growth in the diversity and intensity of his abiding interests.
13. That he be possessed of a sense of obligation to continually realize and live up to his utmost capacity and thus create a capacity for endless growth.
14. That he have achieved a sense of freedom as the outcome of a long course of discipline and evolved from discipline from without to complete self-discipline.
15. That he be no longer an individual but a person, a man who has learned to live in a social group, a man with a highly developed spirit of coöperation who possesses the ability to put himself in the other person's place and not to take for himself an undue share of the social product, a man willing to accept social obligations in proportion to his capacity; socially adaptable.

JOHN L. TILDSEY,
District Superintendent
of High Schools.

The Founding of a School Art Gallery and Museum at the James Monroe High School

James Monroe's Art Gallery grew out of a series of blundering attempts by the writer to decorate suitably the halls and walls of the school building. Satisfactory results might perhaps have been obtained with less waste of effort if we had had from the first a clearly visualized plan of action. But the very vastness of the problem, such an enormous amount of uninspiring wall space clamoring to be decorated all at once, made the task seem futile and discouraging. Maybe the final resolve to convert the building with its blocks of halls and walls into an art gallery that runs from the ground floor up to the top, was not exactly the great idea of the century, but even so, it was surprisingly slow in coming, and when it finally took hold, the school was five years older.

The difference between a plan for mere school decoration and a planned school museum is a difference between decoration applied to the surface of a structure as an afterthought and one in which structure and ornament are integrated from the very first, where function and beauty are one. For a museum is a part of the functional purpose for which the building was constructed and is just as much an organic part of it as its desks and its classrooms.

Once this is granted then the form that it shall take is completely controlled by this fundamental purpose: "Form follows function." This is axiomatic in art parlance. It proves as safe a guide in organizing a museum as it does in the designing of an automobile, or the construction of a bridge or of an office building.

As mere decoration, the material gathered is an end in itself, but as a museum it becomes part of the school's curriculum, linking up with literature, the social sciences, the classic and for-

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eign language studies, and, in fact, with practically every subject that is taught.

Thus on the main floor, history reveals itself in the monumental sculpture of Egypt, through giant-sized photographs, taken from the originals at the Metropolitan Museum of Art. I have seen a young teacher of history discuss them with some of his pupils. They evidently recognized in Queen Hat-shep-sut and King Thutmose old friends come to life. Then again, on the main floor, to the left, as you enter, Medieval France presents the ardent expression of her "imagiers" who so naively and so skilfully breathed into the stone the spirit of their age. There in the centre, as you enter, Michelangelo spreads before you his individualistic concept of the "Creation," the original prophets and Sybils of which adorn the Sistine Chapel. The Parthenon, the Pyramids, the Cathedrals of Cologne and Chartres, the Taj Mahal, all tell their various stories of beauty and of a bygone humanity.

On our walls mingle and gossip the patrician nobility of Venice, the merchant princes of Florence, the burghers of Holland, the cavaliers and tavern roisterers of Frans Hals, the strong and rugged Dutch and Flemish peasants and dwarfs, jesters and Infantas of Spain. All this is on the main floor.

The second floor is a history of the art of painting. On one side of the building, on the left, the Italian, French, German and Russian Primitives tell in pale enamel-like colors mixed with gold, with an infallible feeling for architectural design, the deep piety of the age. Then swinging from the left toward the centre of the building are those transitional expressions of periods and lands which bridge the past with the present; and then comes the right wing, which is devoted to the Moderns, idolized by some and anathema to others. Here the scientist combines with the artist to achieve new forms in color, and the archaeologist and the student of African and Indian art initiate the modern world into the art of the jungles.

Space does not permit me to give in this brief sketch a very detailed description, but I hope that the reader will supplement this with a visit to the school, where a catalogue may help give a fuller appreciation.

For me, personally, the gathering of this material was in the nature of a great adventure. It is true that it meant and still means much work, but it is also work in self-expression, which is always pleasurable. The search brought me into book shops and print shops, and old curiosity shops, to rug dealers, to museums and to art galleries. We combed the markets of Europe and America for our material. Then came the mounting, framing, organizing and the hanging. Ambition did not confine itself to art alone, but reached out toward the sciences and to literature. Perhaps in time the sciences will be as well represented as the arts.

I feel grateful to the James Monroe High School, to its halls and walls, for standing by me so patiently while all this was happening, to the General Organization for its great generosity, and to Dr. Hein, the Principal of the school, for his constant encouragement, sometimes amounting to almost a push.

Da Vinci said, "The more we know the more we love," meaning, no doubt, that interest and appreciation grow with knowledge. And again, "The painter who draws by practice and judgment of the eye without the use of reason, is like a mirror which reproduces within itself all the objects which are set opposite to it without knowledge of the same."

The above thoughts might well apply to the works displayed in our school. It will take time for true appreciation to develop, daily contact alone is not sufficient, true appreciation comes from knowledge and reflection combined, if possible, with some effort at creative self-expression. This will place an additional responsibility upon the members of the Art Department, but it will also place at their service a wealth of art material possessed, at present, by few, if any other, similar schools in the world.

I read recently of a report on character education, prepared by a committee of the High School Teachers Association, that will shortly be published. In the brief account given in the newspapers of this report English was ranked highest of the subjects taught as an aid to character development, with history, civics, biology, health education, music, mathematics, and the sciences following. I saw no mention of the so-called "Fine Arts." Let us hope that they will be included in the fuller report, for the arts are objectified expressions of the very souls of the peoples of the past, and a Greek column of marble or an Egyptian statue of polished granite are not only things of permanent beauty, but they are also complete expressions of an outlook upon life by the respective civilizations which produced them.

MAX S. WILKES.
James Monroe High School.

The Educational Value of Typewriting

It is true that the "educational values of any subject are those values which are consciously striven for in accordance with a definite teaching plan." It is also true that not only must the teacher be conscious of these aims, but the pupils themselves should be made aware of them.

To begin with, can we in the initial stage of teaching typewriting bring out any abilities that are educational for the pupil? I am inclined to say that we can because of the very nature of the process of learning to typewrite.

Typewriting is a neuro-muscular adjustment. The nervous system must be so organized that the stimulus presented to the eye must quickly find a response in the hand. Not only must we set up these responses, but they must be made mechanical and automatic. Now it is through this fact, the making of these responses mechanical and automatic, that we get our opportunity.

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It doesn't take the pupil very long to realize in learning to typewrite that concentration is necessary. He soon finds out that in trying to initiate, direct, and control the correct sequence of finger movements required to make a series of strokes, that this function is absolutely essential. We are thus setting up habits of concentration and attention.

Again, in attempting to avoid wrong responses and develop resistance to distractions, the ability to inhibit is being gradually formed, and we can make a point of the value of healthful inhibitions to the pupil.

All the time the pupil is practicing, he is forming the habits of position, of location, of the sense of touch, of the different reaches of the fingers. The development of these simultaneously is a great factor in motor-coördination. And right here I wish to say that the mental hygienists claim that orderly habits of concentration, attention and motor-coördination are some of the essential factors in mental hygiene which make for the integration of the personality.

Surely we are developing habits of exactness and precision since it is only through exact habits that skill of any kind can be developed.

These are some of the habits we try to emphasize in the habit-forming stage of learning to typewrite. If we turn to the intermediate stage, after the responses have been made automatic and we begin to apply the typewriting technique, we are able to present to the pupils a great mass of information concerning the details, operations, and background of the business world. Through the copying of letters, he becomes familiar not only with the various forms but the different types of letters used in business.

The typing of business forms such as checks, invoices, telegrams, and monthly statements, opens up further information and insight into business transactions. Legal papers, contracts and documents carry this on still further. I don't think it is necessary to stress the educational value of all this information.

There is a third phase that I should like to touch upon. We can make an attempt to stress certain character traits in connection with the typewriting. In the earlier stages, if we notice any pupil making many errors in typewriting, we can say to the pupil, "Here is your chart of errors. Analyze them; pick out the ones that are recurring. Here are the corrective remedial exercises. It is your job to undo these bad habits and form correct ones." We are thus placing the responsibility on the pupil himself.

Again in the advanced classes, we can combine the isolated skills in the form of problems and leave it to the pupils to use their initiative and their creative ability to carry the task through to a finish. "You are the stenographer for such and such an employer," we say to them. "Your employer has just finished dictating these four letters to you. Here is your supply of paper. Typewrite these letters using the correct form and correct size paper." In following a lesson of this sort with a class or group criticism of the results, we are developing discrimination and judgment. Again in assuming this employer and stenographer relationship, we encourage the habit of listening closely to instruction, and the ability to grasp and carry out instruction.

Finally in the Type 4 term, we can arrange for some group work. The dictation in that grade is grouped around central themes such as travel, insurance, invention, investment and banking. The class is divided into groups, each under a chairman. One of the topics is presented to each group. It is the business of the group to organize and gather all illustrative material, data, information, consulting the teacher and the library, if necessary. The group conferences for the organization of the work are held in class. The chairman may call other conferences either in class or after school. When the time for the dictation of the topic presented to a group comes, that group puts up all collected material on the bulletin board and gives a little talk to the rest of the class concerning it. Then follows the dictation on that topic.

It is in some such manner that we try to tie up the different skills so that they bring out and encourage character traits.

M. Coltillette.
Walton High School.

The Library as the Laboratory of the School

As the high school library has evolved from a few books in the hallway or in some obscure corner of the school, it has grown so quietly that often even the teachers have not been conscious of its value and of its possibilities for service. There have been many conceptions and many misconceptions of the purpose and the achievements of the school library. In an article which appeared in the second series of "School Library Experience," Miss Helen Harris of Knoxville, Tennessee, has stated the purpose of the school library as follows: To lead children to love books and reading; to teach them to supplement their studies with other than textbooks; to train them to use the public library intelligently. It is this second objective, Miss Harris says, that keeps the librarian with her nose so close to the grindstone that she is in danger of forgetting everything else.

In the library of Julia Richman High School, we have deliberately chosen this second and least glamorous objective and have aimed to make the library a laboratory where the pupils may find the necessary material for research in every subject of the curriculum. More truly, it might be said that this objective has been set for the library by the school, for in the final analysis the course of a school library which really functions must be determined by the faculty of the school. The high school library must follow the aims and plan of the school and all its aims and plans must seek to supplement and fulfill those of the school rather than to develop separate standards of its own.

This laboratory at Julia Richman is equipped with books, pictures, maga-

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zines, newspapers and clipping files. The book collection is small, far too small for the number of pupils who must use it. Even before the days of the depression the library allotment was totally inadequate, and since the depression it has been reduced to an impossible minimum. Yet a pupil was heard to say that it was the best library in the country, and it probably is for her, for in it she may readily find the books which she needs. The collection has been carefully selected. It has been built up from the recommendations of the chairmen of the departments and every book has been chosen to fill a definite need of the classroom. Probably because of the very necessity for careful selection the library has a small but workable collection of books for every subject of the curriculum.

Pictures are a very important part of the equipment. These are designed to serve the very practical purpose of helping the classroom teachers to demonstrate certain facts or to enable the pupils to visualize unfamiliar objects or scenes. The pictures are mounted on plain cardboard with an effort to make them straight and true, but with little emphasis on the beautiful.

Pamphlets and all such material as may be obtained free or at a small cost are collected in the vertical files. Here may be found such material as the pamphlets issued by the publishers about the authors whose books they publish. There are state and Federal documents on flowers, insects and other subjects of interest to the science classes and bulletins and pamphlets from the business houses which are valuable to the history classes. Probably the most popular feature of this laboratory is the clipping file. A daily bulletin is made of the newspaper articles which are most interesting and most pertinent for the classroom work. From these articles those of special interest are selected. Sunday newspapers, discarded magazines and any other source of current material are searched, and all such matter as seems to correlate with the class work is selected. These articles are mounted on cardboard with a stapling machine and are classified according to the "Readers' Guide" indexing. With a small list of newspapers and magazines, the equipment of this laboratory is complete.

The science teacher using the science laboratory knows her pupils and sets a definite problem for the class. Very different is the laboratory problem for the librarian. In the Julia Richman High School the library receives some 150 or more pupils each period and they are each day a different 150 with 150 different problems. The librarian thus meets in one day more than a quarter of the school's enrollment. During the school day the library admits only those pupils who have definite need of the library for reading or preparing assignments from library books. Text-books are not admitted to the room, not because there is a grave objection to their use, but because the library could not accommodate all who would come. In this laboratory the assignment is the problem to be solved and often the librarian must interpret the assignment before she can recommend the material for solving it. The assignment is made by a teacher who thinks that she has made it absolutely clear and simple and has taken the precaution of having it copied into a note-book. Perhaps it is characteristic of the adolescent period, or it may be merely human nature, to ask for an indefinite thing when a very definite thing is desired. "Where are the non-fiction books?" the librarian is often asked. After some questioning it is disclosed that the teacher has assigned an English or an American essay or some very definite type of book. A number of pupils recently requested a map of a transcontinental railroad which proved difficult to find, yet on questioning the teacher the librarian learned that she had merely requested the class to find the names of the terminal cities. A request for an "under the bridge dictionary" is easily interpreted and is quite characteristic of the type of mistake in which the pupil hears incorrectly. Often the assignments are copied incorrectly, but more often they are given correctly on mimeographed sheets and are misinterpreted by the pupils.

When the librarian has correctly interpreted the assignment, she may proceed to advise the right book or other material for preparing the lesson. Theoretically the librarian should send the child to the catalogue and thus encourage her to do independent work, but time presses and there are always four or five pupils awaiting the librarian's attention. Each problem is new to the librarian and she must therefore check the index before she can safely recommend a book. Another question may lead to the magazines through the use of the "Readers' Guide" and the librarian must pause a moment to explain how this index is used. Even when a familiar problem gives her confidence that a certain book may be advised without further checking, the librarian often will find that the pupil will return it with the complaint that it does not have anything on her topic. This happened recently in the case of Beard's "American Government and Politics" which was given to a pupil for the topic, "The Flexibility of the American Government." The girl found it unsatisfactory because she had looked up the topic in the index and not finding it, was convinced that the book could not help her. The average girl of this age is very literal-minded. If the book does not say exactly what she wants or what the teacher has asked for, she will reject it.

If the library is to achieve any lasting results, it is not enough that the daily lesson be prepared. The pupils must be taught to do independent work and they must be prepared to use books in their college work or in the public library, if high school is the end of their formal education. With this in mind, it has been the policy of the Julia Richman library to encourage independent work as far as possible. Reference books may be consulted without the formality of

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signing for their use, and the pupils are allowed to browse around and seek their own materials. They are left to their own devices until they ask aid or show that they are not able to find the necessary material.

Pamphlets, clippings and picture files may be freely consulted. The pupils are merely requested to return all such material to the desk to avoid misfiling. It is true that often clippings disappear, sometimes because they are carelessly put back in the files and sometimes they are deliberately taken, perhaps to be presented to the teacher as evidence of original work.

In order to train the pupils to use this laboratory, a series of six lessons is given by the librarian in coöperation with the English department. Through these lessons an effort is made to teach the pupils to use the card catalogue, the "Readers' Guide," the index and other parts of a book and a few general reference books. When books are torn or stolen, when the best clippings and books disappear and when at the end of the period papers are left on the tables, the librarian may wonder what this laboratory is teaching the pupils. Yet she may pause in the middle of a busy period and watch the pupils as they quietly and intelligently consult the catalogue and find their own books on the shelves, as they select the right volume of the encyclopedia or use the "Readers' Guide," and she may feel confident that the library is a real part of the educational system. The library of the Julia Richman High School is essentially a practical, work-a-day unit. It endeavors to help the classroom teacher to teach better and to help the pupils to learn better. Yet if this were all the library achieved, it would be true, as Miss Harris has said, that the librarian's nose is so close to the grindstone that she can see only that which is right close to her. But the librarians of Julia Richman High School believe that the other two objectives are not in the distance but are really present. They feel confident that a library which can inspire these young people with the faith that it is ever present to help them in their daily lessons will lead them, through the use of the public library, to a love of reading and good books. Surely in these days when we are looking forward to a time of greater leisure, no greater boon can be given to the children of today than the love of good books and the ability to use libraries to find them.

VERA ELDER,
Librarian.

Julia Richman High School.

The Mathcraft Society

A new club, "The Mathkraft Society," has been formed at Abraham Lincoln High School. The purpose of the club is to study the applications of mathematics and to construct mathematical models and machines.

Thus far some of the members have constructed some very interesting objects. One boy made a pantograph (a machine for reproducing a given diagram on a larger or smaller scale). Another made a Peaucellier linkage (a device for drawing a straight line by means of circular motion).

A third member made a working model of Napier's rods (a device used by Napier in the early days of mathematics to facilitate multiplication).

Other members have constructed models to illustrate the more difficult theorems of Geometry and the variation of the functions in Trigonometry.

Some of the things the club expects to consider are:

1. The investigation of the relation of mathematics to optical instruments and mirrors.
2. The construction of a sun dial.
3. The construction of machines with which to draw ellipses, hyperbolas, conchoidas and other curves.
4. The construction of homemade transits, sextants, and other instruments and a study of their use in map-drawing and surveying.
5. The study and construction of calculating machines.
6. The construction of graphs, charts, and models to be used by the teachers of the department in their classes.

In some cases the work of the club will be correlated with the shop work of some of its members. Otherwise most of the objects will be made at home with simple materials.

SAMUEL H. BARKAN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Shop Talk

The foundation of Vocational Education, Industrial Arts, Manual Arts, Art Craft, or what have you, is still in the process of construction. The movement has its roots deep down in the educational philosophy of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Froebel. It was first introduced into the United States via the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876, and in the last twenty-five years it has gained considerable momentum.

The chief objectives are to instill a taste for and love of work in general; to inspire respect for rough, honest bodily labor; to develop the sense and love of order, exactness, cleanliness and economy; to cultivate perseverance and the power of concentration; to promote general dexterity; to train and develop the perceptive, analytical, constructive and inventive faculties; to develop and strengthen the body and to cultivate the esthetic sense.

To do all this for the pupils is more effective than any other educational system of manual training, because it aims to interest these pupils, adapting the exercise to their mental and physical ability by means of careful methodical progression, and producing a useful article as a result of this work.

In this industrial age, it is our problem in education to teach safety and accident prevention in its various forms, help to develop habits and attitudes which are more effective than mechanical protections.

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The seven cardinal principles of secondary education are applied to the shop as well as to the entire educational structure.

1. *Health.* Pupils become familiar with occupational dangers, health hazards, occupational safety precautions, health possibilities in selection of a vocation, and conservation of strength through manual activities.

2. *Fundamental Processes.* An insight is gained into actual life outside the school as well as application of related work, such as mathematics, correct speech, physics and so forth.

3. *Worthy Home Membership.* The shop develops ability and resourcefulness which will function for all in making repairs about the home, and in appreciating skill and labor to the fullest measure of serviceability.

4. *Vocation.* The pupils acquire skill and ability, serve society through vocation; appreciate the value of vocations to the community, and discover their interests in manipulative activities.

5. *Civic and Social Education.* Coöperation for the general good and a realization of the relationship between various vocational groups are taught.

6. *Leisure Time.* The pupil learns about manipulative activities, experiments, special readings, observation and the enjoyment of the products, and performances of others. He also develops a love for that which is beautiful and a desire for artistic, appropriate and harmonious surroundings.

7. *Ethical Character.* The shop develops habits of industry, responsibility for a task, ethical integrity of the worker as shown in finished projects and valuable personal traits.

In conclusion, teacher, if your patience in the incessant struggle with fickle and light-headed youth begins to give out, remember the patient endurance and faith in mankind of Comenius, Rousseau, Froebel and Pestalozzi and you will renew your strength, confidence and love in your pupils again.

JOSEPH GREEN.

James Madison High School.

Course of Study in Literature at the Abraham Lincoln High School

("The motto must be: 'Learn to act with and for others while you learn to think and to judge for yourself.'" —JOHN DEWEY.)

LITERATURE

The study of literature is planned so that it represents a gradual development from the simple and juvenile to the more complex and mature, a progression of interest from external to internal conflict, and from physical to psychological action. It is thus hoped that the course may become one in human and social behavior as well as in literature. If through class discussion of literature a pupil does not gain a greater insight into human nature (and ultimately into the complex workings of his own nature), a more realistic understanding of social problems (and ultimately those that face him and the world in which he lives) or a greater knowledge of the materials with which to evaluate or formulate ethical concepts, then he might just as well stay at home, read his books, and write good old-fashioned summaries of their contents.

In working toward these aims, let us encourage honest difference of opinion (even when these opinions differ from our own) and cultivate an inquiring mind that is willing to suspend judgment; but let us discourage intellectual arrogance and an attitude that is merely controversial.

In the course of this social and intellectual interest, we must not forget that literature is an art form and that appreciation should continue to receive a major emphasis, especially in poetry. A modern English teacher must have enthusiasm and courage, enthusiasm for the best in literature and courage to treat realistically and critically the worst in social evils.

TERM I
Men in Action
(Adventure and the Sea)

TEXTS

1. Treasure Island, The White Company, *or* Call of the Wild.
2. The Ancient Mariner and Sea Poems.
3. Short Stories of Various Types.

SUPPLEMENTARY TEXTS (for slow groups or as additional reading for normal groups)

1. Adventures of Tom Sawyer.
2. Playing the Game.
3. Stories of Adventure.

LITERATURE

The appeal this term is mainly to the interest in action, although pupils should learn to evaluate character and motives through speech and action. This character study may be very elementary, merely requiring pupils to apply adjectives to persons read about and to justify these adjectives by specific references to the story.

Ethical concepts that may well be stressed include: courage, kindness, loyalty, independence of spirit, perseverance of spirit, idealism, etc.

TERM II
Men and Supermen
(Heroes of Legend and History)

TEXTS

1. The Odyssey.
2. Up From Slavery.
3. Abraham Lincoln (Drinkwater).

SUPPLEMENTARY TEXTS (for slow groups or as additional reading for normal groups)

1. Myths and Their Meaning.
2. Heroes of Progress.
3. Modern Pioneers.

LITERATURE

The appeal this term is to the pupils' interest in heroes, past and present, classical and national. Character study should become more analytical than in Term I. The qualities that make for greatness, the obstacles that confront man, the possibilities for service to mankind, the times of which these men are an essential part should be stressed. In this term pupils should get some idea of Greek customs and beliefs (mythology), of Negro life and liberation, and of Civil War problems. The Greek simplicity, love of beauty, and imaginative power; the Negro's humility, persever-

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ance, and childlike faith; the simple dignity, humanity, and solid virtues of Lincoln—all are worthy concepts which may be developed.

TERM III

Man and His Neighbor

(Insight into Human Nature)

TEXTS

1. Silas Marner.
2. Merchant of Venice.
3. One Hundred Narrative Poems, *or* This Singing World.

SUPPLEMENTARY TEXTS (for slow groups or as additional reading for normal groups)

1. Oliver Twist.
2. One-Act Plays of Various Types.

LITERATURE

The books of this term may be unified by the study of man's relation to his neighbor, both in the evil and the good he can accomplish. The study of characterization this term should probe more deeply than in English II. Understanding of motives behind men's actions, whether good or evil; weighing the conclusions at which they arrive, and condemning or justifying the attitude of society toward them, should be the focal points of the discussion. These books cannot be taught without emphasizing the need for tolerance, sympathy, and better understanding among people and the stupidity of prejudice, desire for revenge, and reliance on chance to settle one's problem. Even "One Hundred Narrative Poems" offers opportunity for this type of treatment if the selections are based on a unifying theme or emotion.

Worthwhile enrichment may come through a study of Shakespeare's theatre and times, of rural England in the nineteenth century, and of the historical and geographical setting of many of the poems. If properly handled, the text thus becomes more clear and vivid.

However, detailed biographies of authors, background information that has no bearing on the problems involved, or long, boring reports should never be given.

TERM IV

Man and His Voice

(The Power of the Spoken Word)

TEXTS

1. Tucker's or Goldstone's "One Act Plays."
2. Yesterday and Today.
3. Reference: Better Speech.

LITERATURE

The books of this term were selected because they are especially adapted to work in Oral English. The plays offer opportunity for oral discussion of the problems involved, both technical and ethical, as a preparation for effective classroom dramatization. The aim should always be to develop intelligent, imaginative reading, not the delicate nuances of professional acting.

The poetry of this term, if properly motivated, should introduce the pupils to a new world, rich in emotion, imagination and beauty. The four major appeals of poetry should be stressed:

1. To the ear (music).
2. To the mind's eye (vivid pictures—imagination).
3. To the heart (emotion).
4. To the mind (thought).

Poetic comparison (simile, metaphor, personification) should be taught as aids to vividness and not as formal exercises.

TERM V

Man and Society

(Problems of Human Conduct as Seen in Man's Clash with Society)

TEXTS

1. Tale of Two Cities.
2. Galsworthy's *or* Barrie's Plays.
3. Modern Biography.

LITERATURE

The unifying theme of these books is the struggle of the individual against the forces set up by society. Characterization here demands a more analytical study of man, both as an individual and as a member of a social group. Power is frequently accompanied by abuses—the majority is not always right. Therefore, the importance of approaching social problems with an open mind, an inquiring attitude, and suspended judgment must be stressed. It will be found that such worthwhile concepts as patriotism, duty, loyalty, democracy, justice, success and the like need re-examination and re-evaluation. Such discussions ought to give pupils a greater interest in and a more intelligent attitude toward the problems that face the world today.

Worthwhile enrichment may come through the study of the French Revolution, but it should be approached from the human rather than the historical point of view, from the modern implications (abuses of power, corruption, etc.) rather than its dead issues (dates, taxes, etc.). The plays and biographies offer interesting incidental enrichment, but supplementary details about men's lives and background have no value unless they have a direct bearing on the problems involved.

TERM VI

Man and His Emotions

(Problem of Human Conduct as Seen in Man's Clash with Himself)

TEXTS

1. Macbeth.
2. Idylls of the King.
3. Schweikert's *or* Knickerbocker's Short Stories.

LITERATURE

In this term, the texts all picture man's struggle with himself. Characterization here should probe more deeply into the complicated workings of man's soul. Pupils should begin to question and to understand the forces within man which make him act as he does; to recognize that character is cumulative, not a static thing; and to realize that emotions and desires, while they may lead to successful attainment of our ideals, may also, once out of control, lead to disintegration of personality and failure. Even the Short Stories, if the mature ones are selected, offer opportunity to evaluate motives, emotions, desires, and their far-reaching effect on human lives. Pupils may thus be made to understand why we all behave like human beings.

Enrichment may come through discussion of the limitations that the Elizabethan Theatre placed on Shakes-

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peare's art and of the necessity of catering to a tabloid audience with its love of the supernatural, the bloody, and the spectacular. Recognition of Arthur as a Briton warrior, dressed in the romantic trappings of chivalry by Malory, and furnished with Victorian ethics by Tennyson, may serve as an interesting example of the evolution of a legendary figure. However, any Medieval or Elizabethan research of an occult nature, any background study which does not vitalize the material, any purely technical approach (the technique of the short story as a literary form or the diagramming of action in a play) should be avoided like the plague.

Term VII
Man and His Mind
(The Power of Reason)

Texts

1. Hamlet.
2. Lincoln's Speeches *or* Burke's Conciliation *or* Landmarks of Liberty.
3. Essays Old and New.

Literature

The work of this term consists largely of an analysis of man as a thinking being and the reconstruction of his personality as revealed through his thoughts. In Hamlet we see the process of clear thinking vitiated by a lack of emotional balance, by an extreme sensitivity which makes it impossible for him to cope realistically with the problems that face him, and by a tendency to rationalize his difficulties in terms of personal desires. In the essay, we come into contact with writers who take us on excursions into a wide variety of fields of thought; they may be whimsical or serious, trivial or important, but always we recognize them as the reflection of vibrant personalities. In the speeches, generally, we follow the application of thought to the solution of critical problems; here we see clearly the characteristics of logical thinking: a complete grasp of the chief issues involved; the selection, arrangement, and presentation of pertinent and authoritative material; the drawing of conclusions based on definite proof, leading to a plan of action the best possible under the circumstances. Such study should stimulate an interest in present-day social and political problems, train pupils in applying logical method to their solution, and develop a humanitarian and social point of view through the discussion of basic principles, as true today as they were in Burke's and Lincoln's time.

For enrichment in connection with Hamlet, see suggestions for Term VI. Discussion of Elizabethan beliefs regarding purgatory, suicide, Christian burial, ghosts, revenge, and so on, may help to clarify situations in the play. The biographical notes in "Essays Old and New" should be used with caution, only as a means of throwing further light on the personality of the essayist. In connection with the speeches, it will be necessary to devote a lesson or two to background study of the crisis. This should be developed in terms of the problems of the period most closely connected with the speech and not as a history lesson on the American Revolution or the Civil War.

Term VIII
"Reading Maketh a Full Man"
(Literature as an Interpretation of Life)

Texts

1. Twelve Centuries of English Poetry and Prose.
2. The Return of the Native, Ethan Frome.
3. Ibsen's Plays.

Literature

The anthology was chosen for this term's work because it gives the teacher an opportunity to teach what he is really enthusiastic about and because it enables the pupil to orient himself in the stream of English literature and to drink deeply. However, this does not mean that the course should be either a survey of English Literature or a disjointed, haphazard sampling that lacks any continuity. Lessons should be planned as units, beginning at the level of the pupil's interests (story and drama) and progressing to the great lyrical and philosophical poems of the major poets. In order to conform to the city's syllabus and possible college entrance requirements for pupils, it will be necessary to include the following in planning for the term's work:

1. A series of at least six essays. ("Of Studies," "Ned Softly," "Old China," "A Piece of Chalk," "The Medieval and Modern Workman," "Eldorado," offer variety, interest, and worthwhile themes.)
2. A unit of major poetry. (Milton's "L'allegro" and "Il Penseroso" or the poetry of Wordsworth, Shelley and Keats.)
3. The sonnet. (Its form; a generous sampling from the great sonnet writers.)

To the human and social values which have been emphasized throughout the high school course and which should still be stressed, may be added appreciation of the beauty and power of language and imagery. The material is rich in possibilities of assisting pupils to re-examine and re-define old ideas and ideals, to vitalize and integrate them into a philosophy of life that can function.

Hints to Inexperienced Teachers

1. *Need for Planning*

The teacher should be prepared to *teach* the lesson, not be merely acquainted with the material. Such preparation requires definite planning and should include ideally:

(a) Specific goals toward which the lesson should move.
(b) Motivation to arouse interest and relate material to pupils' own lives.
(c) Orientation—helping the pupil to place himself in the situation and to identify himself with the problem.

2. *The Importance of Good Questioning*

If the teacher cannot, through questioning, elicit the responses necessary to the development of the lesson, the recitation, no matter how well-

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planned, will be static and ineffective. Good questions start discussion, allow for difference of opinion, focus attention on important points, and direct the development of the lesson as a whole. In general, the "why" or problem question and the "you" or identification question (used discreetly, of course) are the most valuable types. Large topical questions precipitate discussion, integrate the material, and centralize the development of the lesson. Questions to which the teacher does not know the answer are often the most stimulating and provocative. Avoid the yes-no question, the fill-in-the-blank, and the leading question.

3. *Effectiveness of Following the Discussion on the Blackboard*

Such summaries or analyses serve not only as foci of attention during the discussion and pegs for further discussion, but also as means of preventing repetition and as an aid in summarizing at the close of recitation.

4. *Enrichment through Teacher Contributions*

(a) There should be incidental introduction of interesting, pertinent material drawn from the teacher's wider reading, experience and keener awareness.

(b) The teacher should train himself to read aloud effectively, especially poetry.

(c) The teacher should supply additional related material in the form of newspaper clippings, short poems which present similar ideas, or anything else that will make of the study of literature not a digging into the text (erudition) but a digging out toward new horizons (culture).

ALICE F. COLVIN,
MAXWELL NURNBERG.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

An Experiment in Vocational Guidance

We have been conducting at Walton an interesting experiment in the field of vocational guidance.

It was suggested that the social studies and commercial studies departments of Walton High School hold a series of conferences. As a result of our meetings, the following conclusions were reached:

1. That a desirable and happy young citizen can best be formed by early placing in the hands of the high school pupil information concerning the power to earn his livelihood.
2. That an early study by the high school pupil will assist in arousing his interest and creating such power.
3. That a high school graduate should have practical information concerning various phases of industry, from a utilitarian standpoint.
4. That this information will aid to his cultural development as well.

It was decided, therefore, to formulate a plan based on vocational, utilitarian, and cultural aims.

The assignment of the writer to conduct this experiment was evidently dictated because of his long teaching experience and business experience, as well as his interest in vocational guidance.

The material was at hand. The well conceived course in Elementary Business Training provided such material. Bearing in mind that our main purpose was vocational guidance, I rearranged the course somewhat. Herewith is the general outline used:

Week	Subject
1	Retailing Neighborhood Store
2	Retailing Department Stores Chains Specialty Shops Mail Order Houses
3	Wholesaling
4	Manufacturing
5	Selling
6	Selling
7	Advertising
8	Advertising
9	Credits and Collections
10	Money and Banks
11	Investment
12	Foreign Trade
13	Real Estate
14	Printing
15	Hotels, Restaurants, Tea Rooms
16	Service Industries
17	Amusement Industries
18	Trades
19	Professions
20	An Individual Graph View

As a means of preparation for this work, a Business Club was formed last Spring by the Department of Accounting with the writer in charge. He planned and executed club visits to local organizations, the activities of which were afterward discussed. Since there existed no text to convey the outline in the order indicated, it was necessary to prepare one. Thus equipped we were ready to proceed.

A second term class [illegible] study Civics Two was provided, 73% of whom had had one term of Elementary Business Training, which provided the foundation for this work. Uppermost was the question as to whether the subjects to be taught were beyond the scope of this class. Illustrative material was provided in abundance.

The following methodology is employed:

Each Monday is devoted to motivating a new subject and to its development through questioning. Assignments for the week, covering various phases of the industry are given to a number of students and discussions held regarding methods of finding material for the execution of these assignments. No homework is assigned, but each student is held responsible for original research in the subject under discussion, the results of which are incorporated into their note-books. These are examined every Friday, and form a very important element in this work. They are neatly kept and contain, in addition to notes, illustrations, diagrams, and clippings bearing on the week's work. At the end of the term, they will be put into book form and may be consulted by students of succeeding classes.

Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday are devoted to a detailed study conducted by the students and directed by the teacher. The procedure consists of reports of investigations and interviews, the reading of reports based on research, dramatization, and discussions.

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The results to date have been gratifying. The students are receiving preparation for their life work. The pupils are keenly interested. They are learning how to stand on their feet in front of an audience and discuss business subjects freely. They take great pride in the appearance and content of their note-books. The pupils are rapidly learning, mainly through their own efforts, the basic elements that comprise the various phases of industrial life.

Has this course influenced any of these students in the choice of career? I believe it has. A census taken at the beginning of this term disclosed that work in stenography and typewriting was practically the unanimous choice. A similar investigation on November 23, 1932, about two months later, resulted in the following selections:

Interior Decorator	1
Secretary	12
Actress	2
Nurse	1
Specialty Shop	1
Law Stenography	1
Designer	1
Buyer	2
Journalist	1
Chemist	3
Social Service	1
Stylist	1
Columnist	1
Salesgirl	1
C. P. A.	1

Most of these choices can be ascribed to the broad industrial vista opened to these students, by which they realized that there exist tremendous industrial opportunities for which their high school work provides excellent preparation, especially work in such subjects as stenography, typewriting, elementary business training, accounting, arithmetic, and law. The experiment thus provides them with a further incentive towards proceeding with these subjects.

It might be of value to those interested in this subject to note the ground covered in a week's assignment. Under the heading of "The Retail Shop" the following were taken up:

1. What is a Retailer?
2. Functions performed by the Retailer.
3. Analyzing the market.
4. Factors deciding the kind of goods to be sold.
5. Where shall the Retail Store be located?
6. Starting business:
   Lease, fixtures, insurance.
7. Buying for a Retail Shop:
   What, when, where, and how much to buy.
8. Buying sources.
9. Methods of purchasing for a retail store.
10. Merchandise characteristics
11. Retail selling (briefly).
12. Vocational opportunities in Retailing.
13. Qualifications necessary.

It was found that the commercial activities of the students' relatives, friends, and neighbors are the source from which had been formed an apperceptive basis for the pursuit of the topic. It was no more difficult for them to master this material than it was to comprehend any other general or commercial subject. They were powerfully motivated by the idea that retailing was something which touched every phase of the home life of their families as well as of themselves, and the subject was therefore approached with great interest.

Factors which equip the teacher for this type of work are:

1. A considerable amount of business training.
2. Weekly visits with students to industrial organizations.
3. The use of sound films that illustrate everyday commercial life (or activities).

M. E. Weiss.

Walton High School.

A Class Constitution

The inculcation of pupil self-government is one of the aims in a civics class. To achieve that objective one should do everything to promote a civic consciousness and a spirit of community feeling.

At Haaren there appeared a group of boys who seemed to have a little more than usual of the social consciousness in them; hence, the promotion of pupil self-activity, a description of which follows.

The teacher proposed that the class govern itself. What would be more logical than to have a class constitution? Thus the problem of creating the document. The boys decided to do the job. Certain suggestions were made by the teacher. The boys decided to appoint a committee to draft a constitution. After the draft was submitted to the instructor the boys decided to perfect the instrument. As a result of their second meeting the following document was drawn up.

This organic law of the civics class was carried out to the letter and promoted a great deal of discussion in their weekly forums, discussions and even trials. The boys did everything themselves and a better model of pupil self-government and self-activity is still to be produced as a result of the experiment.

Constitution of Class II in Civics

Preamble

We, boys of Class II do establish this Constitution for the conduct of our class in Civics.

Article I

A committee called the program committee shall be elected by the class to arrange a program for the Friday recitations. The committee shall consist of five boys. They shall meet immediately after their election and shall choose one of their number as a chairman.

The committee shall hold office for one month.

Article II

Work of the Committee

The committee shall arrange the program for the class. They shall meet from time to time and draw up the desires of the committee for use on Fridays. These wishes shall be presented to the teacher on Wednesdays of each week. He shall have the power of approving or disapproving

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any of the suggestions of the committee.

The committee shall select a chairman and a secretary for each meeting. The committee shall select a new chairman and secretary.

The committee shall select one of the members of the class to act as a permanent secretary.

Article III

Duties of the Committee Chairman

The committee chairman shall represent the committee in talks with the teacher. He shall also be the one to announce to the class the topic or program for the Friday meeting. Such announcement is to be made on Thursdays.

The committee chairman shall have full control over the meeting as soon as it is in session. The chairman shall start the meeting promptly on the ringing of the jingle bell. Should no jingle bell sound the chairman shall begin when it should have sounded.

The chairman shall introduce the topic chosen. He may make a short speech introducing the topic.

The chairman shall have the power to recognize all speakers. He shall follow reasonable rules. He shall call upon all who wish to speak. He shall also see that the same boys do not do all the talking.

He may ask a speaker to sit down who he feels is unprepared. He shall have the power to make reasonable punishments for such boys.

The chairman shall also be the one to maintain order. He may make reasonable punishments of any disorderly boys. The meaning of what is reasonable shall rest in the committee. Any one having complaint shall complain to the committee. The teacher will back up the committee. The teacher shall have the power to change the punishment.

Article IV

Duties of the Secretaries

Each secretary shall keep an accurate report of the events of the meetings. He shall, after writing up the minutes legibly, give the minutes to the permanent secretary who shall keep them on file.

The permanent secretary shall hand the previous minutes to the one who made them. He shall hand it to him at the new meeting so that they may be read and corrected.

Article V

Removals and Resignations

Any member of the committee can resign whenever he wishes.

The only one that can remove the chairman of the committee is the class and the teacher.

If the class wishes to replace the chairman of the committee or a member of the committee it shall be done by a two-thirds vote.

The signatures of nine boys and the reasons for removal must be filled out before a vote can be taken for removal.

The accused shall pick one of the members of the class to defend him before the vote is taken.

One of the nine boys who signed the petition shall present the charges.

Article VI

Miscellaneous

The committee, and every pupil, shall address the chairman presiding as Mr. Chairman. The teacher shall do the same.

The members of the committee go out of power as soon as the chairman has called the Friday meeting to order.

Any one addressing the club must recite in paragraph form.

The members of the committee may be chairmen too.

Article VII

Amendment

Any amendment to this Constitution may be added by a majority vote of the members present after a petition shall have been passed around. This petition shall contain the proposed amendment.

Finished the third day of March, 1933.

John Schmidt — John Burton
Anton Laub — George Warde
Richard Feller

BENJAMIN ROSENTHAL.

Haaren High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Annual Science Fair for Children

The American Institute, in announcing the Annual Children's Science Fair, has officially invited all of the school children of the city to submit entries. Any child or group of children in the city, under eighteen years of age, is eligible to compete. Last year the Institute accepted 478 entries, representing the work of some seven thousand children.

A special section has been formed this year for Junior Science Clubs. "This is the one really important change of policy we have made in many years," stated L. W. Hutchins, Director of the Institute. "Last year," Mr. Hutchins explained, "The American Institute began to form a junior branch because it felt that science clubs of young people, of which there are thousands throughout the city, should be given encouragement and help from an adult scientific body. The special entry class has been provided at the Fair for these junior science clubs as a part of the Institute's work of encouraging the club type of progressive science education."

In addition to the new Junior Science Clubs group there will be the usual entry classes for school groups and for individuals. Entries will be submitted in ten different subject classifications as follows: Stars and the Solar System, Earth Studies, Plant and Animal Life, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Health, Conservation, Industries and History of Science.

Cash prizes will be given to the winners of first, second and third places in the different subject classifications. The Institute stipulates that these prizes must be spent for science, gardening or nature equipment, or science books. Last year more than two hundred prizes were awarded, amounting to some $2,500.

The Institute will hold the Fair, as in previous years, in Education Hall

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of the American Museum of Natural History.

Dr. Morris Meister is the Chairman of the Executive Committee for this year's Children's Science Fair. Other members of the Executive Committee are: Mrs. Grace Fisher Ramsey of the American Museum of Natural History, Mrs. Doris Spier Harman, Dr. S. Ralph Powers of Teachers College and Dr. John M. Arthur of the Boyce Thompson Institute for Plant Research at Yonkers.

More Psychology!

In the March, 1933, number of HIGH POINTS Mr. Joseph Block, in his article, "A Viewpoint for Psychology," takes exception to that one by Mr. Joseph B. Fish wherein the viewpoints of the various schools of psychology were presented in an unbiased objective manner. Mr. Block would have personal recommendation.

It shall be attempted here to refute the individual captious interpretation of subjective psychology, the evaluation of introspection and the recommendations of Mr. Block. In addition, so that the nature of this critique be not totally destructive, conclusions will be suggested which may occasion a less purblind attitude.

No objection need be taken to the presentation of the two systems. These are facts which may or may not have been set forth accurately. They may, however, be verified in any good history of psychology.

Yet, active opposition is aroused by Mr. Block's evaluation. It is as one-sided and as subjective as any work on scientific method should not be. He says, in part, that introspection is "delightful" and literary. But to employ it in psychology is inane. Hence, ". . . it is high time for psychology to jettison this whole lumbering cargo of the objective school," thinks Mr. Block.

James Mark Baldwin, in "Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology," many years ago stated in his article on the introspective method: "The introspective method is essential to psychology. . . A main advantage of the method of experiment in Psychology is that it gives opportunity for introspection under test conditions. Some psychologists may be called introspective in a special sense, because they make more exclusive use of the method than others. . . But no psychologist *ever* confined his procedure to mere introspection. It was always more or less supplemented by inference (necessary even in natural science) from resulting products to producing processes and by observation of the manifestations of mental processes in other minds."

Mr. Block continues in his article to evaluate objective psychology which is based upon experimentation and observation and he concludes that there is but one viewpoint possible—objective psychology. He states: "Human action is reducible in *every case* to this formula" (stimulus—response). Is this not pure unadulterated nonsense? Is Mr. Block not too naïvely credulous in his expectations? Does he really think use of the terms *behavior, stimulus* and *response* will

solve all the inherently difficult problems of understanding human conduct? Does he believe, to use his own words, he "can *interpret* the most elaborate life situations in terms of stimulus and response"? Or is he attempting the sensational?

Even Professor Arthur I. Gates, an objective psychologist, in his "Elementary Psychology" (1928), raises the question whether all the facts which may be useful in describing the behavior of man or animals can be observed in the objective way. It is apparent—and if it is not, see William James' "Varieties of Religious Experience"—that there are many activities and experiences in human life, at least, that are limited entirely to one person. No one can share these observations; no one can verify them. Hence, ought they be denied?—for they cannot be recorded by mechanical devices.

R. H. Wheeler, in "Science of Psychology" (1929), writes: "A knowledge of human behavior is incomplete so long as there is no information available concerning such processes as thought and feeling."

Mr. Block believes introspection is a detriment to psychology as a science. However, medical practice relies upon introspection for diagnoses. Professor Morris R. Cohen, in "Reason and Nature" (1931), writes: "We can recognize that it is impossible to exclude all reference to conscious experience in the study of human physiology. We can see this in works like Sherrington's 'Integrative Action of the Nervous System' and the older studies of brain physiology [illegible] those of Brocca and Flechsig. . . On the other hand, any psychology which is more than a dialectic development of introspective data must include physiologic knowledge. But psychology even of the behavioristic kind uses social categories, which distinguish hand-shaking and hitting from muscular contraction."

Perhaps here is the key to the matter—a school of psychology which employs observation and experimentation and yet does not deny introspection. Such a school is Gestalt psychology. Here a distinction between introspection and observation is sheer flummery. R. H. Wheeler says they are co-essential and recognizes no conflict. That the Gestalt psychologists experiment and observe there is no doubt. The names Köhler, Koffka, Wheeler and Ogden suffice.

Mr. Block makes some wild stabs at Gestalt psychology, which may be indicative of the fact that he was not certain of his field here. He is an *objective* psychologist. Mr. Block takes particular objection to "insight." On this score Professor Cohen, in the same book on scientific method, writes: "The history of science indicates rather that fruitful hypotheses have generally come to certain gifted minds as musical themes or great poetic expressions have come to others; . . . it has enabled one gifted with fortunate insights or guesses to develop them into successful scientific hypotheses."

Professor Cohen also writes in another sections of the book, ". . . and

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the behaviorists have not yet advanced any single hypothesis as to human behavior which has proved a stimulus to fruitful investigation."

It is not the scope of this article to present more fully any particular viewpoint on psychology. It must be left to other articles and to the readers themselves.

However, before concluding, a final objection to Mr. Block's article must be raised.

Habit formation is of particular interest to the teacher. Mr. Block writes: "Objective psychology . . . considers learning as habit formation. It does not need satisfaction and dissatisfaction, pleasantness and unpleasantness. . ." It may be that Mr. Block has been too long a teacher. It may be that the writer is yet too close to the pupils' bench he warmed so many years to have entirely forgotten satisfaction and pleasantness in his learning processes. Ask any pupil, ask any practical teacher (not a psychologist), whether satisfaction or dissatisfaction and pleasantness or unpleasantness for *either* pupil *or* teacher play any rôle in learning! Perhaps Mr. Block would become cognizant of the facts despite the unpleasantness.

In this relation Dr. Abram Lipsky, in "Man the Puppet" (1925), writes: "That children like to study if they like the teacher and make no headway if the teacher repels them; that the subject is identified with the teacher, has always been known. It would seem that a personally attractive teacher could arouse enthusiasm in a student for any subject whatever, whether or not the teacher knew anything about it at all. Subconscious attractions and repulsions which have always been regarded as incidental and negligible actually play a predominant part in teaching and learning. The love-hate emotion explains a great deal of the difficulty of teaching."

In conclusion, any viewpoint of psychology that is so one-sided, so certain of its position that it can succeed all previous viewpoints, like Oriental despotisms, by killing their predecessors and their kindred, must be discounted.

In medio stat veritas.

EMANUEL SCHWARTZ.

Seward Park High School.

The High School Library

A lack of adequate financial support is the greatest handicap of the American high school library, according to the National Survey of Secondary Education in its monograph on "The Secondary School Library" just published by the Government Printing Office. Inadequate facilities are the greatest obstacles to the realization of the aims of school libraries, this report points out in citing the conditions of 390 selected schools in 46 States and the District of Columbia.

"The entire problem of instruction in the use of books and of libraries demands investigation," the report concludes in its summary and appraisal of unsolved problems.

Prepared by B. Lamar Johnson, librarian and dean of instruction at Stephens College, Columbia, Mo., and specialist in secondary administration of the National Survey, this monograph is one of 28 special reports now in process of publication. The National Survey was conducted by authority of Congress under the auspices of the United States Office of Education. Commissioner William John Cooper was director of the Survey and Dr. Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, was associate director. However, the major burden of directing and handling the investigation was intrusted to Dr. Koos who is eminent in the field of secondary education and nationally known for his contributions for the improvement of public education. Resulting from a three-year survey, this study, it is emphasized by Carl A. Jessen, coördinator and himself specialist in secondary education in the Federal Office, aimed primarily at discovering and studying not the usual but the unusual practices, not the ordinary procedures but the extraordinary ones.

Difficulties listed in realizing the aims of the secondary school library as reported by principals, teacher-librarians, and librarians are as follows: Of a total of 281 reporting, 154 set up inadequate facilities as the greatest obstacle; 85 set up inadequate staff; 29, lack of interest and time on the part of the pupil; 21, lack of coöperation by teaching or administrative staff; and 18 set up as an obstacle the fact that the library is used as a study hall. The other 12 difficulties were of a miscellaneous character including teaching methods in conflict with the use of the library.

The Dewey decimal system of classification was found to be the method of classifying books dominantly used in secondary school libraries.

The results of the investigation and of previous studies are in accord in disclosing that it is the practice of many high schools to employ teachers without library training, assign them full-time teaching loads, and in addition ask them to take charge of the school library.

Instruction in the use of books is given in less than one-third of the high schools. Many high school libraries do not keep records of circulation.

In analyzing the facilities of the library, the report reveals that 330 of the 390 schools studied have separate rooms for their library. In 29 schools the library is housed in the assembly hall and in 15 it is in a corridor. Housing of school libraries is not limited to reading and book worms. The librarians of 129 schools have work rooms; 46 schools have conference rooms; 31 report having library classrooms, and 18 have rooms for visual instruction. Most librarians do not approve of having the library and study hall combined.

However, the opinions of the librarians in this respect are comparatively evenly divided. Twenty-two of the 50 librarians and teacher-librarians in the selected schools having the combination plan state that they like this arrangement. Principals are, in general, satisfied with the arrangement which combines the library and the study hall. Having the library and study hall separate and having them

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connected by a door meets the general approval of teacher-librarians, principals, and librarians alike. Under the combination plan it was found that 85 per cent of the pupils went to the library on a typical day whereas in those schools separating the library and study hall only 41 per cent of the pupils went to the library. Students appear to avail themselves of every type of library activity under the combination plan.

Not Enough Seats

Junior high school pupils use the school library for pleasure reading more than do senior high school pupils. Many devices have been resorted to by high school librarians to encourage recreational reading. The seating capacities of the libraries appear to be adequate in the smaller high schools, but in the larger schools (especially those enrolling more than 2,000 pupils), the median percentage of the student body which the library can seat is very small.

In a number of schools visited more than 40 per cent of the student body used the school library on the day on which data were collected. High schools use various procedures for admitting students to the library. A number of schools report finding it satisfactory for pupils to go to the library freely without having their attendance checked at any time.

Regular instruction in the use of books in the library is given in approximately two-thirds of the schools taking part in this study.

Data indicate that in the schools coöperating in this study the total number of books increases consistently with the number of pupils in the school, but that the number of books *per pupil* decreases as the enrollment increases. "The size of the book collection ranges from 116 books in a school with fewer than 50 pupils to 30,000 books in a school with an enrollment of 1,500. Fifty-eight schools (including five with enrollments of more than 750) have fewer than 1,000 books in their libraries."

The median number of magazines in the libraries participating in this study increases from 6 in schools with enrollments of fewer than 100 to 42 in schools enrolling more than 2,000 pupils. Of the schools reporting, only 7 did not subscribe for a magazine.

A median number of two newspapers is subscribed for by the libraries in 331 schools. No relation appears to exist between the number of newspapers subscribed for and the enrollment. It was found that 71 libraries do not subscribe for newspapers. This is in sharp contrast to the emphasis placed upon magazines.

Recommendations

Many schools have full-time librarians who are college graduates and who have had professional training in library science. The report indicates, however, that most of the smaller schools employ teacher-librarians. In a number of these schools the teacher-librarians have had library training and at the same time their teaching loads are reduced so that they may devote a major portion of their time to library work.

Among 10 outstanding recommendations which conclude the report of Dr. Johnson are the following: (1) A need for both extensive and intensive study of library standards which have been set up by States and other school accrediting bodies; (2) extensive study to determine the effect of newer methods of classroom teaching on the use of the secondary school library; (3) a series of studies to appraise the methods of encouraging recreational reading; (4) a study of the effect which regularly scheduled free reading has on the pupils' recreational reading habits; (5) continued study of the relation of the library to the study hall; (6) an investigation of coöperation between school and public libraries; (7) further inquiry into methods of selecting books for the high school library; (8) investigation of the entire problem of instruction in the use of books and of libraries; (9) careful investigation of training secondary school librarians; (10) and continued study of outstanding practices, devices, and procedure successfully used in outstanding secondary school libraries.

This monograph is listed as Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 17, and may be procured from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., at 10 cents per copy.

Adler and Our Schools

Like Ulysses, I have traveled many seas and finally come to port. I have heard the siren voice of Nietzsche, passed the Scylla of Epicureanism and the Charybdis of Greek self-realization, and now rest on the shore of Alfred Adler.

Adler's philosophy, in a word, is coöperation. It is unfortunately a trite word, but Adler makes it more than a platitude; he makes it the greatest common divisor of all truly successful lives and the inexorable logic of our common weakness and our common life.

Coöperation has always been recognized in our schools as a most important character trait. In teacher ratings it is listed together with traits like courtesy, self-control, accuracy, and so on. DeWitt Clinton High School, and no doubt other high schools, have adopted the system of grading pupils on "citizenship" which is equivalent to coöperation in the Adlerian sense. A Habit Committee once organized at DeWitt Clinton High School selected as desirable habits coöperation, courtesy, honesty, and so forth. But in the light of Adler's Individual Psychology, coöperation stands altogether apart from these other traits; in fact, it includes all of them.

The wish to play one's proper rôle in society is not altruism; human nature is both social and individual. When it is understood that coöperation is most gratifying to the individual as well as to society, then egotistic objections to coöperation will melt away. To be harmoniously a part of the social whole is to respect both the part and the whole. In fact, no one can effectively coöperate if he does not properly value himself and

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what he can contribute; self-sacrifice is not the best form of coöperation.

Even knowledge itself would flow from the wish to coöperate, perhaps less intensely at times than from an egotistic urge to excel others, but more steadily and more usefully in the long run both to the individual and to society. Coöperation, social interest, devotion to our common task of maintaining and improving life, these become the goal of education; character building rather than the imparting of skills and knowledge should be the primary purpose of our schools.

Let us analyze a few specific problems with Adler. Laziness in children is a grave problem of teachers. There is nothing inherently good or bad in laziness, the fable of the ant and the grasshopper to the contrary notwithstanding. There is a great deal of misdirected energy in the world today, that, for example, of missionaries, high-pressure salesmen, and munition manufacturers, and the world would greatly profit if such energy were cancelled by mere laziness. It is on such grounds that Bertrand Russell champions laziness. Indolence may well be the order of life in some remote tropical Paradise where sustenance falls into lazy laps. But in our for the most part strenuous life there are problems for all of us collectively and laziness is an avoidance of them. Training a child, however, in the mere habit of industry without any community feeling would do no good; he might become an industrious racketeer or politician. If the child wants to be socially useful, the teacher will not have to worry about laziness; the child will be as industrious (or as lazy) as is necessary for the purpose.

Courtesy was a debated point of the aforementioned Habit Committee. Here again the purpose of being coöperative and socially useful will dictate such courtesy as springs from a genuine regard for the welfare of others and such manners (but no ostentatious embellishment of them) as express a healthy membership in the community of human beings. The useful social purpose will always determine for us to what extent a trait is a virtue.

Similarly for honesty. A student guided by the goal of being socially useful may make mistakes, may occasionally lie, but his mistakes will not be great and his goal will always draw him back to social equilibrium.

It is Adler's thesis that because of faulty upbringing, an incorrect style of life is often initiated in early childhood, a style that has to do in a general way with an exaggerated striving for personal superiority and compensation for a felt inferiority, rather than with coöperation on an equal plane with all other human beings. By this mistaken style the child often underestimates his capacities, misjudges his experiences, and is forever engaged in trying to prove his value rather than in playing his rôle. Adler's method exposes and corrects this mistake in the style of life. Early memories of the child are especially revealing of his initiation of a style of life and may without difficulty be interpreted in the Adler manner.

From Adler's axioms may be deduced many theorems in classroom technique. Courage and confidence are necessary for coöperation and will appear when the latter is the goal. If a high school pupil has no idea what he wants to do in later life, he reveals a lack of courage and Adler advocates asking children the question or assigning compositions on it so that they may not evade the problem. If the child wavers between superiority and coöperation and lacks the courage to strive for superiority through the channel of coöperation, the teacher's task is to increase his courage and self-confidence and to avoid any treatment that under the circumstances will discourage him still more. Such treatments may include punishment, criticism, writing a letter to his parents, telling him he is a blockhead, or expecting too much of him because of a high I. Q. Nor should the teacher appeal too strongly to personal ambition; this is contrary to the spirit of coöperation. Finally, Adler opposes treating symptoms by a rigid formula, like detention for lateness or writing a note to the parents for omission of homework; in fact, treatment of symptoms generally instead of the person as a unit is as unintelligent as it would be in medical practice.

Adler's method has been highly successful in Vienna and there is no reason why it should not be equally successful here. It should supplement the mental hygiene already used in our schools.

Howard D. Grossman.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

A New Deal Primer

A new primer has made its appearance this fall, but it is not written for first grade children. Its title is "A Primer of the New Deal," and it makes available material about the New Deal, so that every junior and senior high school student can understand what the Federal Government has done and is doing to improve our social and economic conditions.

The author, Professor E. E. Lewis, of Ohio State University, in announcing this new primer, said, "This book was written to help the students find out what the New Deal is and what it should mean to every citizen's future. If there ever was a time when everybody needs information about what the Government is doing, it is now. Only through education is it possible to prevent costly mistakes when attempting a new program.

"This primer was written with the assistance of forty men in one of my graduate classes at the University. The book explains in an easy-to-understand way the fifteen major acts of Congress—the National Recovery Act, the Public Works Program, Emergency Relief, the Emergency Railroad Act and a dozen more—giving to the President unheard-of authority by the exercise of which he is supposed to restore prosperity. Some of these acts are revolutionary and constitute important new policies of the Government. Every student must study these acts and watch what is taking place, for we are witnessing perhaps the most significant events of modern history."

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The Primer of the New Deal is divided into twenty units of from 2 to 4 pages each and contains nearly a hundred charts, pictures, cartoons and other illustrations.

This book is an invaluable aid to all teachers of social science subjects. In amount of material it is equivalent of a 250-page textbook but its price is only 35c, with discount for quantities. It is published by American Education Press, Inc., Columbus, Ohio.

The New Deal Analyzed for Schools

Critical analysis of President Roosevelt's recovery legislation, expressed in clear terms for the ready understanding of American high school and college pupils, as well as adult study groups, has been made by a research group at Teachers College, Columbia University.

The results of the analysis, which was made by a group of legal, economic and educational authorities, headed by Dr. Edmund de S. Brunner and Dr. Herbert Bruner, professors of education at Teachers College, and Dr. L. C. Marshall, Director of the Institute of Public Law, John Hopkins University, will appear soon in pamphlet form. These are to be published by the college and will be distributed to high schools, colleges and adult study groups.

"The people must be informed of every major act since last March, and they must see the relationship of this legislation to the whole picture of economic depression and recovery," Dr. Brunner explained. "The newspapers have been of vast help already in this process. The pamphlets will supplement and give perspective to the valuable information presented day by day by the American press."

To be known as the "National Crisis Series," these surveys, consisting of fourteen pamphlets and a manual, are to treat with all the important legislative acts passed in Washington since March, Dr. Brunner announced. This series is divided into three classes —an adult study group, a senior high school section and a junior high school group.

Members of the Lincoln School of Teachers College who assisted in this project included Dr. J. E. Mendenhall, Miss Pauline Thompson and Samuel Everett.

The adult group of surveys will consist of reports on:

1. In Relief of Debtors.
2. Unemployment and Public Works.
3. The Farm Act of 1933; Its Place in the Recovery Program.
4. The changed scene in industry and transportation.
5. Funds and the Financial System.

Under the senior high school division will be prepared pamphlets on:

1. Debt Relief: an aid to recovery
2. Help for the jobless: direct aid and public works.
3. Helping the nation by helping the farmer.
4. Government coöperates with industry and the railroads.
5. Our Government's relation to money, banking and securities

Junior high school titles include:

1. Uncle Sam aids debtors.
2. Uncle Sam fights unemployment.
3. Uncle Sam aids the farmer.
4. Uncle Sam's partnership with industry and railroads.

A Teachers' Manual on "Education's opportunities and obligation," prepared by Dr. Herbert Brunner, is also included in this project.

The purpose of the undertaking, Dr. Brunner declared, is to disseminate important information concerning the numerous legislative acts that have been adopted in this country since the advent of the "New Deal." Because of the radical changes that have been inaugurated to meet the present emergency, it is imperative that the American pupil, adults as well as adolescents, should understand the significance of these acts, the Teachers College professor said.

"Things are happening so fast at the present time that there is grave danger that the people will be unable to keep up with the new developments," Dr. Brunner pointed out. "We are making an attempt to cut down the amount of social lag. With the aid of these studies, schools can make intelligent use of the tremendously important current happenings at once. Our pamphlets and manuals are written so that they can be inserted into the books used in the high schools, and used in conjunction with them.

"The project does not attempt to whitewash the administration, nor become a propagandistic agent for President Roosevelt's policies. Rather, we have attempted to give all the facts, tell what is going on today, in as impartial a manner as we possibly can. Both pros and cons are given. We had tried to cover the entire field of funds and finances, of inflation, of relief to the unemployed, of public works, of the Civilian Conservation Corps, of Muscle Shoals, of the National Recovery Act, and all other pertinent phases of the present administration. Our purpose has been to present the facts in an open, easy-to-understand manner, omitting all emotional prejudices.

"Because these many new legislative acts have happened so rapidly during the past few months, there is little chance for the ordinary citizen to digest the mass of highly technical laws and find out what they really mean. Thus when an issue arises, he has no adequate basis upon which to appraise it. Unless the ordinary American learns what the new program of today is all about, he will act without intelligence in the settling of legislative problems and may act on the basis of prejudice, ignorance and possibly violence."

According to Dr. Brunner, public opinion is going to register very much more today than ever before. This is true, he explained, because we have now set up under legislative sanction non-elective bodies with power to regulate the daily welfare of vast numbers of people. The code system under the NRA is one direct example of this legislation, the educator pointed out.

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"Publishing these pamphlets concerning vital current problems of American life is a real attempt to fit new ideas into the changing scene of American life," Dr. Brunner said. "Not only is recovery at stake but our very democracy is weighed in the balance. We must not only know what's going on in Washington, but be able to speak our minds about it."

Copies of the pamphlets will be sent to superintendents of schools, State Teachers' Associations and other educators, Dr. Brunner said. He added that this is probably the first time that a university of the type of Teachers College has attempted to put before the pupils of junior and senior high school age an understandable account of the changing economic and political policies being enacted by the Federal Government.

No attempt is being made to present these studies from an Administration or anti-Administration standpoint, he emphasized. As a service to the country, the series will fulfill its purpose by giving an impartial, unbiased, understandable view of what is taking place in the United States today, Dr. Brunner stated.

Trends in Twentieth Century Literature

Dr. George J. Crane, Chairman of the English Department, Boys High School, will give this term over Station WNYC a series of five radio talks on "Trends in Twentieth Century Literature." The schedule is as follows:

1. The New Poetry in America. October 7, 6 to 6:15 P. M.
2. The New American Novel. November 4, 5:15 to 5:30 P. M.
3. The Drama of Social Criticism. December 2, 5 to 5:15 P. M.
4. The New Biography. January 6, 5:30 to 5:45 P. M.
5. The American Short Story. February 3, 6:15 to 6:30 P.M.

The N. B. C. Appreciation Hour

In fifty thousand schools spread over every State in the Union, the cheery voice of Dr. Walter Damrosch was heard on Friday morning, October sixth, over both networks of the National Broadcasting Company, summoning the largest class in the world to an insight into the beauties of music. On that morning was again presented the courses designated as Series "A" and "B"—"A" for beginners and "B" for those who successfully completed "A" last year.

On the following Friday, October 13, Series "C" and "D" began for those more advanced and continue with the others until May, 1934, comprising two complete terms' work in each series.

"This season's programs," says Dr. Damrosch, "will follow the general outline of our established plan consisting of four concerts graded to constitute a progressive four-year course in the appreciation of music. In order to demonstrate more fully the development of the suite into the symphony, I have included this coming year several characteristic examples of sonata form; and also, with a view to broadening the scope of the entire course, I have introduced chamber music and a large proportion of vocal music, giving special attention to the polyphonic school of vocal composition which reached its finest flower in the 16th and 17th centuries. Another innovation is the repetition, for review purposes and added hearing, of numbers from the preceding programs, which I have provided for Series A."

Once again, Instructor's Manuals for teachers and illustrated Notebooks for Students have been made available. The price of these simply covers production and distribution cost, while the entire series of symphony concerts is again a service of the National Broadcasting Company to the schools of America. The Manual, compiled by Dr. Damrosch and his assistant, Ernest La Prade, presents lesson-plans for every concert, with copious notes for the teacher, music illustrations and an extensive bibliography to carry on all supplementary reference reading. It also contains a complete list of phonographic records available in American catalogues for use in preparation and review of the concerts. The work-books for the pupil, officially titled "Student Notebooks," have been prepared by Dr. Charles H. Farnsworth, Emeritus Professor of Music Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, in collaboration with Mr. La Prade, whose own books "Alice in Orchestralia" and "Marching Notes" are widely used as music readers in the schools today.

When Dr. Damrosch presents his "Musical Family," an opportunity is given to hear the instruments by themselves and to recognize them by the way they sound. This is where the Notebook helps at once, for it contains pictures that allow the listener to connect up the sound of the instruments with the way they look. The pupil also learns how the person looked who wrote the music, for he must identify the composer and paste his picture in the right blank provided for the purpose.

While seeing thus helps in getting acquainted, what really helps even more is learning to think musically. This turns ordinary hearing into real listening. To do this, the pupil must be able to catch and hold in his memory the thoughts (musicians call them themes) out of which the composition grows.

For instance, the pupil memorizes the theme of Schubert's "Military March" in the very first concert. He learns to know it, to hum or whistle it. When he can do this, he has taken the first step in the appreciation of music.

This year have been added chamber music and vocal rounds and roundelays like "Row, row, row your boat gently down the stream; merrily, merrily, merrily, merrily, life is but a dream" (with the melographs to show the parts visually) and "Lovely Evening." Great choruses such as the Bach fugue arranged by Dr. Damrosch himself for voices, and examples of madrigals and motets are other important innovations. Instrumental solos, including a clarinet concerto,

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and sonatas for violin and piano will be included. Thus another "Musical Family," first cousins of the orchestra, will be introduced.

Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Senior High Schools as of October 15, 1933

Languages	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Total
French	12,777	10,330	18,443	13,739	8,174	6,000	615	269	70,347
German	5,778	4,946	5,096	3,635	1,433	855	90	45	21,878
Greek	28	24	37	14	.....	7	.....	.....	110
Hebrew	113	83	54	43	24	7	.....	.....	324
Italian	1,317	802	883	680	338	182	55	42	4,299
Latin	5,606	4,305	4,951	3,921	1,905	1,637	341	151	22,817
Spanish	10,926	8,178	7,557	5,751	1,815	1,298	141	79	35,745
Totals	36,545	28,668	37,021	27,783	13,689	9,986	1,242	586	155,520

Grand Totals: Modern Languages, 132,269; Ancient Languages, 23,251.

REVIEWS

The Art of Educational Research

By Harold H. Abelson, World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 312 pp. Bibliography 313-324, Index 325-332.

"The Art of Educational Research," while seemingly another logical step in the preparation of the well prepared teacher or educator, goes farther in convincing one of its desirability than most of the newer books in this general field.

The general impression left by this book is that it will certainly be most helpful to readers desirous of or actually undertaking research in the field of education, as it is designed for them only. It presents the method of analyzing problems and their conditions or settings clearly and adequately. It calls attention to numerous pitfalls of error or omission and furnishes tests or checks to help in avoiding mistakes. For the man *without a problem* and not already well versed in psychology and logic, a more systematic study of these subjects is to be recommended as a preliminary.

However, the man teaching in any field of learning will find here a means of equipping himself with a survey of all types of educational research as well as extensive and detailed directions for practically complete analysis of any problem in which he may be interested.

The man or woman who has an educational problem, or whose first step is to find one, will find in this book abundant suggestions as to subjects, aim, background, and analysis, with a wide-visioned methodology of research as well.

In the various types of research widely different procedures may be involved, with the emphasis in one case placed at points touched lightly, if at all, in another. The author has classified these as descriptive, casual, evaluative, constructive and integrative—each considered in one or more chapters. These are followed in each case by good bibliographies.

An interesting and constructive outline of problems in the field of education is given under the headings: Educational Aims and Objectives; Administration; Organization and Supervision; Content; Materials; Method; Nature of the Individuals to be Educated; Educational Measurements; History of Education; Biological and Social Backgrounds.

"Functional Research Methods" are classified under the headings: Descriptive, Causal, Evaluative, Constructive and Integrative. These are considered in their order except that the last is given the first place.

The integrative method of research may have a wider scope. It synthesizes the results of the various research studies centering about a field or problem. It requires "a mastery of each of the techniques that have been employed in the contributive studies." It may embrace an entire problem or serve as a preliminary to research involving original data. Excellent suggestions are made as to locating references to researches completed, as to collecting and validating data, organizing the data, and forming conclusions.

The descriptive method, although it may offer possibilities, seems to part company with any claim to any scientific procedure as far as the initial chapter is concerned, although it may offer valuable suggestions. The chapter begins by stating five misuses of the questionnaire and then gives as a questionnaire of supposed value one which is little better than a farce. There are other types instanced out of place in any kind of scientific research.

In the descriptive method distinction is made between "socio-descriptive" and the individual ("psycho-descriptive"), which offers valuable suggestions.

The treatment of the causal method is the best in the book, very well presented, helpful, and practical. The chapter on speculation as a research tool defines it as arrested thinking and then offers the usual steps with the addition of special treatment of hypotheses and assumptions.

The constructive method focuses on the study of the individual or trait, an application of research.

The last chapter offers valuable help in final criticism of the methods, findings, and in summarizing results.

The chapter on statistics as a research tool covers in twenty pages practically all data necessary for understanding the usual procedure.

This book can be recommended for careful reading by anyone who contemplates making a serious attempt to furnish a contribution to educational

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procedure. It is a book for the student of education, whether investigator, supervisor, or teacher, fortunate enough to have the urge and time and the strength to do research work. It views the whole field of educational research from the teacher's standpoint.

Anyone wishing to make a thorough investigation of any educational problem will find this book full of helpful suggestions. It contains a good bibliography and index besides numerous special references at the end of the various chapters.

STUART H. ROWE,
Principal.

Wadleigh High School.

Effective Instructional Leadership

A study of the Problem of Integration by a Committee of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, Rudolph D. Lindquist, Chairman. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

It is a rare and refreshing experience to come across a book in education that breathes so fine a spirit as this. It attempts to square the facts of supervision with the democratic faith and the scientific point of view of our age. Out of the welter of supervisory practices, it aims to arrive at some concept of what supervision can be at its best. The experienced supervisor may gain from it renewed faith in his calling. The inexperienced supervisor may be given a sense of direction in his work that will stand him in good stead in the future. The teacher may get inspiration and sense of the significance of the whole educational process. I can recommend this book whole-heartedly.

The problem considered in this sixth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors is the lack of integration in supervisory organization and activities. The treatment of this problem is based upon questionnaires sent to teachers, principals, and superintendents in various school systems. The answers to these were taken up in conference, and certain members of the committee were primarily responsible for certain chapters.

The questionnaires inquired about conflicts of opinion among chief superintendent, district superintendents, special supervisors, principals, and teachers, the effects of such conflicts, and the methods adopted to overcome this lack of integration. The purpose of this yearbook is to arrive at some philosophic and theoretical principles which ought to govern the solutions of such problems, and the securing of harmonious and therefore effective instructional leadership.

Splendid illustrations are given of the lack of integration of thought in daily life and in schools:

"Men and women praise democracy and modern industrial organization in one breath; they exalt freedom and depend on legislation and coercion to maintain the status quo; they talk of a changing social order and balk at any frank discussion of social ills; we preach brotherly love and pay homage to

ruthless competition under the guise of 'rugged individualism.'

"Educators are not immune from these inconsistencies. Some of us talk of 'respect for personality,' and model our administrative and supervisory organizations on a type highly successful in industry—a type which exploits personality and walks roughshod over individuals. Others profess an interest in education and scorn teaching as an activity of a lower order than administration. Others talk about the needs of children as an orienting center in teacher training and turn over to subject-centered specialists the task of training teachers."

From a collation of the answers to the questionnaires it was found that the greatest number of conflicts had their origin in methods of teaching; and the next most frequent number in the amount of freedom to be allowed to subordinates. There were more originating in these two than in the objectives of education or curriculum building. The highest number of conflicts was between the superintendent and principal. Where no conflicts were existent, they were avoided through autocratic or hero control, the exercise of no supervision, allowing the teachers freedom to avert conflicts, or creating satisfactory means of avoiding conflicts.

The authors quote from Clarke's "The Art of Straight Thinking" on leading methods of avoiding conflicts: the use of force, legislative enactment, debate and decision, compromise, hero worship, and discussion. The authors incline toward the spirit that lies behind the last method of avoiding conflict, *discussion*.

"How may he secure that coöperation which makes for effectiveness in action, and yet preserves variation in thinking and practice? How may we safeguard individuality, insure intellectual integrity, provide new ideas for reconstructing our beliefs, plans, and procedures, and yet maintain that degree of harmony necessary to group living and group work?

"The answer here would seem to lie in the widespread adoption of the democratic spirit and the scientific attitude broadly conceived. These two terms are purposely joined. At base they are one, for democracy implies 'fair dealing with all peoples concerned' while the scientific attitude means 'fair dealing with all the pertinent facts'." (Page 98.)

No better statement of the spirit that animates this admirable book can be found than in this paragraph:

"If we center attention on the emotional and intellectual development of individual children rather than on the smooth running of the administrative program, then the teacher's wishes, her self-confidence, her intellectual integrity are major and not minor matters. Anything that destroys her self-confidence, her poise, her intellectual integrity, her peace of mind, her sense of security is an evil. Distrust, fear, intidimation, intellectual enslavement —willing or unwilling—on the

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teacher's part are bound to leave their marks on the child." (Page 101.)

It is the conviction of the authors that supervisors ought to bend every effort to provide favorable conditions for instructional leadership. A teacher cannot do his best unless he is granted freedom to initiate, to execute, and to evaluate his own procedures. This freedom must arise out of a conviction held by supervisors that teachers are capable of dealing intelligently with classroom situations. In the enjoyment of this freedom they will make many mistakes, but these make teacher growth possible.

Such mistake-making is an essential part of the scientific or experimental method. The supervisor must not impose solutions ready-made in the spirit of high-pressure salesmanship, but must aid the teacher in gathering pertinent data including first-hand impressions from the pupils, and in evaluating the results of teaching.

Supervision must be so organized as to accomplish three things: Interplay of mind and mind; encouragement of initiative, and facilitation of coöperation. Out of the interplay of mind among teachers, principals and supervisors, the school becomes conscious of a common goal. When initiative is encouraged, different methods are recognized as valid because they are suited to the peculiar temperaments and personalities of teacher and pupil. Such initiative makes procedure progressive because adapted to changing conditions. Coöperation permits the sinking of minor differences in the light of the achievement of the common goal.

In a book supposedly limited to theoretical and philosophical principles of supervision, it is refreshing to find so much of the concrete and the practical. This is partly due to the factual data presented by the answers to the questionnaires, and partly to the spirit of the authors. They must have felt that in this workaday world concepts without practical applications leave one with a feeling of futility.

WOOLF COLVIN.

Eastern District High School.

The Adolescent Boy

By Winifred V. Richmond, Ph.D. Farrar and Rinehart.

Here is a wise and deep study of the adolescent and his problems, remarkably free from the pontifical posturing so common in most books of this nature. Steeped in the literature of her subject, Dr. Richmond has nevertheless not succumbed to the bacillus *bibliographicus*. There is an astounding paucity of footnotes in this volume. Dr. Richmond, however, manages to lend the ring of authority to her work without infesting its pages with citations. To those at all familiar with the proliferous labors of workers in this field, the mere mastery and assimilation of all this data is a feat in itself. Since G. Stanley Hall's pioneering tome on adolescence, the bibliography on the subject has assumed staggering proportions. No monumental work has been added from the findings of anthropology, from the Juvenile Courts and Child Guidance Clinics, and from the mystical though by no means negligible outpourings of the various psychoanalytical schools. To have translated these immensely valuable findings into an intelligible, readable book, is an achievement worthy of more than passing comment. For here Dr. Richmond has made available to the laity as well as the *cognoscenti* a concise, shrewd summary of what our psychological delving into the mysteries of adolescence have brought forth. The specialist will, it is true, find many gaps in this treatment of adolescence. But Dr. Richmond does not here attempt a fine-combing of all that has been said and done. Her survey is intended for popular consumption. What it lacks in detail, it more than atones for in comprehensiveness and lucidity. Within some two hundred-odd pages, Dr. Richmond has packed some of the most illuminating and valuable commentary in recent years. Above all, she has personalized the adolescent boy and his problems.

Beginning with the status of the adolescent boy in early times, Dr. Richmond traces the vestiges of these bygone attitudes in our modern society. She next discusses puberty with its attendant psychological and physical problems. The abnormal in adolescence is very fully discussed, because, as Dr. Richmond believes, it is only through these deviations from the norm that we can come to an adequate understanding of the norm itself. For the norm becomes meaningful only as we perceive the nature of its antithesis.

The delicate and profound problems of adolescence, Dr. Richmond handles with admirable sagacity. Suddenly growing up, the adolescent boy is stirred by mysterious changes, both physical and mental. His ego struggles to force itself upon an unyielding world. His parents and society seek to confine his restless energies. Girls, those fragile playmates of his boyhood, assume a new and disturbing significance. Religion comes to have a new and vital meaning to him. The choice of a vocation looms large on his horizon. He must find himself. Shall he go to college? Shall he go to work? The first smoke, the first drink, the first pair of long pants, the first rude application of the razor blade to the down on his chin, the first kiss—all these are momentous experiences to him. These years of adolescence are ones of turmoil, of constant attempts at achieving a satisfying relationship between those deep, yet dimly perceived impulses and a world which gives little heed to the yearnings of the adolescent boy. It is for a recognition of the critical plight of the adolescent that Dr. Richmond pleads.

To most of us, affected with the "old oaken-bucket" illusion, this period of adolescence seems one of perennial joy and ecstasy at the discovery of the world. But our memory benevolently takes the sting out of the bitter and strange awakenings of adolescence. And we are prone to forget the unnecessary horrors which our

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good but benighted parents and teachers visited upon us. And so adolescence, in retrospect, appears as the "sweet-scented manuscript" that it never is. Thus, we withhold from the adolescent boy the sympathy, tolerance, and understanding he needs at this time. Without this tactful regard for his tender sensibilities, his wild illusions, his mounting desire for selfhood, he comes into a troubled maturity trailing clouds of psychoses and neuroses.

For the parents who are afflicted with an adolescent boy, this volume offers much solace and information. It clarifies the problems which those who must raise these colts will have to face. The human, personal touch, the desire to understand and guide the boy through his tumult form the basis for intelligent treatment. Affectionate understanding here is more important than exhaustive knowledge about hormones, ductless glands, sex hygiene, and sex morality.

For the teacher who has "taken" his required course in "Psychology of Adolescence," the reading of "The Adolescent Boy" is not a work of supererogation. To the younger ones who have come from the teachers' colleges reeking of pedagogical lore, the wholesome common sense of Dr. Richmond will be a tonic. The generous sprinkling of case histories will offer much of practical, suggestive value. To the veterans, some of whom, alas, have forgotten their youth, and seem also on the verge of forgetting the youth that is entrusted to them, the suggestion that they interlard their academic discussions with a modicum of merciful consideration for the confused and chaotic adolescent, will not come amiss.

A. H. Lass.

Manual Training High School.

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11" in size. They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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I DO not deny that of necessity some economies must be made in our schools. But we are going too far in that direction. Our schools ought to be the last to feel the pinch of economy, just as they ought first to experience the return of prosperity. Undoubtedly the educational tree needs some pruning. There may be some dead and decayed branches that ought to be cut off. But if such pruning is necessary it should be done scientifically, by experts. It serves no good purpose of economy and it is immensely damaging to our educational system to slash into a budget regardless of whether we are cutting into a vital spot or not.

Even in these days of tremendously pressing problems, to my mind the most important question of all is, what are we going to do about our schools. That education should be universal goes without saying. By education I mean more than the three R's. I believe that every child should be given all the education that he can reasonably absorb. This does not mean that all children should spend an equal number of years in school or that all should take the same courses. It means that everyone in order to have the best chance possible for a happy and full life should have every bit of education that he is capable of receiving and of using to advantage.

He should have this not only for his own sake but for the good of the whole. The intelligence of a nation is the sum of the intelligences of all of its citizens. Intelligence is the product of education and education is the greatest national asset that we have. No nation in these times can hope to survive, to say nothing of progressing in the arts and the sciences, in commerce, in trade, or in industry, unless it is composed of a well-educated citizenry. Least of all can a democracy, depending, as it must depend, upon an informed public opinion for the selection of its leaders and the framing of its laws hope long to endure unless it consists of a highly and universally educated electorate. The individual American must be educated not only that he may be able to enjoy a happier and fuller life; he must be educated in order that, in coöperation with other educated Americans, he may do his part toward sustaining and upbuilding an intelligent and beneficent and capable government.

HAROLD L. ICKES
SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR
In His Radio Address on Education,
October 29, 1933.

THE FUTURE OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

ONE of the pre-requisites of an educated gentleman today is an understanding of business activities. Not to understand current business terms and movements with the ability to explain those terms and movements, is to display a lack of fundamentals in interpreting modern life. The term "Commercial Education" is used to include that education and training which prepares specifically for an understanding of the relationships and performances of activities in business.[1] If we take this definition as our basis, it will eliminate the idea at the outset that such education consists merely of short technical courses in bookkeeping, typewriting, and stenography. We have come to the place where we feel that one or all of these subjects cannot be considered Commercial Education, although each contributes its part in the training of a business man. There are some educators who, even today, feel that Commercial Education is merely "clerical" in nature. These individuals have not really grasped the full forward movement of Commercial Education.

When one attempts to secure information dealing with the history of Commercial Education, he is confronted with the fact that this type of education did not develop along any line of predirected thought, but, like "Topsy," just grew. A scientific control of this new science did not begin to operate till the World War period. Today commercial research studies delving into all phases of commercial activities are being made.

Since 1890 science and the machine have reconstructed our industrial life. Such inventions as the automobile and the telephone have been responsible not only for profound changes in our industrial life, but also have modified social institutions. The school has begun to change with the times. A comparison of the schools of 1890 with those of 1930 shows this conclusively.

[1] Malott, J. O.: Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 26, page 2.

	1890 [2]	1930 [3]
Number of high school students	300,000	4,000,000* (13⅓)
Number of commercial students	15,000	1,000,000 (666)
Percentage of commercial students	5%	25%
Number of high schools Attended by	4,000	20,000
Course of study	Intellectual and social elite.	All children.
Test of success	Single curriculum organized logically.	A series of curricula organized phychologically.
	If misfits are eliminated.	Retains and directs misfits.

[2] Marvin, C. H.: Commercial Education, Chapter 4.
[3] Strumpf, B. E.: Bookkeeping Duties and the Commercial Curricul
* Estimated.

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The private commercial school of the past has been displaced. In 1890 about one-third of all schools were private schools. Today, there are only about 5%. The old-fashioned college, designated for the few, belongs to the past. The modern democratic and industrial world demands a university as broad as the life and interests of all the pupils.

Present Importance of Commercial Education

This period of world civilization is frequently described as an "industrial" or business age. Such is particularly true of our American life.

According to the National Bureau of Economic Research, the 1926 income of the 117,000,000 people of the United States was $90,000,000,000. This fabulous sum represents the highest standard of economic prosperity ever achieved by any nation in the history of the world. This sum of $90,000,000,000 is an increase of 40% in our national income in the seven years since 1919. It is an income "five times as great as England's, nine times as great as Germany's, thirteen times as great as that of France, and twenty-two times as great as that of Italy. . . . Those who have thought America grew rich during the war do not realize that she has been growing richer twice as fast since then. . . . Since 1913 the income of this country has increased 66%. During the same period that of England has grown 4% and France a little more than 1%, while the income of Italy has fallen off 23% and that of Germany, 30%."[4]

We had engaged in our amazing American business of 1926, a total of 44,600,000 wage earners who had an average income of $2,010.[4]

How Did Our Great Business Age Evolve?

One of the powerful factors that subdued mediaevalism and helped greatly to evolve our modern life was that of business. That factor became particularly effective in the 13th century, when the so-called "third estate," made up largely of merchants, bankers, tradesmen, artisans, and craftsmen, became a civilizing force of commanding importance between the governing aristocracy and the toiling peasantry.

Alongside the development of business, and as a part of it, there arose another powerful civilizing agency, that of scientific method. The Revival of Learning, beginning significantly with the 12th century and extending through the 15th century, naturally stimulated a spirit of questioning and criticizing — an intense passion to square thinking and practice with what were the known facts.

It was this scientific spirit that, among many other things, led to great geographical discoveries, including the discovery of America; to the wonderful development of our modern sciences; and to the marvelous application of these sciences to business enterprise. This industrial or business revolution began in earnest about the middle of the 18th century and has continued into our own times.

Professor Tugwell believes that we are now entering upon a new industrial revolution in which, with increasing economy, we are applying new methods and processes to the use of the great inventions and discoveries, of the older industrial revolution.[5]

What Is Business?

Business, as an economic organization dedicated to the task of gratifying human wants, makes use of social resources which may be grouped in four classes: natural resources, labor power, capital, and acquired knowledge. How well the school, for example, succeeds in wisely making use of these social resources is determined primarily by how well the school demonstrates that it is an efficient business organization and, as such, is mindful of its economic responsibilities in the accomplishment of its great social mission. The school, as a business organization, is engaged in the production of desirable types of social behavior or *uses* of acquired knowledge, in the distribution of the benefits of education among the rank and file of mankind, in the selective consumption of past and present life experiences, in the conservation of such material resources as those of school property and tax money, and finally, in the conservation of human resources of student and teacher groups.

If business endeavor is part and parcel of all organized human effort outside of the school, such likewise should be true of all educational effort within the school, since the school purports truly to represent the best of life in the educational experiences to its students. In them, all educational leaders agree that every one of the 4,000,000 [6] students in American high schools should have his education armed with economic competence. But in practice our administrators and teachers are far from universal agreement. A vast majority of high schools are still pursuing a so-called academic curriculum which does not guarantee an occupational efficiency in keeping with the other major objectives. High school education still tends to remain a school affair, only evaluated within its school walls. It is interesting to note that among twenty-five noteworthy statements of secondary school objectives, there is unanimous agreement on just two.[7]

(1) Preparation for occupational efficiency.

(2) Civic-social responsibility.

I. Present Trends Leading to Future Completion

1. The course of study in secondary schools is beginning to change from the traditional and sentimental to the *functional*.

a. At a meeting of the National Association of accredited commercial schools, Mr. Merrill, Assistant Superintendent of Schools of Des Moines, Iowa, said in part: "While there are certain parts of the field of commercial education that are essentially purely vocational, there is a

[4] "The Advance of the American School System," N. E. A., Vol. 5, No. 4, page 211.

[5] Tugwell, R. G.: "Industry's Coming of Age."

[6] Estimated.

[7] Koos, Leonard V.: "The American Secondary School," page 153.

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much larger proportion of it that properly belongs to any scheme of liberal education that is up to date. Except for Stenography, Advanced Courses in Bookkeeping and Accounting, and perhaps some technical courses in certain special activities, it is difficult to think of any of the so-called commercial subjects that do not have a more *general* appeal or general value to the great majority of pupils in secondary schools, as have most of the courses in history or science that are usually offered, and vastly more than the traditional courses in language and mathematics. Why, then, are we not ready for this next great step in commercial education, the opening of a larger number of these commercial courses to general students, not as an addendum to liberal education, but as an integral part thereof? [8]

b. The greatest obstruction in the path of commercial education in the secondary schools is the entrance requirement of colleges. Here and there, like a beacon shining in the darkness, a college will accept commercial electives. Just as soon as colleges accept commercial subjects on a par with Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, so soon will commercial education take its rightful place.

c. Counts,[9] for example, in his study of the senior high school curricula of fifteen cities of this country, where were representative of "the more progressive tendencies in education," found that in curriculum changes during recent years "the major portion of the activity has taken place in the field of vocational interests. . . . Within the vocational field, the major emphasis is assigned to commercial training. . . . Likewise, the interests that are being stressed in the subject changes are the same as those emphasized in the curriculum changes. An analysis of the subjects added shows that seventeen of the sixty-four additions are drawn from the commercial branches. The industrial arts occupy second place, with ten; English and home economics come next, with six each." It would seem that if the public high schools of this country are to become more and more a part of the common school education of all normal boys and girls, due to the growing complexity of our modern life and in accordance with our democratic ideal, we may reasonably expect to find a higher and higher percentage of high school students equipped with an occupational efficiency as an *integral and essential part* of their complete, well-rounded education.

[8] Proceedings of the accredited commercial school national association.

[9] Counts, George S.: "The Senior High School Curriculum." Educational Monograph No. 29, page 122.

d. Out of the hundreds of distinctive selling, clerical, and other commercial vocations, only *one*, that of the stenographer-typist, has been sufficiently job analyzed to make a real degree of correlation between training and instruction offered in school, and the outcomes of performance expected in the world of work. A start, here and there, has been made in bookkeeping and in other commercial subjects, but in general the courses offered in commercial departments are just school courses. The time isn't far distant when all commercial courses will be scientifically evaluated![10]

The new curriculum is adjusting the relationships between vocational education and so-called liberal education. The age-old war between these ideas has produced intellectual snobbery on the one hand and vocational peasantry on the other. It is a relic of early beginnings when education was a special privilege of the leisure classes. It has no place in a modern democracy which, as the price of its very existence, must build into the lives of children a right attitude toward work combined with appreciation of the finer things in life. Rich culture springs from the black soil of economic competence, and labor is most fruitful when it is fertilized by art and joy and a well-rounded philosophy of life.

[10] Kilpatrick, William H.: In "Proceedings Commercial Education Association, 1931."

Fundamental courses in commercial work must of necessity revolve about accounting, business training, economic history, sociology, and economics. With these as the backbone of the curriculum, others will be dovetailed.

II. The Philosophy of Commercial Education

Permeating commercial education is a philosophy new-grown, but nevertheless old. The Philosophy of Commercial Education is simply the philosophy of education directed to the problems and practices of commercial education. The specific task is two-fold: (1) To see the dangers involved in the more important problems of commercial education; (2) To find, if possible, the point of view to conserve the values already found.

A. Any scheme of vocational education, commercial or otherwise, should count itself as but a part of a general program of education contemplating the whole of life.

B. Because subsistence underlies all else, there is danger that economic stress may operate to stunt and reduce life either by denial of opportunities for a richer life or by refusing education for such.

C. An adequate system of commercial education must, in order to meet varying needs, provide varied offerings. For each case, special guidance must prevail.

"We live in a democratic society in which we endeavor to develop in each

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individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place, and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends. In our democratic society, education is a state responsibility. If each of the forty-eight states of our great nation is to guarantee for itself a social-economic life that is healthy and noble, it must seek to have a properly educated citizenship. Education and democracy are bound up in an unending chain of mutual cause and effect. Each idea demands and fosters the other. More democracy means more general education, and more general education means more universal democracy. They are both mass movements, and call for mass treatment."[11]

In our democratic society, a good citizen is one who is self-reliant *vocationally* as well as self-reliant as a worthy home builder, church supporter, school patron, and consumer of leisure time. Our national leaders in education are tending more and more to appreciate this fact!

III. A Guidance Program

The guidance program includes both vocational and educational guidance. Today we have no program worthy of the name. Everyone "takes" certain courses. Everyone is going to be a lawyer, teacher, professional man. Direction and guidance are hit-or-miss affairs. In some of our high schools, a valiant attempt is made to guide our pupils educationally. With 8,000 pupils in many of the high schools of New York City, the task is impossible. Vocationally, it is even more hopeless. Try telling Johnny he ought to be a carpenter instead of a lawyer, and all of Johnny's relatives are incensed! What is the solution? What level shall we use, to start educational guidance? How shall we best overcome home conditions and parental objections? What industries shall we cater to, if any? Who shall guide educationally, vocationally? What principle of selection shall we employ? These, and a score of other questions, must be answered before a well-coördinated guidance program can be effective in the future!

Professor F. G. Nichols of Harvard has aptly stated: "Vocational education of any sort without vocational guidance before, during, and after the period of training, is little short of futile. If vocational education is one of the devices for aiding people in adjusting themselves to their economic environment, it should be obvious that this function cannot be performed effectively without taking cognizance of all the factors involved in the process."[12] As Superintendent Carroll R. Reed of Minneapolis puts it, "Guidance is the function of the entire school system, including all activities in the schools which may be useful in assisting the pupil to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and make progress in an occupation."

Fortunately, the day is gone when school guidance consisted largely of assigning the brighter pupils to academic courses and the duller to commercial work. Certain business courses are well elected by a rapidly growing number of pupils as a part of their general education program. Admittance to the advanced vocational skill subjects, however, needs to be jealously limited on the basis of personal interests, aptitudes, abilities, and the employment opportunities available. For these and many other reasons, the commercial teacher has an important place in the vocational guidance program; *first*, through assistance rendered to the administration of the general guidance and counseling plan; and *second*, specifically through pupil contacts in business classes, outside activities, placement and follow-up, curriculum revision, and business relationships. Much of this guidance will be informal in character and may even seem incidental, but these aspects only add to its significance when definitely recognized, planned for, and integrated into his program by the business teacher.

The *third* way of participation is through closer coöperation with business interests and activities. The value of the laboratory method is increasingly stressed for all subjects, but in none of them are the opportunities for application richer than in commercial education. Here, practical laboratory problems wait just outside the schoolhouse door. The progressive business teacher finds an abundance of actual business material that may be brought to the classroom. He also makes judicious use of business speakers, business trips, and the assignment of appropriate special business studies for pupil investigations. The most important factor of all, however, is that the business teacher enjoys personal acquaintance and contacts with the business leaders and activities of the community.

The *fourth* mode of coöperation comes through the wise offering of vocational business courses. What vocational specializations a school should offer, or whether any should be undertaken in some of the smaller schools, is a matter that may be determined only after careful consideration of all the local controlling factors. In the urge for a wider use of the social business subjects, care should be taken that the vocational aspects of commercial education are not in turn neglected. After all, social and economic adjustments rest basically upon vocational adjustment.

The *fifth* way of aiding in the vocational program is through a testing program for commercial subjects which will be scientifically evaluated and applied.

IV. Class Equipment

The fixed desks and seats of our present commercial classrooms are due for change. Moveable furniture will predominate. The business machine will come to stay—dictaphone, bookkeeping machines, adding machines, addressograph, and the like, will equip commercial rooms. Just as one room at the High School of Commerce is equipped today, so will every commercial room be furnished tomorrow. Due to horizontal and vertical combinations

[11] Smith, W. R.: "An Introduction to Educational Sociology," page 166.
[12] Nichols, F. G.: "Outlook for Commercial Education."

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in business, larger combines are displacing smaller concerns. The gradual growth in this direction is tending to displace the pen-and-ink worker with the machine method clerk. Our classroom will resemble an office or a suite of offices rather than the traditional classroom.

V. The Teacher

Emphasis will be laid upon methods of learning rather than methods of teaching. The formal recitation as a mere repetition of some assigned homework is due to go. In its place will arise the commercial laboratory, with periodic conferences under a specialist in the use of various machines. When the pupil strikes a snag, he will appeal to the teacher in charge for advice or guidance. This method will give the pupil a chance to walk alone. The radio, the microphone, the talkie, television, will all play essential parts in the instruction of the future commercial student. Teaching standards will be raised to a higher level. It will of necessity be the link between the school and industry.

The practical educational trend in our American schools is to have the work of the classroom articulate with the work of life as we find it and seek to control it. We want the classroom learning in home economics helpfully correlated with actual life of the home; in civics with practical problems of government; in character building with the religious education of the church; in business and other economic education with vocational practice; in music, art, and physical education with the organized community uses of leisure time. The real value of what our students learn in classrooms lies in the extent to which they, in the interests of progressive improvement, can effectively use their classroom learning in routine and problem-solving life situations, whether in business offices or elsewhere. As a matter of fact, society is interested in the modification of skills, knowledge, and attitudes that function in the relation of the child to the various groups in the community and to the civic life of the community.

Professor Dewey says: "The most direct blow at the traditional prestige of purely 'intellectual' studies, however, had been given by the progress of experimental science. If this progress had demonstrated anything, it is that there is no such thing as genuine knowledge and fruitful understanding except as the offspring of doing. The analysis and rearrangement of facts which is indispensable to the growth of knowledge and power of explanation and right classification cannot be attained purely mentally—just inside the head. Men have to do something; they have to alter conditions under which labor may become intellectually fruitful and not merely externally productive."[13]

VI. General Consideration

Commercial education may readily assume greater responsibility for developing a better understanding of the theory and application of *simple economic principles in business affairs.* Business enterprises are undertaken in instances where the most simple survey or analysis would indicate they never had a chance to succeed. Millions of dollars are lost because investors make little attempt to discriminate between worthless and worthwhile securities. The interdependence of labor and capital is little appreciated by many. The most elementary principles of marketing and the economic relationships of one section with another are frequently misunderstood. Coöperative movements among agricultural interests would perhaps succeed better if the futility of selling on an open market and buying many of their needs on a controlled market were better appreciated by boys and girls. The objection may be that high school pupils are not mature enough for the study of the more abstract materials which the discussion suggests, but it is possible that such criticisms are a reflection upon the teaching methods used, rather than upon pupil ability. What the skillful teacher-leader may accomplish with adolescent boys and girls is sometimes rather amazing.

Commercial education may more directly assist in promoting a better understanding of the *structure and relationships in business enterprises.* Boys and girls need to be taught more clearly what business is, how it functions, the materials and facilities that are used, and the human relationships that are involved. This includes the responsibilities and the interdependence of different departments within a particular concern; the relationship of one firm to others within that industry; and the relationship of the particular industry to other industries. The beginning employee who is trained only in technical or clerical skills is frequently stranded on the low levels of routine work, partly because he does not have a clear picture of the business as a whole and is, therefore, handicapped in recognizing and appreciating promotional opportunities.

Commercial education may well place increased emphasis upon the development of the *finer attitudes and ideals desired in business.* The tenet that there is one code of ethics for private life and a more lax one for business is no longer acceptable. Increasingly, business firms are zealous to maintain standards of integrity and fair dealing. Legitimate advertisers are much alarmed because readers have grown skeptical toward advertising statements. How are we to establish wider confidence in the truth of advertising experts? That business ethics in general have improved is well indicated by any comparison with earlier practices. Further improvements will come as the boys and girls of today are led to think and act on an even higher plane as the business leaders of tomorrow.

Things must and will change to keep pace with our advancing civilization. Professor Wesley Mitchell, Chairman of the Hoover Commission on Recent Social Trends, says: "It will always be difficult to keep curricula in adjustment with changing times and with new knowledge. Some

[13] Dewey, John: "Education and Democracy."

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schools and colleges still offer courses which are survivals from the scholasticism of the Middle Ages. The proportion of emphasis to be placed on vocational courses and trade schools as compared with the proportion put on the less specifically utilitarian subjects is one of the questions of educational policy. A democracy with a mechanical civilization and with an increasing heterogeneity of shifting occupations must ask much of its schools.

"The changes in industrial, economic and social conditions which have taken place in recent years create a demand for a kind of education radically different from that which was regarded as adequate in earlier periods when the social order was comparatively static. Members of a changing society must be prepared to readjust their ideas and their habits of life. They not only must be possessed of certain types of knowledge and skill which were common at the time when they went to school, but they must be trained in such a way as to make them adaptable to new conditions.

"Indeed, it may be said that the failures of coördination in modern life are attributable to, in no small measure, the tendency of human beings to fall into fixed habits and conservative attitudes. Many individuals are unsuccessful because of their inability to adjust themselves to the changes which take place about them."[14]

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[14] "Recent Social Trends." Hoover Commission, January, 1933. *New York Times* Supplement.

THE SCARCITY OF PROBLEMS IN ONE UNKNOWN

IN an article entitled "One Unknown or Two?" that appeared in *The Mathematics Teacher* for March, 1933, the writer advocated the earlier introduction of the solution of verbal problems by the use of systems of equations.* The following reasons were given:

1. "A powerful mathematical tool (i.e., the multiple-equation method), which will eventually be taught, is introduced early in the algebra career of the student so that he may derive all the benefit from a prolonged acquaintance with it."

2. "It eliminates to a large extent a technique (i.e., the forcing of all types of problems into the mold of one unknown and one equation) which is conducive to certain errors which will be made no matter how much drill is given."

3. "It saves much time that is expended in artificial approaches."

4. "The pupils themselves prefer this method to the old one when they are given a chance to choose."

5. "It discourages the use of 'crutches' and inculcates in their stead a habit of reasoning in terms of symbols which is the very essence of mathematical thinking, and which the student may carry away into his later life long after all the tricks and puzzles have been forgotten."

It was furthermore pointed out that the topic of simultaneous equations can be introduced, without difficulty, about the sixth or seventh week of the first term; also that it is specially adapted to an easier and "safer" solution of the traditional problems dealing with coins, interest, age, mixture, distance, and so on, because the student is not faced with the difficulty of deciding which of the given relations and facts are to be used for the constituents of the equation and which ones for the setting up of the equation proper. He can, therefore, devote his entire attention to the correct translation of the statements into their equational equivalents, and, in general, will follow the rule of drawing up as many equations as there are statements in the problem.

In this article, the writer would like to urge, for still another reason, that the multiple-equation method should be introduced *as soon as problems involving more than one unknown are presented.* That reason is that there is dearth of problems that are genuinely of one unknown. Take such examples as the following: "Divide 30 cents between Mary and Jane so that Mary should get twice as much money as Jane" or "John is 7 years older than his sister; how old is each if the sum of their combined ages is equal to 23 years?" Both are presented to the beginning student to be solved by means of one equation, although they really involve more than one unknown. It is evident to the experienced teacher that it is easier to teach a beginner to set up two equations for each of the above problems than to set up only one. Even the solution of the sets of equations is not beyond the grasp of the average student, when the method of substitution is used. As a matter of fact, during the last year the writer introduced the topic of two and three unknowns to four classes of beginners in the early part of the second week and found it easier both for himself and for his pupils than the traditional method.

The following studies made by the writer convinced him of the scarcity of problems that are genuinely of one unknown:

(1) An examination of the problem material found in five well-known text-books, prior to the formal introduction of simultaneous equations.

(2) A study of the nature of the problems found in the second part of the uniform examinations in algebra set by the University of the State of New York (Regents' examinations) during the years 1926-1933.

The five books studied shall hereafter be referred to as A, B, C, D

*For other, less detailed, arguments in favor of a similar approach see

1. Nyberg, Joseph A.: "Prose Problems in Algebra." *School Science and Mathematics.* 20:829-835 (1920), especially page 835.
2. Nyberg, Joseph A.: "Recent Changes in the Teaching of Mathematics." *The Mathematics Teacher.* 18:10-21 (1925).
3. Ligda, Paul.: "The Teaching of Elementary Algebra." Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925, pp. 64-65.
4. Ligda, Paul: "Systematic Analysis and Solution of Quantitative Problems." *School Science and Mathematics.* 26:173-180 (February, 1926). 26:241-52 (March, 1926).

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and E.** Book A contains 342 pages, and the topic of simultaneous equations is introduced on page 139. Up to that point, there are 119 problems of which only 16, a little more than 13%, are genuinely of the one unknown type.

Book B contains 485 pages, but the topic of two unknowns is not mentioned until page 336, long after practically all types of problems have been dealt with. Out of the 287 problems, only 95 or about 33% have one unknown. It is interesting to note that every one of the first 71 problems in this book contains more than one unknown and that out of the 95 problems in one unknown 80 are not problems at all, but merely verbalized equations.

On page 346 appears the following remark which indicates that the authors also feel that there is something wrong in the late introduction of this method of solving problems and that some sort of apology is in order: "Many times problems may be solved by the use of only one unknown, but often they *may much more easily* be solved by the use of two unknowns" (italics ours). In the name of common sense, if it is the easier method, why wait until the end of the term and the end of the book to introduce it?

Book C is one of the best thought-out books in the field. The author has dared to break away from the traditional order of certain topics and has advocated new methods of teaching them. He introduces the topic of simultaneous equations on page 152. Out of the 179 problems that appear up to that point only 34, about 18%, are of the one unknown type. On page 164 is found the following interesting sentence. "Later it will be seen that many problems that can be solved by using only one letter *can be solved* more easily by using a separate letter for each unknown" (italics ours). The above sentence reads like a confession. Indeed, the writer of the book under consideration has, since its publication, become an enthusiastic supporter of the earlier teaching of the topic of the two unknowns.

Book D is designed to cover the one-and-a-half-year course of algebra and contains 558 pages. The topic of the solution of systems of equations is not considered until page 283. By that time, practically every type of problem has already been treated. Of the 194 problems found in those early pages, only 44, or about 23%, are genuinely of the one unknown type.

Book E introduces two unknowns on page 212, after having worked out in great detail the usual types of problems by the traditional method. Out of the 268 problems, 75, or about 28%, deal with situations that give rise to equations in one unknown. Of these 75, very few are problems at all, but are mainly equations in word form.

Here, too, the authors eased their pedagogic conscience by including the following note on page 212: "Most problems that can be solved by means of equations having two unknowns, can also be solved by an equation having only one unknown. *Nevertheless* use two unknowns when solving the following problems" (italics ours). Observe the word "nevertheless"! What happened to that need for motivation that we used to hear so much about in the courses on methods? The above advice betrays a complete failure to understand the psychology of the school child. "Why should I learn to solve problems by a new method" the pupil would justly complain, "after I spent weeks in learning the old one? And if the second method is superior, why wasn't I taught that method in the first place? It's all so confusing. If the first method is better, why should I be bothered with the second one, and how will I know what method to use?"

We may as well be honest and admit that there is no satisfactory answer to that complaint. There is no cogent reason, except tradition, if that may be given as a reason, for not beginning with two or more unknowns as soon as problems of that type are introduced.

If the studies enumerated above have not convinced the reader of the advantages to be derived from an earlier introduction of the multiple-equation method, perhaps the following will, especially if he is a teacher of algebra in the high schools of the State of New York. During the years 1926-1933, the examinations set by the University of the State of New York (Regents' Board) in Elementary Algebra contained 75 verbal problems. Of this number, no less than 60, or about 80%, involved more than one unknown.

Since, willy-nilly, we prepare our students for those examinations, why not teach them that method of solution that would be most suitable for the kind of problems with which they will have to cope?

The studies of the text-books and the examination papers lead inevitably to the following conclusions:

1. There is a scarcity of problems that involve no more than one unknown.

2. The writers of text-books are convinced (as who is not?) that in general, it is easier to set up the equations of a problem when as many symbols are used as there are unknowns.

3. Four out of every five problems that the pupils have to work in the first term deal with more than one unknown. They can, therefore, be solved in less time, with greater accuracy and with more understanding by means of systems of equations than by the methods in vogue.

If these conclusions are warranted, they can lead to but one practical recommendation: *Introduce the method of two and three unknowns as soon as appropriate problems are assigned.*

It is of utmost importance to remember, in this connection, that the method advocated in this paper can be tried with any text-book in Algebra. All that is necessary is the expenditure of a little time in planning the rearrangement of the teaching of certain topics. The gain is well worth the effort.

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** The titles, authors and publishers of these text-books will be gladly supplied to the reader upon request.—N. L.

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THE NEW AMERICAN POETRY*

How many of you have on your library shelves a copy of Burton Stevenson's "Home Book of Verse" or some other similar collection of poetry? As you turn its pages, do you not become aware of a certain sameness in the material treated and in the method of treatment? Don't you find that the succession of seasons, trees, birds, and flowers is a trifle monotonous? To be sure, the lines are nicely balanced and the rhyme scheme perfectly developed, yet after a while does not this nice balance and polished rhyme become tiresome? Do you not occasionally feel the urge to read verses that reflect American life as it is lived today in our fields and factories, written in words that bite and burn? If you do, it is time for you to become acquainted with modern American poetry.

We in twentieth century America are anxious, aye, even eager, to wrestle and grapple with the problems of life, to meet reality at any cost, to face the music even if the tune be not to our liking. The tempo of life has changed from the stately waltz of the Victorian Era to that of the hysterical Lindy hop of today. Everyone of this generation wants to dance, but not to the measured tread of the music of grandmother's day. So in the realm of poetry have the conventional "forsooths" and "peradventures" of a bygone era become outmoded in our day by the language and rhythms of common speech.

And what is this "new" poetry? Listen to Walt Whitman's "Leaves of Grass," written in 1855:

I celebrate myself;
And what I assume you shall assume;
For every atom belonging to me, as good belongs to you.
I loaf and invite my soul;
I lean and loaf at my ease, observing a spear of summer grass.
A child said, "What is the grass?" fetching it to me with full hands;
How could I answer the child? I do not know what it is, any more than he.
And now it seems the beautiful uncut hair of graves.

And how does this poetry differ from traditional poetry? We know that the latter had certain well-defined laws of rhythm—and of rhyme, too, for that matter—and that all poets religiously obeyed these rules. What did Whitman do? Well, he might be called the Abraham Lincoln of American Verse because he wrote verses that were free from the laws of rhythm and free from the laws of rhyme. That's his real contribution to the history of our poetry. Here was a reality, a vitality, if you will, that American poetry sadly needed. Here was a poet that put American life freely and frankly on record, who wrote in plain, simple, everyday language of the pilot at his wheel, the mother with the babe in her arms, and the slave girl on the auction block, and then in the romantic tradition "of the slumbering and liquid trees" and of the sea with its "crooked inviting fingers." To be sure, he wrote too much and revised too little, yet his influence on both the matter and the manner of the twentieth century American poetry has been incalculable.

If you don't believe this statement, look through the pages of "The Spoon River Anthology," written by Edgar Lee Masters sixty years later, and note the similarity between the two men. Both wrote in free verse, using the cadences of everyday speech. Both treat very frankly of matters which people thought came without the pale of verse-making, though Masters is far more indecent than Whitman. In fact, Masters' chief contribution to American poetry is that he dared to be vulgar. He took a small town in Illinois, went to its cemetery, and gave us the epitaphs on 214 tombstones, not as they were actually written, but as *they should have been written* were the entire truth told. You're probably thinking that it was a very peculiar medium for poetic inspiration, but therein lies the value of the work, for Masters did something that had never been done before. He was clever enough to raise to the realm of art matter that in less gifted hands would have been sheer brutality and filth. Liaisons, seductions, rapes appear on every page, yet some of his characters rise to the heights of exaltation and idealism and are unforgettable. Witness his gem, "Emily Sparks":

Where is my boy, my boy—
In what far part of the world?
The boy I loved best of all in the school?—
I, the teacher, the old maid, the virgin heart,
Who made them all my children.
Did I know my boy aright,
Thinking of him as spirit aflame,
Active, ever aspiring?
Oh, boy, boy, for whom I prayed and prayed
In many a watchful hour at night,
Do you remember the letter I wrote you
Of the beautiful love of Christ?
And whether you ever took it or not,
My boy, wherever you are,
Work for your soul's sake,
That all the clay of you, all the dross of you,
May yield to the fire of you,
Till the fire is nothing but light . . . !
Nothing but light!

Another man who was a disciple of Whitman—a curious combination of noble idealism and bold realism—is Carl Sandburg. One Sunday afternoon about ten years ago he dashed off no less than thirty-eight definitions of poetry. Here are two of them: "Poetry is the silver of the moon lost in the belly of a golden frog." Sounds bewildering, doesn't it? But that's the point about much of Sandburg's work; he seems to be bewildered himself. "I don't know where I'm going, but I'm on my way," he says. This next definition I think is better: "Poetry is the achievement of the synthesis of hyacinths and biscuits." If you agree with him here, you must admit that Sandburg is a true poet, for he writes with equal facility of a sunlit blossom and a "contemporary bunshooter," and with much greater lyrical power, by the way, then either Whitman or Masters. I would say that he is distinctly the poet of propaganda who would use every medium at his com-

*A talk given over Radio Station WNYC, October 7, 1933, at 6:00 P. M. —the first of a series of five talks on "Trends in Twentieth Century Literature."

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mand, even slang, to call the attention of his audience to the wrongs of an erring world—and to right these wrongs. See how forceful, if not repulsive, he is in defense of Chicago:

CHICAGO

Hog Butcher for the World,
Tool Maker, Stacker of Wheat,
Player with Railroads and the Nation's
Freight Handler;
Stormy, husky, brawling,
City of the Big Shoulders:
They tell me you are wicked and I believe
them, for I have seen your painted
women under the gas lamps luring
the farm boys.
And they tell me you are crooked and I
answer: Yes, it is true I have seen
the gunman kill and go free to kill
again.
And they tell me you are brutal and my
reply is: On the faces of women and
children I have seen the marks of
wanton hunger.
And having answered so I turn once more
to those who sneer at this, my city,
and I give them back the sneer and
say to them:
Come and show me another city with
lifted head, singing so proud to be
alive and coarse and strong and cunning.

This little talk on modern American poetry would be incomplete without mention of two younger men who have made distinct contributions to literature, T. S. Eliot and E. E. Cummings. The former is a neo-classicist whose poetry, closely packed with every manner of allusion, makes very heavy reading. To Eliot, the primary appeal of verse is to the intellect—poetry must be difficult—and if you don't believe he follows his own tenets, read his volume "The Waste Land." Here we find every manner of classical allusion, quotations from thirty-one sources, French symbolism, Shakespearean realism, Biblical idealism. He is the poet of despair, disillusion, futility. "The Love Story of J. Alfred Prufrock" ends in the terrified cry "I am afraid." Some critics have referred to his work as "an impudent hoax"; others, as "the greatest document of our day, showing the starvation of our entire civilization." Perhaps the most sensible explanation of his poetry is that he has made it complex to reflect the complexities of life he has found everywhere about him; he cares not for poetical unity because life itself is bewildering and disjointed. To him "poetry is not a turning loose of emotion, but an escape from emotion; it is not the expression of personality, but an escape from personality." Your agreement or disagreement with this point of view will greatly color your opinion of his work. Let me read a representative passage from "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock."

No! I am not Prince Hamlet, nor was
meant to be;
Am an attendant lord, one that will do
To swell a progress, start a scene or two
Advise the prince; no doubt, an easy
tool,
Deferential, glad to be of use,
Politic, cautious, and meticulous;
Full of high sentence, but a bit obtuse;
At times, indeed, almost ridiculous—
Almost, at times, the Fool.
I grow old . . . I grow old . . .
I shall wear the bottoms of my trousers
rolled.
Shall I part my hair behind? Do I dare
to eat a peach?
I shall wear white flannel trousers, and
walk upon the beach.
I have heard the mermaids singing, each
to each.
I do not think that they will singe to me.
I have seen them riding seaward on the
waves
Combing the white hair of the waves
blown back
When the wind blows the water white
and black.

We have lingered in the chambers of
the sea
By sea-girls wreathed with seaweed red
and brown
Till human voices wake us, and we
drown.

Like Eliot, a Harvard graduate, though somewhat younger, is E. E. Cummings, who represents the eccentric note in modern American poetry. Here we have the strange case of a man who can write beautiful poetry when he wants to, but who deliberately sets out to arrest our attention both by the bizarre manner and the matter of his verse. Have you ever before read a poem like this, that begins:

"Jimmie's got a goil" (girl) and ends
"Oh for such a gurl
gurl
gurl,
oh

for such a gurl to
be a fellow's twistandtwirl
talk about your Sal—
Sal—
Sal—,
talk

about your Salo
—mes but gimmie Jimmie's gal."

Sounds like a verbal anarchist, doesn't he? Anything may happen in his verses. Words are divided between two or more lines, and syllables are repeated until we wonder whether or not it be "the powerful stuttering of a demented compositor." Besides, all's fish that comes into the poetic net of this exponent of the Jazz Age, whether it be a sunset, drugs, garters, lobster salad, chewing gum, patent medicines, or what not. Just a minute ago, I said that Cummings could write beautiful poetry when he wanted to. Listen to this:

SUNSET

stinging
gold swarms
upon the spires
silver
chants the litanies the
great bells are ringing with rose
the lewd fat bells
and a tall
wind
the dragging
the sea
with
dream
-S

You must admit, ladies and gentlemen of the radio audience, that it is indeed a far cry from the poetry of Whitman to that of E. E. Cummings. Each of the five men mentioned in this little talk has made a distinct contribution to the development of our poetry. Whitman released verse from the regular rhythm of traditional poetry and gave it what is known as free verse. Masters followed Whitman in the use of free verse, but used new material to express ideas that were considered not only vulgar, but positively indecent. This is his contribution to American poetry. Sandburg's new note is one of social propaganda for the forgotten man, introducing even slang to make the world as he would have it. Eliot began to show a return to regular rhythm, but revealed unusual method in the treatment of his subject by employing words that were unshackled, merely for their tone value. If they had a definite meaning, all right; if they had no meaning at all, all right. E. E. Cummings, the poet of the Jazz Age, went one step further than even Eliot in the use of words for mere tone value, carrying this to the extreme of splintering his poetry

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with oft repeated words and syllables so as to produce on the reader by repetitions the same effect as pure music would produce on him.

If I have made these points clear, this little talk will have been not in vain.

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HAS THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN A SINECURE?

THERE is a very general opinion prevalent in our schools among both principals and teachers that the teacher assigned to library duty in the elementary or junior high school has received a "soft" job. The idea seems to be that all she needs to do beyond the mere routine of seating the pupils and maintaining proper discipline, is to let them select books to suit their own fancy and then permit them to sit and read, while the teacher goes on with her clerical records or corrects papers from any classes she may teach. In fact, it is considered such an easy job that the teacher assigned to library duty is often given, besides a part time teaching schedule, other odd jobs such as running the school paper, charge of supplies for the school, charge of relief work, yard duty, official class and what-not. It is commonly held that she needs no time to organize and administer her library, that she can do all that is necessary while the children read, and take care of these other odd jobs, too.

This idea shows a complete failure to understand the aims and opportunities of the school library, and a lack of recognition that it is a part of the educative process just as much as teaching history or geography. There is failure to realize that a teacher, to do this work properly, not only must have a clear understanding herself of these aims and opportunities, but also must have a working knowledge of the technique of organizing and administering a library, a broad acquaintance with children's literature, and sympathy with the interests and enthusiasms of children. It is not enough that she "likes books" and "is good at details." If we are to have efficient school libraries fulfilling their purpose as part of the process of education, we need people to administer them who understand what they are to do and how to do it, and who are intimately familiar with the best in children's literature. Let's get over the idea that anyone can run a library, and realize that librarianship is a profession requiring the best person we have, who should be a good teacher and besides, possess this familiarity with children's books, this sympathy and enthusiasm, plus a working knowledge of library methods. We would not expect to assign a teacher to teach geography who knew nothing of the subject. Neither should we expect a teacher instinctively to know how to organize and administer a library and to secure that informal and inviting library atmosphere which tempts one to linger and browse.

Consider first what must be done in organizing a library. Our purposes are:

1. To develop a love for reading and literature.
2. To supplement and vitalize the work of all departments.
3. To teach the use of books and libraries in finding information.
4. To train for future use of the public library.

In glancing over these aims, it should be evident that, in order to create readers who love to read, we must select our books with care, not being content to choose a book because "the title sounds good," but from a personal knowledge which shows us what books will appeal through both content and make-up to children's interests in the age groups we have. The second aim indicates that we must select our books, too, with the school's curriculum in mind so as to supplement and vitalize the work of *all* departments (not just the English department). Thirdly, we must add to our library reference books, dictionaries, encyclopedias, "World Almanac," atlas, "Who's Who in America," anthologies, and so forth, for use in finding needed information.

A consideration of the fourth aim indicates that our library must use the same general plan as the public library, since we are training for its future use. This means that the books must be grouped by subjects, to which are assigned numbers according to the Dewey Decimal Classification followed by most public libraries. To do this, the teacher assigned to the library must have both a knowledge of this scheme and familiarity with the books, since it is impossible to classify a book unless one knows what it is about (it is not safe to trust to the title alone!). We need, too, an index which will tell us what books we have in the library on any subject. This index is called the card catalogue and consists of author, title and subject cards for each book in the library. To make these cards properly, and above all, to know what cards to make, is a science in itself and requires skilled knowledge and *time*. Records of the books must be kept, too, including a shelf-list showing how many volumes the library has, and records of book circulation and of books read. These records are required by both city and state, and the teacher should be given time to take care of this routine.

Each book as it comes to the library must first be classified as to subject, the classification number must be lettered on the back and shellacked, and a shelf-list card made. Then catalogue cards, author, title and subject, must be made for the card catalogue. All this must be done before the book is really ready for use.

Whenever a book is torn or the binding broken, it must be mended. This requires some skill and above all, *time*. If it is not done promptly, the book will soon be beyond repair, and since we have so little money for new books, it is necessary to conserve what books we have.

So far, only the organization and mechanical administration of the li-

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brary have been considered. However, the work with the children and teachers is by far the most important part of the librarians job. Yet the successful carrying out of this work is dependent in part on the proper organization of the library, and can be really effective only where a carefully chosen, well-ordered collection of books is available.

Since our first aim is to develop a love for reading and literature, the teacher assigned to the library must do more than merely sit back and let the children follow their own fancies. Some children, of course, do know what they want to read. But many of them do not, and it is the duty of the teacher to make readers of these children by helping them select books suited to their reading ability and adapted to their taste. To do this, the teacher must be sympathetic, enthusiastic, and intimately familiar with the books and with children's interests. She must be capable of careful but unobtrusive guidance. She must be able to fit the book to the child, but must do it so tactfully that there is no apparent direction at all, since the library should be a place where the children feel they come to relax somewhat from the discipline of the classroom. This subtle feeling of relaxation, informality, and of free will, maintained in spite of skilled guidance and a quiet insistence on order, produces "library atmosphere," that indescribable yet easily recognized air which prevails in the best libraries, and which it is high art to secure.

The librarian should frequently spend some time in introducing to the children through book talks or story telling, books which may not be read generally unless skilfully presented. Books which correlate with subjects studied, which present background for materials used in the classroom should be presented at the time when they fit in best. This entails on the librarian's part a close acquaintance with the whole course of study, since the correlation should be made just as carefully for science, history, geography, and so on, as for English. Here, too, there should be friendly coöperation with all teachers by calling to their attention what the library has which correlates with their work, and by lending to them temporarily, books, pictures, pamphlets, and the like, for use in the classroom.

The progressive librarian is trying constantly to build up and round out her collection. Since she has little money to spend, she is always on the alert for free or inexpensive pictures, pamphlets, and clippings which correlate with the school work. She must make these easily available for use by children and teachers by mounting and arranging in a classified file.

She must also make the children independent in the library by teaching them *to find information for themselves* in the reference books and catalogue. Such knowledge is acquired only through definite instruction, with drill by problems which should arise in the class work. Here the other teachers can coöperate with the librarian by sending the children to the library with definite assignments. A

syllabus and course of study in the use of the library has been prepared and both city and state require this definite instruction to all classes using the library. A city-wide library test is given in the ninth grade. This ability to use books to find information is one of the skills which can be used all through adult life, and together with the reading habit, constitute a most valuable part of the training for the use of leisure.

The really interested librarian in a progressive school is aware of the many opportunities which lie in wait. Providing the children with opportunities to consult reference books *at the time they need the information* is one of the real needs, and has been solved in some cases by a table being reserved for such pupils, who are sent to the library from their classrooms at any time. Or in other cases, the solution has been either in opening the library for a short time before school or keeping it open a half hour or more after school, when children may come in freely. Providing for at least a limited circulation of books is another of the problems which, in our scarcity of books, has called forth some ingenious plans of week-end or overnight circulation, frequently done in after-school hours. Much can be done with the magazines available in each school library. And again, Library Reading Clubs and Library Squads give further opportunities for making eager readers of the children and of firmly establishing the library habit.

It is more than a mere truism that the librarian's work is like that of the house-wife—never done. There are always so many interruptions in each period, so many things to be done, so many opportunities for further expansion of the work if there were only time, that the library teacher is perpetually swamped with work if she takes her job seriously, as it is assumed she does. A real understanding of the aims of the library and of the duties of the library teacher, both administrative and educational, should convince her colleagues that the school library is very far from being a "soft" job, and moreover is a position of dignity and educational opportunity fully equal to the classroom. It is encouraging to note that more and more of our library teachers are preparing themselves through courses in library methods and children's literature to cope successfully with the situations they meet in their work in the school library, and even under present conditions of insufficient time to carry on their work properly, numbers of them are doing well. In many of our schools the library is functioning effectively and is, in truth, the center about which the work of the school grows.

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A COURSE IN THE CORRELATION OF ENGLISH WITH MUSIC AND ART

THE modern educational tendency to think in terms of the whole child instead of his isolated subjects holds far-reaching implications for the teacher. He cannot grasp the child's whole problem from the vantage point of his isolated subject alone. He must be able to think in terms of several if he is effectively to help the whole child. This broad, understanding attitude toward subjects other than his own might be termed the curricularization of the teacher. In medicine there is being observed a gradual return from the specialist to the general practitioner. Perhaps the day of the specialized teacher is also drawing to a close.

In this stressing of the oneness of education, English has been a pivotal subject. So far, however, its correlation with the sciences and commercial subjects has been more common than with those to which it is more closely allied, music and art. Progressive schools, to be sure, are making use of the possibilities of this correlation in arousing the creative faculties of children, and Wellesley College has reported its value in the clarification of literary criticism. In high schools, however, perhaps not quite so much has been done in realizing the cultural possibilities of literature, art and music in their broad, creative, non-technical phases combined in one course. This enriched and unified outlook has been the aim of the Department of English of the Samuel J. Tilden High School in inaugurating a course where the teacher of English presents that subject in combination with art and music.

While no course in English added to the regular school courses in art and music appreciation is an equivalent, there is no reason why the work could not be as well taught by teachers of the other two subjects. But the orientation of the three must primarily exist in the mind of the instructor, who should be able to turn readily from one medium to another and to make students grasp ideas in terms of paint, marble, music or words. Instead of confining this method to one advanced course in English, it might be well to have a music and art focus for each term of English, thus insuring the benefits of this broader outlook for every child. Perhaps the examination for a teacher's license in English should be somewhat less intensive in that subject, but made to include these other mediums of human expression. Is there any teacher fully prepared for her calling who has not received the baptism of the Beethoven symphonies?

The course is designed for students of superior ability who require less training in correct written and oral expression, and especially for those whose interests are literary and artistic rather than scientific and technical. It may be substituted for English VI or VII. Perhaps it represents something of the type of class that Dr. Flexner would include in his proposed high school for gifted students.

What are the aims of the course? They are identical with the broad cultural ones of any class in English, culminating in a fine and happy human being who has fully realized his worthiest potentialities. But the means for the accomplishment of this high objective are planned to be of three-fold strength and intensity. Through the constant and fairly simultaneous examination in a happy, informal way of a wealth of material from the high lights of art, music and literature, a more completely developed person of loftier vision should result. His eye and ear should come to function habitually with the brain; his critical judgment and taste, based on this three-fold foundation should become more full-bodied and a more active factor in his daily living. It is earnestly hoped that the course may do its small part toward making the eye and the ear of the student something more than a jelly and a tympanum capable of receiving only the crudest stimuli. With standards of taste thus made trebly strong and enduring, he should come habitually to seek out and respond to that which is fine and to reject that which is cheap and spurious. Is not such honest fastidiousness the most effective weapon with which to combat the prevalent vulgarity of today?

In addition to this cultivation of taste, the course hopes to establish a broad and elevated point of view. It aims to make the student realize the essential unity of all modes of human expression, to show how artist, composer and writer are alike representative of the spirit of their age. It sets forth their basic brotherhood and the student's kinship with them insofar as his ability to appreciate renders him worthy. By contemplating the lives of the greatest in the three arts and their supreme achievements, he should come to grasp the essential grandeur of the human spirit and to be inspired to live his own life upon a like high plane.

It is also to be hoped that this association with the three arts on terms of pleasant familiarity may contribute to the student's ultimate happiness by arousing and stimulating permanent enthusiasms in many directions and mediums. The finest side of the life of his city, or of any city in which he chances to be, its libraries, newspapers, churches, architecture, museums, art exhibitions, concerts, opera, should become woven into the very texture of his present and future life. No matter how drab his surroundings in years to come, they should be charged with intense significance because of the fine resources within himself. And, as circumstances permit, it is to be hoped that he will transmute his environment into one in harmony with the quality of the inner man.

And, lastly, in this day when all teachers are striving for broad, world attitudes, is it impracticable, especially

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in view of increasingly cheapened travel rates, to instill in the student as a definite future objective the determination to go to Europe and to enjoy his rightful cultural heritage as a world citizen? That "desire is prophecy" is especially true of the dynamic young people of today. These students will not be like the young Americans that Dean Briggs of Harvard observed in Rome who every morning settled down to a long day of bridge. He scornfully asks, "What business had they in Rome? What business had they anywhere?"

Together with other courses in Tilden, this one hopes to do its part towards giving children a right, by virtue of their capacities for intelligent appreciation, to stand in the great places of the earth.

It may seem that undue space has thus far been given to the justification of the course, but the main thing is not how, but that it should be done. Wisdom is not going to die with any one teacher's syllabus and the skinning of the proverbial cat should be kept in mind. The attractiveness of the work should lie partly in its flexibility and adaptability to the special interests of teacher and pupils. The timeliness of certain material may be the best reason for its inclusion. Thus the giving of the original operetta of "Don Quixote" at Samuel J. Tilden led to a worth-while digression—Cervantes and the "Don Quixote" theme in music and art.

The course is at present planned, after a brief survey of Greek art and architecture, to cover the high lights of English literature with correlating music and art from the Middle Ages through the first half of the nineteenth century. A projected alternating second course is to extend from the nineteenth century through the present, which will properly limit the all too broad scope of the present one. Very superficial it all sounds, and is—but the aim is outlook and not erudition.

The general method of correlating the three parts of the course may next be suggested. The proportion of time, roughly speaking, is three days of literature followed by two of art and two of music. In presenting the art and music, no attempt is made to force them into an artificial background for English literature, but rather to give a broad cultural survey from which that subject may be seen in its true perspective, even if it shrinks a bit in importance as the student becomes more of a cosmopolite. There is also no attempt at a strict synchronizing of the three arts by centuries. An arid century in English literature that can be covered in a day or so may be so rich in continental art as to require several weeks. There should also be sufficient time devoted to any one unit of art or music for some feeling of development and continuity to be realized. Thus Italian art is studied as one unit; Dutch art, as another. The eventual aim is the elevated point of view and enriched background to be reached by the end of the term.

The basic texts are Schweikert's "Adventures in English Literature" and Auslander's "The Winged Horse."

Rapid readings in chronological order from dominating literary figures are integrated with brief biographical notes and surveys of the historical settings of the periods. In order that the readings may not be too hurried and indefinite, short daily papers based on specific questions on the required text are handed in and checked. The books for supplementary reading reports are as far as possible works of the present day that relate to the older writers. For instance, Rose Macaulay's "The Shadow Flies" is a stimulating background to the age of Milton and Herrick; the latest copies of the English "Spectator" and "Tattler" and even the American version, give added zest to Addison and Steele. All possible musical settings of literary material available for the victrola are utilized and wide use is made of pictorial illustration furnished by both pupil and teacher. The kind assistance of the Picture Collection of the Forty-second Street branch of the New York Public Library in providing over fifty pictures each week for the three parts of the course is of great help.

The art and music appreciation is presented by means of informal talks by the teacher supplemented by special reports from the students. Short quizzes follow and summarized mimeographed sheets are given out for the permanent note books. The art talks are based on small pictures in the hands of the students who pay a "laboratory fee," five to seven prints being distributed to each at the beginning of the period. They consist of Brown-Robertson colored prints, University Prints, Perry Pictures, Metropolitan and Medici post cards, an aggregate of about a hundred for the term. Great paintings in jig-saw puzzle form are especially popular. Much of the enduring satisfaction of the course seems to come from this diversified, if humble ownership. One student standing before Franz Hals' "Portrait of a Woman" at the Metropolitan confided, "I like my penny picture best."

Original observation, individual expression of taste, and especially discussions at home following the lesson, are encouraged. To this end the pupils are also allowed to take home portfolios of larger reproductions. The teacher well remembers one boy's recital of his mother's lovely and penetrating appreciation of Velasquez's "The Spinners." Perhaps the course may do a little something toward the realization of that most appealing of objectives, worthy home membership. To this end, also, the students are informed of reasonably priced enlargements which several become interested in buying for their homes. In addition to his small prints, he is also collecting from newspapers and periodicals his own appropriate note-book material which appreciably increases with his widened interests.

Field work includes visits to the Brooklyn, Metropolitan and Hispanic Museums. Next term, in connection with the work in contemporary art, the more modern galleries will be visited. In connection with the study of Gothic architecture, there is a trip to the Riverside Church and to the Ca-

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thedral of St. John the Divine. The façade and stained glass of the Riverside Church are compared with those of Chartres; the carillon is listened to from below and thoroughly, if breathlessly, surveyed from above. It was a special satisfaction to the teacher to stand with a large group of Jewish children, after the Cathedral service, before the altar and there examine the Menorah lights, the two seven-branch candle-sticks, given by Adolf Ochs to the Cathedral as a symbol of the friendship existing between the Jewish and Christian people of New York. It is such spirit as this that the course hopes to foster.

The musical part of the course begins with the English madrigalists and extends from Bach through Chopin. The teacher's talks on music are illustrated by victrola records, music scores, the student's small prints and illustrative material from the Public Library. The Department of Music of Samuel J. Tilden kindly allows the use of its records and the chairman has graciously played such illustrative material on the piano. This year a recital consisting of the concerted musical ability of the class in definite illustration of the work covered has been planned.

For field work, in addition to radio concerts, the Philharmonic series have been attended, a representative of the class being present on alternate Friday afternoons. Next year a representative will also be present at the Saturday morning concerts for young people at Carnegie Hall with all the responsibilities of the delegate reporter. Notebook work in music is similar to that in art. Here again supplementary readings about composers and artists are as far as possible from contemporary writers, such as Craven's "Men of Art," Davenport's "Mozart" and Schauffler's "Beethoven." In the new second course more time will be devoted to art and music newspaper criticism.

Some specific benefits from the utilizing of this three-fold material may now be considered. In the presentation of any literary period the teacher is enabled to make use of a broader and more vivid means of approach. The significance of the English Renaissance is more clearly understood when the student has first experienced it in Florence, Venice and Rome. Though neither contemporaries nor countrymen of Shakespere, surely Leonardo Da Vinci, Titian, Raphael and Michael Angelo should stand side by side with him in the student's mind, as lofty peaks of the Renaissance. All the titanic personalities of that great world period are rightfully his, whether the medium of expression be stone, bronze, marble, paint, music or words—words too, in languages other than his own. The tight little island of English literature should be made less tight, especially for children for whom there will be no college to reveal the broader outlook.

Again, no understanding of the English Renaissance can be adequate without recognition of the fact that musically also it was a period of supreme expression, that Elizabeth's England was called "a nest of singing

birds," that Raleigh, Sidney and the Queen herself sang "full merrilie and lustilie." To have listened to the madrigals of Morley, Byrd and Gibbon, to be familiar with compositions glorifying the Queen in musical form as well as in the more familiar lyrics, is to gain a truer idea of the creative scope of the period. Surely Orlando Gibbon's "The Silver Swan," as sung by the English Singers, is as lovely and as precious as the better known "To Celia." And where anywhere is there such a vivid and perfect expression of the ruthless eclipse of art under the Puritan régime?

Another dominating aspect of the Renaissance in England, the Queen's patronage of the arts, is more readily understood when the student is already familiar with Pericles, Lorenzo de Medici, Pope Julius II, Philip IV of Spain, Francis I of France and their powerful, often sinister control of artists. An Edmund Spenser breaking his heart for his Queen's recognition is then no new phenomenon. The pupil watches this changing relationship of artist, composer and writer to the patron, from century to century. He estimates the relative work of resplendent ruler and humble artist and rejoices in his gradual winning of independence. With such a background, he is prepared to judge an Edsel Ford or a Rockefeller.

In like manner other English literary periods become more full-bodied and less shadowy when the light of other arts is shed upon them. Holbein's portraits express the rigid, earthly splendor of the court of Henry VIII, while the morris dance is a more spontaneous expression of the folk element of the same period. Van Dyck's portrayal of the graceful elegance of lace and plume supplements the cavalier lyric as an expression of the spirit of the court of Charles II. Reynolds shows us the prosaic sobriety of the Johnson group, while a few measures of a minuet of Haydn or Mozart can vividly convey the atmosphere of glittering formality that was the early eighteenth century.

It will next be suggested how the changing modes of human expression in the development of English literature may be rendered more vivid and comprehensible through this three-fold clarification. Classicism may be illustrated by Donatello's "Saint George," Mozart's "Jupiter Symphony" and Pope's "Rape of the Lock." The pupil comes to realize what is meant by the comment, "If Raphael's modonnas could sing, they would do so in the music of Mozart."

Romanticism may be illustrated by a Schumann, a Byron and a Delacroix. The subjective individualistic expression of the artist may be made clear by Byron's "Don Juan" or "Childe Harold," and the second movement of Schumann's "D Minor Symphony"; the love of nature by Wordsworth's "Tintern Abbey," a landscape painting of Constable and Beethoven's "Pastoral Symphony"; the growing feeling of human brotherhood by Burns' "A Man's a Man for a' That," Millet's peasant paintings and the choral movement of Beethoven's "Ninth Symphony"; nationalistic feeling by Burns'

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"Bannockburn," Velasquez's "Surrender of Breeda" and Haydn's "Emperor's Hymn" or a Chopin polonaise; grief for the dead by Shelley's "Adonais," El Greco's "Burial of the Count Orgaz" and the second movement of Beethoven's "Eroica Symphony"; humorous expressions by Burns' "Tam O'Shanter," Franz Hals' tavern paintings and Mozart's "Figaro" overture; love of liberty by Byron's "Sonnet on Chillon," Delacroix's "The Barricade" and "The Marseillaise"; interest in children by Blake's "Songs of Innocence," paintings of children by Van Dyck, Reynolds and Romney, and Schumann's "Kinderscenen."

Finally, it is to be hoped that finer and truer ideas of human living may be impressed upon the student by this three-fold substantiation. From the lives of a Michael Angelo, a Beethoven and a Milton, he may come to realize one truth of special value in this superficial age when the study of technique and of past art is believed by many to cramp free creative expression, the truth that "the greatest genius is the greatest debtor." He may observe these three Titans spending laborious years humbly learning all that the past could teach them and then, on that firm, hard-won foundation, rearing each his own unique and imperishable creation.

Then again, he may come to realize from these lives that great character and great work are produced in the fires of privation, physical handicap, scorn, disappointment and grief. He understands what Schubert meant when he said, "My compositions spring from my sorrow. Only those that are born of grief can give delight to the world." Perhaps, too, by surveying the long, simple, uneventful lives of a Bach and a Wordsworth he may come to realize that the momentous thing in life is that which is within a man and not the change and color of his outward circumstance. These truths may seem platitudinous, but sometimes, through fear of being banal, do we not withhold from the paths of children the light of wisdom?

Some further correlations will now be suggested, correlations not artificially forced but already existing, ready to be utilized by the teacher. The work of no one term, of course, can cover all these subjects, nor can they be dealt with in any but a cursory manner. The list represents, rather, a wide source of material from the three arts to be drawn upon as its timeliness may warrant. It indicates the general comparative vantage ground that should exist primarily in the mind of the teacher, much of the material being merely casually presented at the appropriate time.

1. Greek art in the poetry of Byron, Shelley, Keats and Arnold.
2. Praxitiles' "Marble Fawn" and Hawthorne's novel.
3. Anglo-Saxon England and "The King's Henchman."
4. The Bible in medieval cathedral, sculpture, stained glass, altar-piece and miracle play.
5. Folk ballads and traditional tunes.
6. Significance of "Sumer Is *Cumen In*" in music and English poetry.
7. Gregorian Chants as sung by the Canterbury Pilgrims.
8. Architectural, historical, musical and literary significance of the cathedrals of Canterbury, Notre Dame and Westminster Abbey.
9. Musical instruments mentioned in the "Canterbury Tales" and the plays of Shakespeare.
10. Influence of Saint Francis on art and literature.
11. The Italian Renaissance and the works of Symonds, Pater and Ruskin.
12. Italian artists and composers in the poetry of Robert Browning.
13. "The Italy of the Poets," an anthology edited by Robert Haven Schauffler.
14. Saint George in art and literature.
15. Influence of Savonorola upon the work of Botticelli, Michael Angelo and George Eliot ("Romola").
16. Botticelli's use of Greek myths.
17. David as depicted in the Bible, Italian sculpture and Browning's "Saul."
18. Genesis as illustrated by Ghiberti in bronze, Michael Angelo in paint, Milton in poetry and Haydn in music.
19. Sonnets of Shakespeare, Dante, Petrach and Michael Angelo.
20. Bacon and da Vinci as forward-looking scientists.
21. Cellini's "Perseus"; the account of its casting in his Autobiography; Berlioz's Cellini overture.
22. Vasari, the Walter Winchell of the Italian Renaissance.
23. Shakespeare in opera and overture—Verdi, Thomas, Mendelssohn, Berlioz, Straus, Tschaikovsky.
24. Shakespeare in art, with special reference to the decorations of the Memorial Theatre and the Folger Memorial Library.
25. The Faust theme in Marlowe, Gounod, Berlioz and Rembrandt.
26. Don Quixote of Cervantes, Massenet, Richard Strauss, Daumier and the tapestries in the Philadelphia Museum of Art and the Hispanic Museum.
27. Comparisons between the music of Bach and a medieval cathedral.
28. Velasquez as a historian of Spain.
29. Victrola records expressing the various moods suggested by Dryden's "Alexander's Feast."
30. Saint Cecilia in art and literature.
31. Samuel Pepys and seventeenth century music.
32. Handel and his relations with English poets and kings.
33. Goya and Swift as satirists.
34. Dutch genre painting and the home interiors of Burns, Thompson and Goldsmith.
35. Rembrandt's autobiography in self-portraits.

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36. Rembrandt and his descendant and biographer, Hendrick Van Loon.
37. "The Three Titans" by Emil Ludwig.
38. The engraving and poems of William Blake — musical settings for his poems.
39. "Jean Christophe" and Beethoven.
40. Goethe's relations with Mozart, Schubert and Beethoven.
41. Parallels in the life and work of Burns and Schubert.
42. The "Manfred" of Byron and Schumann.
43. Napoleonic themes. Paintings by Orchardson and Baron Gros; Haydn's "Emperor's Hymn"; Schumann's "The Two Grenadiers"; Beethoven's "Eroica Symphony"; Tschaikovsky's "1812 Overture"; Browning's "Incident of the French Camp"; appropriate chapters from "Les Misérables," "Vanity Fair" and "The Old Wives' Tale."
44. Chapters in Abbé Dimnet's "What We Live By," which discuss the relation of poetry, painting and music.
45. Lessing's "Laocoön."
46. Etching, wood cut and engraving as means of illustrating literary material.
47. Means of producing light and shade in painting, orchestral composition and poetry.
48. Chopin and his Paris literary associates.
49. The musical novel.
50. The MacDowell colony at Peterborough.

In conclusion, the words of Goethe, an outstanding example of a man who enjoyed this enriched vision, might be appropriate. "Every day one should at least hear a little song, read a good poem, and gaze upon a fine picture, and if possible, speak a few sensible words."

James Huneker used to speak of himself as a steeple jack of the arts and his was indeed an enviable if superficial vantage point. The present teacher, who feels that she has heretofore genuflected too much in the dim corner of her pet pew, has welcomed this steeple jack course. Sometimes pupils and teacher alike become somewhat breathless and dizzy, and the view may even at times be a bit hazy, but they have been somewhere and seen something, which is the reward of those who have the courage of the air-minded.

FREDERICA WARNER.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

AN ADDRESS TO PARENTS*

TO A schoolman profoundly concerned in the successful education of our young men and young women, it is inspiring to meet such a large group of interested parents eager to coöperate with us—to help us in our task. Too many times in my years of work in the high schools have I been struck by the indifference of American parents who so often seem to feel that when they feed, clothe, and shelter their children properly and then send them to school, their responsibilities end. Equally have I been struck by the erroneous idea of many foreign-born parents that the sole purpose of sending their children to school is that they may get book learning. Of course, they learn many things from books, but that is incidental to the main purpose.

The education which we aim to give is not a process of *accumulation* but a process of *building*. Facts can be gotten from books, without teachers, without schools, with very little expense either to the individual or to the community.

Our work in the high school is immeasurably greater, more important than that—in fact, after 35 years of activity and observation, I firmly believe that what we accomplish in our secondary schools is the most important, the most vital work done with the youth of this country. It is as the keystone of the arch of our modern American civilization. And, were this work destroyed or curtailed, our whole scheme of life would soon drop about our ears in confusion and chaos.

We aim to fit your boys and girls to lead an honorable, useful, happy and successful life. We succeed to a very great degree, but we want to succeed more often, and more completely, and we can—with your greater coöperation.

Be assured that whether you intend to send your children to college or not, the vital construction work is done in high school. Our work is the foundation on which young people build all that is to follow. So you see what a tremendous responsibility is ours.

But do the facts bear out my claim? Let us consider them.

Your children come to us between the ages of 13 and 18 or 19. It is with us, under our tutelage, that they spend those difficult, formative years of adolescence; it is while with us that they emerge from childhood into maturity.

When they enter high school, a great many of them have already begun to grow restless, to be impatient with the restraining ties of home. They have been "just children" a long time and they are anxious to become individuals, to go forth, to try their wings. They want to do things by themselves; they yearn to be with young people

*Delivered before the Parent-Teachers Association of the Abraham Lincoln High School, October 19, 1933.

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of their age, to have interests, activities that are all their own. They are filled with enthusiasm, active desires and—inexperience. They are bundles of potentialities without regulators.

With us they must find a satisfactory field for the orderly, well-guided development of all their aspirations, physical, mental, emotional and moral.

With your indulgence let us consider just what our schools do to fulfill this mission.

From the Physical Point of View

All students are given an examination with particular attention to heart, eyes, teeth and hearing. If needed, corrective work is undertaken. For the sound, normal children we have intramural sports of all kinds; we have interscholastic competition in many lines. And all these activities are under careful supervision of trained men and women who never lose sight of the fact that sports must teach coöperation with others, self-control under all circumstances, the ability to take a beating graciously and a victory modestly, the desire to play hard but clean, to be brave and straightforward—to play the game.

Mental Development

As for the mental development, you need to consider two things: The curriculum almost too vast in its offerings, and, in the second place, the caliber of the teachers who handle the different subjects. Examinations are, indeed, a very unsatisfactory gauge of mental accomplishments, but they seem to be the best yet discovered. If you accept them as an indication of our success, get the figures from the Regents' Board at Albany. You will be amazed to see how high stand the public high schools of New York City.

Too many educational systems and too many educators have sadly neglected the emotional development of children.

Emotional Development

They seem to have forgotten that the most beautiful incidents in the history of the human race have been due to expressions of emotional impulses. Fully aware of that, we give here ample opportunities for emotional development. We have our musical clubs, orchestras, band, glee clubs, religious culture groups, all of which bend their efforts to cultivate a keen appreciation of the geniuses produced by the human race. Innumerable other societies give to your boys and girls opportunities to develop or increase their abilities, their natural gifts, to fulfill their desires, *to create.*

Do you wonder then that your children enthuse about their school, love it, willingly spend many hours within its walls? And I ask you never to belittle their accomplishments, never to begrudge them the extra hours they spend with us. Think how much better off they are than if attending some moving-picture palace where they would be regaled with false views of life, erotic standards of living, attractive displays of vicious emotional reactions.

In no matter what activity they are engaged in the school, you may rest assured that the influences surrounding them are sound and elevating. Therefore, encourage your sons and daughters to identify themselves with one or two extra-curricular activities.

Moral Development

This brings us to the most important, the most vital work done in our secondary schools, the moral development of youngsters, more often called character training.

Naturally much of this has already been unconsciously done by the moral and cultural standards of the home, the influence of the parents and the church; but at high school age, children have reached a point where character building must cease to be a passive process and become a very active, conscious endeavor.

Unfortunately, a fine character cannot be built as one constructs an edifice. The will to build must come from within and from a sustained culture of acts that become habits. Furthermore, the qualities needed to make a fine character are discouragingly numerous, but we know that the foundation of all character is *courage.*

Without courage, physical, mental or moral courage, nothing of lasting value can be accomplished. With courage, the limits of accomplishment are almost abolished. This fact must be brought home to all youngsters and the examples furnished us by history are innumerable.

For example, there is no doubt in my mind that our present great President owes his position at the head of our country to that unflinching courage which, at an age when most men begin to slump, enabled him to overcome a terrible physical affliction. The struggle was a ten year's struggle, and it is not over yet, but its results not only put new life in his body, but also steel in his character.

Naturally you will ask, "How do you develop courage in children?" By many devices, some of which do not seem relevant. To mention a few:

First, our insistence upon punctuality. It sometimes requires not a little courage to rise early, in the dark, or on a cold day. But we demand punctuality, as we also ask for regularity of attendance. We have very little patience with more or less imaginary headaches, toothaches, stomachaches and what not. Just as in any business, in any profession, in any trade, employees must be punctual, must be regular in attendance, so in school students must be punctual, must be regular in attendance. We bespeak your earnest coöperation in this matter—especially from you, the soft-hearted mothers who are sometimes easily hoodwinked by a slothful son lacking in courage. Insist that your children's attendance at school be regular.

In high schools pupils must do a certain amount of outside work either in study, in writing, or in research work. It is a new departure and a new responsibility for them. Often the child's courage will fade when confronted with the choice between a hard, concentrated piece of work, or the reading of a detective story or listening to the radio.

If you see your child weaken, neglecting homework, back us up. Give

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him a proper place and the time to perform his tasks. Habits of work do not come overnight. To form habits of work repeated applications of courage are needed. With kindly firmness insist upon your child doing his homework day by day, and every day.

I should also like to see parents look over the homework of their children. They may not be able to check up as to its correctness, but they can approve or disapprove of its form, its neatness. Habits of careful planning, of tidy execution are of themselves of tremendous value in afterlife and we aim to inculcate these features in all homework.

The next great quality that we demand of your youngsters is honesty, complete honesty of purpose, of action, of speech. A great many children develop lack of honesty through fear. When caught in a misdeed they lack the courage to come through clean. They try to pass the blame to someone else, which is dishonesty of purpose, or else they lie about it, which is dishonesty of speech.

As far as I am concerned, I find it very hard to punish a child who comes across with an honest admission of his faults. There is something so beautiful, so appealing in a straightforward honest avowal of guilt, that it disarms me. And I also find that the youngster who has that courage often has the ability to see his mistake and to try to rectify it. Be not harsh with the truth teller but inexorable with the liar.

And finally, we aim to have high school students become self-controlled, self-reliant, poised. Our discipline is radically different from that form applied in the elementary schools; it is a discipline from within. Only when it passes the bounds of reason does it come from without. We feel that our students have reached an age when they are to begin assuming full responsibility for their actions, and we do all we can to encourage that ability, that habit of self-control. The ideal picture would be one when no teacher appeared except to teach, but whereas that is not possible in a school where we have freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. I am of the opinion that were our senior students segregated, they would display almost a 100% mastery of self-discipline and self-control.

In a few words, I have endeavored to give you a bird's eye view of what we want to do in this high school. As you can well see, it is a direct fitting for life, stressing vital qualities. Again, may I say we want your coöperation, complete and enthusiastic, in our endeavors, and if we have it I am assured that Lincoln graduates will soon attain an enviable position in the eyes of the community, whether they go into the professions, trades, commerce or politics. In that accomplishment will come our greatest reward!

ANDRÉ C. FONTAINE,
In Charge of the Annex.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

HIGH POINTS

An Experiment with Dictation in French

The purpose of this experiment was to study the effect of substituting dictation for English-into-French translation.

One hundred and five students greeted with eagerness the plan outlined to them of the term's work. There was to be no translation from English into French. That burden was to be borne by the teacher, a situation which the youngsters accepted without hesitation. The teacher would translate into French the important sentences of the English passage of each lesson in the book and dictate the French to the class.

Of those one hundred and five students, thirty-three were to take the Regents examination.

The book, "Alternate Exercises for Introductory French Prose Composition," by Victor E. François, was used. The dictation was given in the usual manner. One student wrote at the board while the others took the dictation at their seats. Papers were exchanged. The student at the board read his dictation. The class was asked to correct mistakes in the work at the board. After mistakes had been corrected, several students were asked to translate the dictation into English. Questions on different grammatical constructions were encouraged; and finally a résumé in French of the passage was given by one of the students. The English passages of each lesson of the text were treated in the same way, the teacher preparing a translation of the important sentences and using that translation for a dictation.

I found that when the students turned from dictation work to the reader, "Le Voyage de M. Perrichon," there was more of a desire on their part to read aloud, dramatize and summarize scenes because the feeling of the language was so much with them. The need to make the association of the English word with the French word in the long "grammatical" sentences was gone.

But the Regents' Examinations were before us. That was to be the crucial test. In June, one hundred and five students in all took the Regents in French two years. Thirty-three of these had been part and parcel of the experiment. It may be of interest to note the ratings attained in certain Regents' type questions: English-into-French translation, dictation and comprehension.

The average ratings of both groups of students, those who had followed the method of translation of English into French and those who had pursued the so-called "dictation method" is recorded in the following table for three Regents' type questions:

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	Regents' Question English into French (Maximum, 20 points)	Regents' Question Dictation (Maximum, 10 points)	Regents' Question Comprehension (Maximum, 10 points)
1. 33 students (Dictation Method).....	12.6	8.1	8.9
2. 72 students (Translation Method)	12.01	7.75	8.9

It was to be expected that the thirty-three students would do better in the "dictation" of the Regents' test. The small group was 3.5% higher than the larger one. But the work in translation of the experimental group also was better by 3%. Both groups netted the same results in the comprehension.

The results speak for themselves. The important point to be made, however, is that the students of modern languages, from my observation, approach their work with more enthusiasm when the "dictation method" is used. It brings into play so many other factors important in language teaching—accent, pronunciation, rhythm, and feeling for the language. Many of us have experienced the sense of utter futility in correcting board work in translation. Dictation spares both student and teacher that feeling of hopefulness and at the same time makes for comprehension and pronunciation. I have since that term offered the choice of method to students in the 4th, 5th and 6th terms. They have been invariably in favor of the "dictation method." I might add that it entails more effort on the part of the teacher, that a greater strain is put upon the voice, but that in some cases students may be trained to give the dictation.

EVELYN K. TROPP.

James Madison High School.

The Use of Student-Made Illustrations

Not all of us can draw, and yet we all enjoy pictures. Our students would like illustrations in all their textbooks. The set of books with pictures is the set they would all choose, and the pictures are what they look at first.

Very few of our English classics are, however, illustrated, and what hundreds of pictorial possibilities lie in every scene of literature! But the professional illustrators are not the only ones; our own students can make the most fascinating of all illustrations.

Before me as I write, is the water color of a boy reading "Treasure Island." All about him are the charming creations of the book: the gallant *Hispaniola*, the parrot Cap'n Flint, anchors, pirates, skeletons, Long John Silver with his wooden leg, and a cave of golden treasure. We, looking at the water color, can visualize what the boy sees, and the book is vivid through the picture. It was drawn by a commercial student, a boy, of course, and because he drew it, he and his classmates had a great thrill and so have many classes who came after him. Not many pupils can draw such elaborate pictures, to be sure, but ships and apple barrels are within the reach of many.

Irving's "Sketch Book" is a wonderful book to illustrate. Rip with his gun and dog, Rip with long white whiskers, the steep green Catskills, the jolly dwarfs with their magic flagon—all are easy and delightful. Or take the "Legend of Sleepy Hollow," and where could you find a better subject for pictures? — Katrina Van Tassel, that tempting morsel of the neat ankle and demure glance; the tea table set with abundance of autumn; the old school house. And as for Ichabod himself, he is a veritable hoard of inspiration—Ichabod in the schoolroom, birch rod in hand; Ichabod dancing with Katrina; Ichabod on horseback with his feet like shovels and his hands dangling a mile out of his sleeves. Such drawings are a delight first to the artist and next to his class.

In "The Idylls of the King," the possibilities are without end. There is the magic sword Excalibur and the shield of Lancelot; Guinevere as queen and Guinevere as nun; Lynette holding her nose as protection against the smell of kitchen grease on her faithful knight; and Elaine so fair, dead on the barge, approaching the city of Camelot. Of all the Idylls, however, "The Holy Grail" seems to present the greatest opportunity to the youthful artist. This is strange, for it is the most spiritual and least tangible of all. The Grail itself, with lovely imagery of cross and crown, with glowing light or throbbing red, has been pictured as often by Jewish as by Christian children, and the nun with her heavenly vision and Galahad so fine and true, make an appeal that never ends.

Now what is accomplished by such drawings? In the first place, the young artist experiences the joy of creation; if he can so focus his mind's eye upon a character, an object, a scene in literature that he gets from it a meaning that seems to him true, and then if he can give his vision color and form, he has created something, and he thrills with joy.

The class that sees the picture takes pleasure and pride in it, too. Not all children can draw, but all can gain an added interest from the drawing. The picture enlivens the scene, quickens the imagination.

The drawing of pictures can seldom be an assignment to a class unless with an alternate subject, as for instance, to produce a picture either in drawing or in words. The illustrations are usually brought in as extras. They are passed around so that each child may have his own moment of close contact with them. Later and from time to time they are exhibited. The artists of last year are the brothers or cousins of the class of today—and in that little fact, behold, there is another thrill!

KATHARINE L. MERRELL.

Far Rockaway High School.

Organization of a Health Education Program at Annex 192, New Utrecht High School

It is not an easy matter to devise a program of health education which will interest every one of a large group of boys.

In a high school annex located in an old elementary school building with four or five hundred boys coming from various junior high schools of the dis-

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trict, the problem becomes increasingly difficult.

For two terms I have been observing the needs, the likes, and dislikes, the natural abilities and aptitudes of our boys, and have finally evolved a program of health education which, because of its extremely varied activities, has held to a great extent the interest of each one of the boys.

In explaining this program I will deal with the following five sections:

1. Preliminary Instruction.
2. Lesson plan for term.
3. Method of marking.
4. Squads and squad work.
5. Squad captains and duties.

1. Preliminary Instruction

The entire first week of the term is devoted to preliminary instruction with reference to the term's work, no little time of which is given to the inculcation of New Utrecht "spirit."

The boys are told about the traditions and exploits of New Utrecht High School, of its high scholastic and athletic achievements for which it has been acclaimed from coast to coast, and the need for their following in the footsteps of their predecessors and continuing to keep New Utrecht at the top.

The aims, purposes and ideals of health education and the differences between junior and senior high school are then explained to them.

My main purpose is to remove the strangeness and hesitancy of these boys who are new to the high school, and to make them feel "at home."

Each boy is notified at this time of the necessity for receiving a medical examination either by his own or the school doctor, and the importance of attention to the findings of the examination.

2. Lesson Plan for the Term

The boys are then given a résumé of their term's work. One of the items mentioned is the daily lesson. At the beginning of the term this daily lesson plan is placed on the bulletin board where all the boys can see it; a copy of which follows:

Lesson Plan (45 Minutes)

5 Minutes: Beginning of period for dressing and free play.

5 Minutes: Checking for preparation and attendance.

5 Minutes: Fundamentals: facing, marching, warming up exercises (cold weather); corrective exercises—flat feet and spinal curvature.

5 Minutes: Natural program for alertness and accuracy. Athletic fundamentals in mimetic form.

Track:
Crouch start (indoor and outdoor), high jump (3 forms), shot put, broad jump.

Soccer:
Heading a ball (direction), kicking a ball for goal, trapping a ball (3 ways), position of goalie, dribbling a ball, throw-in on an outside ball.

La Crosse:
Receive and pass: goalie body check.

Basketball:
Passing, foul shot, dribble, pivot, bounce pass, long shot.

Football:
Forward pass, pass from center, drop kick, punt, shift.

Baseball:
First baseman's shift, catcher's position, pitching a ball, bunting a ball, batting, fielding and throwing.

Volley Ball:
Service, jump for ball, position play.

Fencing:
On guard, parry, charge, advance, retreat.

Handball:
Service, overhead return.

5 Minutes: Dancing: Teach "Pat Rooney Clog," "Military Clog," "Yankee Doodle," "Turkey in the Straw."

20 Minutes: *Outdoor Program:* Squad activity according to posted schedule (note under 4-Squads and Squad work).

Indoor Activity: Individual Activity.

a. Decathlon tests.

b. P. S. A. L. badge tests (potato race, step and leap, B. B. foul shots, rope climb).

c. Apparatus: Side horse, ropes, parallel bars, ladder, basket balls, mats.

Mass Activity and Games: Indoor soccer, dodge ball, kick over the ball, bombardment, mount ball (rider and pony), war, indoor volley ball, three deep, number relay, chain relay, chicken fight.

3 Minutes: Dressing and dismissal.

3. Method of Marking

I then explain to the boys how it would be possible for them to receive 100% in this subject. The mark in health education is based upon the following five items each one counting 20 points.

	Points
A. Brace motor ability tests	20
B. Decathlon test	20
C. Written note-book	20
D. Extra-curricular activities	20
E. Coöperation during class work	20

A. Brace Motor Ability Tests

The Brace motor ability tests are given at the beginning and end of each term. Each boy receives a mark upon his improvement from the beginning to the end of the term. For example, should a boy fail in all the twenty tests the first time and pass them all at the end of the term, he is given the full twenty points for improvement; but should he only pass fifteen of the twenty tests the second time he is given only fifteen points. On the other hand should a boy pass ten tests the first time, he is given credit for these ten tests, and is marked only on the ten he failed when he receives the second test.

B. Decathlon Test

During the term, the boys are taught athletic fundamentals in mimetic form for accuracy and alertness as shown in lesson plan. These consist of game actions in track, baseball, basketball, football, soccer, volley ball, fencing, La Crosse and handball according to

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the activity that the class is scheduled for. For example, during the squad period should two squads be assigned to touch football for any particular week, then football game actions are taught beforehand in class. Towards the end of the term, each boy is given a practical examination in ten of these game actions picked at random. For each one that the boy does correctly, he gets two points, making a maximum of twenty for the Decathlon Test.

C. Written Note-Book

About the third week of the term, each boy is given a mimeographed sheet, with fifty questions on health and athletics. Throughout the term these questions are answered by me or by the class during the two-minute hygiene talks given each period. At the end of the term each boy is required to hand in a note-book with the answers to those questions answered correctly. The boy who has answered all the questions correctly, and has handed in a neatly written note-book is given twenty points and proportionately down the scale for zero for failure to hand in a book.

My main purpose for this written examination in health and athletics is to get the students to think, and also to look up those items pertinent to their health and to sports, something they would not do spontaneously.

Following is a copy of this question sheet:

Answer in Note-Book:

1. Name 10 officials for a track meet and the duties of each.
2. What is the diameter of the circle in the shot put event? Tell how the shot put is measured.
3. a. How many jumps are allowed in any height in the high jump?
   b. How many balks constitute a jump in the high jump?
   c. What is the distance for the balk line in the high and broad jump?
4. Name three different relays; tell the distance of the relay zone.
5. Explain a handout in handball.
6. What is the rule pertaining to the number of downs in football?
7. What are the four different ways a team may score one or more points in football? Give the points scored for each.
8. Draw a diagram of a football field giving its dimensions and also the names and positions of the players on the team.
9. Same for soccer.
10. Same for basketball.
11. Same for baseball.
12. May a team use its hands in a football scrimmage when its side has possession of the ball? What is the ruling?
13. State the rule for offside in football.
14. What is a forward pass, lateral pass, end run, off tackle play?
15. Name all the officials in a basketball game, giving the duties.

16. How are points scored in basketball, soccer, and track?
17. Name 10 instances in basketball when the ball is declared dead.
18. Mention four fouls in soccer and the penalty of each.
19. What is a free kick, corner kick, penalty kick, and goal kick in soccer?
20. What is a balk in baseball and give its penalty?
21. Explain the hit and run play in baseball.
22. What sport do you like the best and give your reason?
23. Explain the infield fly rule in baseball.
24. What is the breast stroke, back stroke in swimming?
25. Name five dives in swimming.
26. What is a forehand, back hand, loft and placement in tennis?
27. Describe the method of scoring in tennis.

Hygiene

1. Name five different defects of the teeth and the effect of each.
2. What is meant by good posture? Explain fully.
3. What is the effect of flat foot, and how may it be remedied?
4. "A sound mind comes from a sound body." Explain with reference to (a) lack of sleep, (b) poor diet, (c) physical defects of the eyes, ears, and throat.
5. What are some eye defects?
6. Give the structure of the teeth and tell how you would keep them clean.
7. How do you take care of your skin and eyes?
8. What treatment should be given to minor cuts and why?
9. Why is the proper selection of food important to health?
10. What is constipation and its effect?
11. What is the result of obstructed breathing?
12. Why is it generally better to treat a cold by going to bed rather than by taking medicine? What is its effect on the throat at times?
13. What is the importance of ventilation?
14. Why should one know the physical condition of his heart?
15. What is meant by immunity? Explain fully.
16. The name of a common stomach trouble is ————.
17. Bleeding gums is called————.
18. Always take a ——— shower after you have taken a warm shower.
19. Nose bleeding may be caused by high and low ——— in the atmosphere.
20. Name five diseases that are communicable among children.
21. Name five health habits.
22. Tell how you would increase respiration (breathing).
23. Describe a natural exercise that was taught in your gym class.
24. What do you do to keep your school clean?

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25. State the value of athletics as a method of improvement along physical and mental lines.

Please Answer These Questions Carefully

D. Extra Curricular Activities

During the semester, after school tournaments are conducted in the following sports: soccer, basketball, handball, baseball, track, and volley ball. Each class is permitted to enter as many teams as it cares to. Out of the ten boys' classrooms, we had twenty soccer teams, twenty-two baseball teams, one hundred seventy-eight singles handball players, and fifty-two doubles handball teams, twenty-four basketball teams, eighteen volley ball teams, and a track meet held in a closed play street in which every boy participated except the physically handicapped. This meet consisted of a fifty-yard dash for taller boys; high jump, shot put and race around the block for all.

Medals were awarded to the winning teams in the various tournaments and also to the winners in the track meet. At the end of each tournament, I arranged for the formation of a representative annex team in each sport. These boys not only engaged in inter-annex games, but were also placed on the varsity squad in that sport. In an "extra-curricular" record book, I listed the names of all the boys in the annex according to classroom. At the top of each page I also listed the various tournaments that were conducted. A boy who had a check next to his name for every tournament, and who tried out for at least one varsity sport (after bringing a note from coach) received a maximum of twenty points and proportionately down the scale to zero.

A typical page in my extra-curricular book would look like this:

Classroom 501	*Tournaments*					
Name	*Soccer*	*Basketball*	*Baseball*	*Volleyball*	*Handball*	*Varsity*
Bloom	X		X	X		Track
Cohen	X	X		X		Soccer
Davis		X			X	
Entel		X	X			
Friedman	X			X	X	Handball
Goldman	X	X		X		

E. Coöperation in Class Work

The final twenty points are given for class work. A boy who does not receive any unprepared marks, absences or tactics marks and who receives a "10" from his squad captain is given full twenty points. Any combination of three, tactics or unprepared, or four absences means zero for class work. The above five items being listed, each boy knows exactly why his mark in health education is 70%, 80%, or 50%. Every point that he receives is given to him because he has earned it.

F. Squads and Squad Work

In every gym class each boy is placed in a squad according to the junior high school that the boy came from. Any boys coming from out of town schools, or transfers from another high school, were placed into one of the smaller squads. Each class ultimately consisted of five squads known as Montauk, Shallow, Seth Low, Pershing and Dewey.

At the beginning of the term, an outdoor squad activity program is posted on the bulletin board so that each boy knows what his squad is scheduled to do four months in advance. For example, two days' activities are listed as follows:

February 23: Seth Low vs. Montauk—Touch Football.
Pershing vs. Shallow—Basketball.
Dewey—Handball.

March 25: Dewey vs. Pershing—Soccer.
Montauk vs. Seth Low—Volley Ball.
Shallow—Shot Put.

There is inter-squad competition in basketball, baseball, touch football, association football, track, soccer, volley ball, box ball and punch ball; individual competition in handball and shot putting. Each squad is scheduled to play the other squads in every sport. At the end of each period, the captains give me the score of the game, which is listed in a class record book. Every victory counted two points; a tie, one point, and each loss, no points. At the end of the term, the squad that had the most points received small health education pins.

During inclement weather, which may mean rain or snow only, the squads were assigned to an indoor program consisting of basketball, soccer, mat work, high jump, side horse, and P. S. A. L. badge tests. No points are counted during the indoor program.

G. Squad Captains and Duties

To foster a spirit of democracy, each squad is permitted to elect its own captain, who is usually the outstanding athlete at the junior high school that he came from. The class was made to understand that they are completely responsible to the captain for everything they did, and that he is responsible to me for the conduct of his squad. Each captain received a card similar to the one illustrated below, with the name of each boy in his squad and also the date for each gym period.

Class: Tues.—Thurs.—Period 1—Squad—Dewey

Name	*DATES*								
Captain	3/1	3/3	3/8	3/10	3/15	3/17	3/22	3/24	3/29
1. Cohen	X								
2. Gold					X				
3. Greenberg				X					
4. Nathau			X		X			X	
5. Yarros								X	
							X		

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Any boy who did not enter into his squad's activities, but preferred to stand around idle, or wander away from his squad, or continually "hogged" the ball, acted like a bully, was disobedient to his captain, was loud mouthed or swore, received an "X" mark on his card for the period.

These cards were used to give the boy an activity mark for class work mentioned previously. A boy without any "X" marks on his card received 10 points toward his class work.

In conclusion let me state that the boys have found the work very interesting and enjoyable. They enter into the spirit of things with zest and enthusiasm. Each squad activity and each extra-curricular activity arouses each boy to the highest pitch of competition. They look forward to their health education periods, and find that the forty-five minutes pass entirely too quickly.

SIMON YUDELL.

New Utrecht High School.

The Mathematics Section of a German Museum

I remember distinctly the first time I heard of the Deutsches Museum. It was in the form of a full-page advertisement on the back cover of the program of the "Bayerische Staatstheater," Munich, in July, 1932. I had listened to a delightful presentation of "Tannhaüser." It seemed unusual, to say the least, that of more than thirty advertisements printed in the program, the largest and most conspicuous was that of the Deutsches Museum. A photograph of the museum was exhibited. At the bottom of the page were the descriptive words, "Astronomie, Physik, Chemie, Maschinenbau, Verkehrswesen, Bautechnik, Industrie und Landwirtschaft."

I learned that this museum at Munich is one of the largest in the world. All branches of human knowledge are exhibited here—mining; engineering; the origin of musical instruments; the development of transportation on land, sea and air; telephone, telegraph, radio and television; the X-ray and the fluoroscope; astronomical phenomena (the planetarium of the Deutsches Museum is one of the most famous, if not the most famous in the world); the applications of chemistry and physics. The most interesting thing about this museum is that there is no glass cases and no "Do not touch" signs. The visitor is permitted, in fact encouraged, to handle the various exhibits and learn "how it works." Thus one is permitted to enter a dark room and see his "skeleton" by means of a fluoroscope, one can study the effects of pulleys and inclined planes by the use of dynamometers, one can discover the effects of centripetal and centrifugal force by operating small water-wheels, and one can see various types of "perpetual motion" machines and try to discover wherein they are faulty.

The remainder of this article will be concerned with the mathematics section of the Deutsches Museum, and an application of one of the exhibits to the teaching of the Pythagorean theorem in algebra and geometry classes.

As one enters the mathematics section one is impressed by the orderly and systematic arrangement of the exhibits. In various niches there are busts of famous mathematicians of all nations, with a brief outline of their contributions to mathematics. Near the entrance is a display showing the origin of our Arabic number system. Then there is a long row of exhibits which describe the development of calculating machines from the abacus and Napier's rods to Pascal's adding machine and the modern electrically-driven calculating machines, such as the Mercedes, the Monroe Calculator and the Millionaire. The visitor is encouraged to make use of these machines. Many of these instruments have their outside coverings removed, which enables one to see how the machine really works. Boys of "Gymnasium" age (12 to 18) are especially interested in this exhibit.

The development of the Slide Rule is illustrated by more than thirty different types of slide rules, including Gunter's and Oughtred's simple rules, Roget's log-log rule, Thacher's Cylindrical Rule, Cox's Duplex Slide Rule, and the one used most often at the present time, the Mannheim Rule. A planimeter (an instrument which measures the area bounded by any closed curve) is found on a large glass-topped table. An irregular curve is drawn under the glass. The visitor merely follows this curve with a fixed point of the planimeter, and the area of the curve can be read on a scale at the time when the fixed point has returned to its original position. Various models of such figures as octahedrons, dodecahedrons, icosahedrons, paraboloids of revolution, spheroids, prismatoids, and even of four-dimensional bodies are exhibited, most of them made of wire. The theory of perspective is illustrated by concrete cases. The construction of the ellipse and the hyperbola, by the use of a piece of string and two nails, is described. A large cone is cut by various planes, and the sections formed are recognized as points, lines, circles, ellipses, parabolas and hyperbolas. There are many other exhibits in the mathematics section of the Deutsches Museum which I am omitting here. An entire volume could be written describing this section.

May I end this article by describing two proofs of the Pythagorean theorem which I found in the Deutsches Museum. The figures were made of steel, the stationary parts screwed down and the "folded" parts hinged to the stationary parts.

For the benefit of those readers who are not familiar with the name "Pythagorean Theorem," may I explain that it is the following: "The square on (or of) the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on (or of) the arms."

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FIRST PROOF.

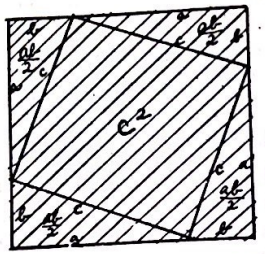

FIGURE 1.

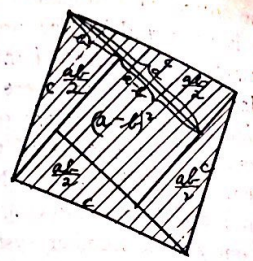

FIGURE 2.

SECOND PROOF.

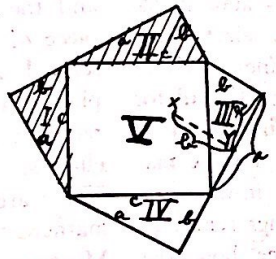

FIGURE 3.

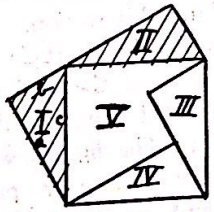

FIGURE 4.

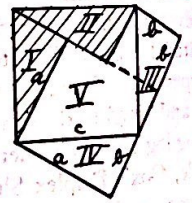

FIGURE 5.

FIRST PROOF

(See Figure 1.) The large square, with side (a+b) is equal to the inside square of area c^2, plus four right triangles, each of area $\frac{ab}{2}$

Thus, $(a+b)^2=c^2+4\left(\frac{ab}{2}\right)$

or $a^2+2ab+b^2=c^2+2ab$

or $a^2+b^2=2^2$.

It is advisable to cut out the large square, and fold the four triangles upon their hypotenuses.

SECOND PROOF

Cut out the entire figure (Figure 3), and fold the four right triangles over their hypotenuses. Notice that all the triangles are congruent right triangles. Shade triangles I and II on both sides. Draw YX parallel and equal to arm *b* of triangle III, and *b* distance away from this same arm *b*. Then proceed in the following order:

1. Adjust the parts as in Figure 4. Triangles I and II are left in the same positions as in figure 3, but III is folded to the left and IV is folded up. V, III and IV form a square which is not shaded, the area of which is c^2.

2. If we fold III towards the right, and I towards the right, the area of the unshaded part will not change. (We add and subtract equal triangles.)

3. If we fold IV down and II down, the area of the unshaded part will not change. (We add and subtract equal triangles.) Figure 5 is the new position of the parts.

We have transformed the original c^2 (Step 1) into two squares, a^2 and b^2.

Therefore $a^2+b^2=c^2$.

The actual manipulation of the figures is very simple, much simpler than any verbal explanation can be. It is advisable to have a copy of Figure 1 and of Figure 3 for every student. This can be done by coöperating with a mechanical drawing class (as I did), or by one class cutting out the figures. The models can then be distributed when the Pythagorean Theorem is studied, and returned at the end of the demonstration. Students in second term algebra and second term geometry would benefit greatly by this experiment. In the algebra course the students will see that the formula which they use blindly, $c^2=a^2+b^2$, is really a valid formula. In the geometry course the students will be given a practical justification of the truth of the Pythagorean Theorem.

The proofs given in most text-books are two in number. The first proof is by the use of projections and mean proportions. This demonstration does not seem to have any connection with areas, and to most students is merely the manipulation of algebraic symbols. The second is a proof by the use of areas. This is admittedly one of the most difficult proofs in the entire geometry course, and one which even the brightest pupils find hard to grasp. The proofs explained in this article are easily understood by all students. The first proof *(Figure 1)* can be transformed easily into a perfectly valid geometrical proof. The second proof *(Figures 3, 4 and 5)* is more a matter of intuitive than of demonstrative geometry. The time spent on the Pythagorean Theorem is not wasted, for it is one of the most useful in all mathematics.

IRWIN M. ROTHMAN.
Townsend Harris High School.

Making Ruskin Go a Long Way

The study of "Sesame and Lilies," especially of "Lilies," is a fine springboard from which to dive into the discussion of modern problems. Ruskin,

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speaking seventy years ago to a group of British working men, may express the opinion, common enough at the time, that a woman's place is near the oven, so to speak. Off go a dozen sixteen-year-old girls, wildly calling attention to the fact that times have changed.

Cases are mentioned of women today, who not only manage well-ordered households, but who have time for valuable public service outside the home. Or it may be that the famous woman is single and devotes all of her time to the good of the community, a case with no parallel at all in Ruskin's plan.

Finally, it seems best to collect, arrange, and submit evidence that the modern woman is not just a loving echo of her lord. From a prepared list each girl selects the name of a living American woman of importance in the affairs of the world. To gather material the girl consults the library card catalogue, "Who's Who?", and the "The Reader's Guide." From the first she finds a book or two about her subject, from the second, an outline of the woman's life and work; from the third, the latest magazine contributions to the story of her heroine.

After collecting, sorting, and arranging the material, the student prepares at home a two-hundred-word theme, setting forth the accomplishment of this modern American woman. In class, without notes, she makes the final draft of the paper and submits it as a sample of her own success in research and composition. After the work has been corrected and revised, the author uses it for oral presentation, for her "two-minute speech." If, in her search, she has found, in papers and magazines, pictures which she was at liberty to take, she has mounted them on sheets of theme paper and now exhibits them as she reads.

We pretend that we are conducting the regular meeting of the East Grapefruit Woman's Club. Mrs. Whosit is to read her paper before the assembled ladies. With the perfect poise of a well bred woman who knows she has the most becoming gown in the room, Mrs. Whosit rises, makes her way to the speaker's stand, looks her fellow club members kindly, but firmly, in the eyes, and makes even the lady in the next most becoming gown listen with interest. At the close of the reading, the author graciously resumes her seat. This game tends to prevent the embarrassed shrug and the funny faces the girl is likely to make when she hears her name called, and the childish expressions of relief as soon as she has read the last word.

And so, from the original text we get the study of a classic, public discussion, practice in the use of reference guides, in the gathering and arranging of material, in writing, in revision, and in presenting the completed work orally before an interested audience. Perhaps we even acquire an ideal for vicarious living as we go through our list from Addams to Wald. Who knows? Each operation has differed so much from the others that the subject has not been too bor-

ing. When the collection of sketches is complete, a committee gathers, assembles, and binds them, with the illustrations and with the decorative cover which an artistic member has prepared. We call our volume "A Project in American Womanhood" and place on the cover a picture of Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, a successful wife, mother, housekeeper, and woman of affairs.

MABEL F. BROOKS.

Julia Richman High School.

Closing Entries in Bookkeeping I

More than any other one topic in first-term bookkeeping, that of closing the temporary capital accounts is by far the most difficult for the pupil to master. Logical as the teacher may be in the presentation of the matter, it always reminds one of white mice in a maze as the pupils grope their way through the intricacies of the procedure. The pupil endowed with a good memory for sequences learns by rote which accounts are closed into which. As to the others, every first-term bookkeeping teacher knows the almost chaotic condition which exists for weeks, until the matter becomes clear.

That teaching is economical and hygienic which achieves the maximum results with the least expenditure of psycho-physical energy on the part of both teacher and pupil. It may, therefore, be necessary, at times, for the sake of economy and hygiene in both teaching and learning to sacrifice logical sequence in favor of psychological. With this in mind the writer attempted this term to reverse the order of sequence in the teaching of closing entries—that is, the profit and loss statement was developed first (in the form of arithmetic, then in statement form) and then, using the statement as a guide, the closing entries were developed.

The following procedure was used:

All transactions for the period having been recorded, the question arose as to how much profit, if any, the proprietor had made on the sales recorded for the period. This led to the question of cost of goods sold. Where to find this information? The figures in the merchandise stock account must be modified by the goods still on hand. Once the cost of goods sold is obtained the profit on sales is just a matter of subtraction. In order that the arithmetic may be meaningful, it is suggested that each figure be labeled—this done, the profit and loss statement takes form. From the gross profit on sales it is soon seen that the cost of doing business must be deducted to arrive at the actual or net profit. After this arithmetic step is finished it is again suggested that the items be given names. When this is accomplished the profit and loss statement is completed.

The profit and loss statement before the pupils, they are asked to refer back to the accounts from which all the information on the statement was gathered. A comparison is made of the figures on the statement with those in the accounts. Which items appear on the one and not in the others? Should these items appear in

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the accounts? Which? Where? The reason that cost of goods sold was not recorded in the merchandise account at the time of the sale is that the amount was unknown—being known now, the entry may be made. But, as that figure was already included in the sales income, it must be transferred from that account to the merchandise account, leaving as a balance in the sales income account the profit part of the original entries in that account. The pupils here subtract the debit from the credit pencil footings to check the difference, or gross profit, with the one found on the profit and loss statement.

Although this profit is an increase in capital, it is seen, by a glance at the profit and loss statement, that it isn't the net increase and, therefore, can't be transferred to the capital account directly. This gives rise to the need for another temporary capital account, the profit and loss account, which is now opened and to which is transferred the gross profit. A further study of the profit and loss statement shows that the asset "supplies and services" has also decreased during the period. This fact is now recorded in both the asset account and the profit and loss account. If the question of depreciation has also entered into the profit and loss statement, the asset account in question is now credited and the profit and loss account debited.

At this point reference is again made to the statement where the net profit is now found. The question arises as to where it should be found in the ledger and the balance of the profit and loss account is taken. This amount is then transferred to the capital account. Of course, if there is a proprietor's personal account on the books, the procedure is modified to take this into account.

The student has been working, step by step, from a plan and has seen, from the plan, a reason for each entry in the accounts.

This method of teaching closings may be objected to by some on the grounds that it is not entirely logical —that adjustment entries are, or may become, confused with closing entries. That may be true, but it must be remembered that it is a question of getting first-term bookkeeping students to work through some extremely intricate mental gymnastics. If this can be done with more facility by way of the profit and loss statement, which itself must be taught and can thus be taught by way of simple arithmetic, considerable floundering may be avoided and much effort may be saved by all concerned.

ADOLPH KLEIN.

Haaren High School.

A Special Course for Repeaters in Algebra

PRELIMINARY COMMUNICATION ON THE REHABILITATION OF THE FAILING STUDENT

I wish to describe here an experiment in the rehabilitation of the failing student in elementary algebra which was carried out in Flushing High School during the Spring term of 1933. At the beginning of the term all the students in the departments who had failed the first term of elementary algebra in the previous term were assigned to me. These 90 students were divided into four classes, consisting of students who had failed in the previous term with an average of 40% or more, together with ten students who had failed with less than 40%.

As a result of considerable study of failing students, I had concluded that a great number of the failures was not due to a lack of native intelligence, but to various extraneous factors. These will be discussed in a later article. It was my purpose in the experiment outlined below to rehabilitate these students.

The very first day the pupils met, they were told that they were in a "special" class. A special syllabus would be followed, and that by means of this syllabus, they would be able to cover the entire year's work in one term. They were told that as a result of previous experience, I was positive that they had more than enough intelligence to accomplish this work, and that it would not be necessary to do any more home-work in this class than would be expected in any other class, namely three-quarters of an hour per day. Two fifteen-minute examinations based on the work of the week would be given each week and on the basis of these examinations, those students who at the end of the term showed sufficient knowledge of the first year elementary algebra, would be allowed to take the Regents' Examination. The effect was electrical. The students worked earnestly and conscientiously every minute of the term. At the very beginning some students grasped the spirit of the work and did very well on the quizzes mentioned. A great number, however, lagged behind, and these slower students were somewhat of a source of worry to me. I feared that something was amiss, although at no time were the students permitted to sense my fears. They were continually being encouraged and stimulated, and praise was sympathetically given. I had faith that careful teaching, sufficient examinations, and proper encouragement would ultimately yield beneficial results.

In the first two months, we finished the first term's work at which time the department gave its regular mid-term examination. I divided the students into two groups. The first group comprised all students whose average on class quizzes was 65% or over. They were instructed to take a special mid-term examination which covered the work of the entire regular first term. The second group took the regular mid-term examination that was given to the ordinary first term algebra classes. Sixty-three students took the special examination. Fifty-one passed. Twenty-seven took the regular examination. Ten passed.

At this point I divided the classes into two sections. The first consisted of those who passed the special examination and also those who received high grades in the regular examination. These were permitted to take up the second term algebra work during the second half of the term. The others

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were put into the second section. This group reviewed the first term's work during this same period. As a result I found myself teaching two classes in the same room at the same time. When this method of procedure was first suggested to me by one of the other teachers of the Flushing High School, I considered it impossible. I adopted it reluctantly. However, to my great astonishment I found it quite simple to execute. Two assignments were given each day. Most of the teaching was spent with the advanced group, since I had to explain the new work to them. The poorer group reviewed the work along the same topics that they had studied at the beginning of the term. A problem was suggested to them either by one of their own members or by me. I always found that several of the group could do the problem. One of these was sent to the blackboard; the others doubled up and worked with each other on the problem. Only rarely did I have to do direct teaching, and when I did the advanced group was assigned to work on a problem. In this way, the slower group covered the entire syllabus for the second time. While this section was working among themselves under my supervision, the advanced students received the greater portion of my attention. Class quizzes were given to both sections twice weekly. The students were carefully observed and individuals were constantly being shifted from the advanced group to the review group. This was done on the basis of the examinations, and after the students themselves recognized and willingly consented to the necessity of the shift.

These were the results: At the end of the term, fifty-four students took the Regents' Examination. Thirty-nine passed. Although fifteen failed the Regents' Examination, they were given credit for the first term of algebra because thay all had passed the special mid-term examination which was equivalent to a final first term examination. Thirty-six students took the regular Mathematics 1 final. Twenty-six passed. Ten failed. Of the ninety students, therefore, 39 passed two terms of algebra, 38 passed one term of algebra, and 13 failed. The percentage of failures was only 14.4% which is abnormally low for repeating classes. At the same time, almost half of the students made up their failures.

Aside from the economy of time and money involved, the plan more than justified itself. The students developed genuine confidence in their ability to work and succeed. The students entered the course with a revived spirit, and I believe that this effect is of inestimable value and is worth all the time and effort expended.

A careful statistical investigation of the intelligence quotients of the repeating students as compared to intelligence quotients of Flushing High Graduates is now being made. A thorough psychologic and psychiatric investigation of individual cases and factors leading to failure is being made in conjunction with a well-known psychiatrist. The results of these two studies as well as a more detailed description of the syllabus used will be given in a further contribution.

RESULTS AT END OF MID-TERM

Failed regular examination	17
Passed regular examination	10
Failed special examination	12
Passed special examination	51

RESULTS AT END OF TERM

Failed Algebra I	13
Passed Algebra I	23
Passed Algebra I, but failed Regents' test	15
Passed Regents' test	39

SAMUEL C. GREENFIELD.
Erasmus Hall High School.

Glamour
An Indispensable Stimulant in Language Teaching

We adults enjoy a change of setting in one of the three or four acts of a play, the addition of a beautiful architectural structure in our neighborhood, or even a rearrangement of the furniture in our homes. Children are still fonder of novelty than grown-ups since they are too young to understand the philosophy of the steadiness of things that must stay in their place indefinitely because they cannot be changed. Why not exploit this eagerness and joy with which they receive newness?

Imagine the relief and enjoyment in showing a class your set of hand-painted Spanish fans after a few days of dry and unmotional grammar or vocabulary drill. I have a goodly number of them which show a colorful variety of the famous "patios" or courtyards of Seville: those of the famous residences of the nobles, the house of Santa Teresa, the Alcázar, the house of Pilate. The Puerto Rican fans show a remarkable blend of gaiety and industry. Their decorations consist of magnificent public buildings, such as the "Ateneo," the insular Capitol, the public schools, churches, St. Catherine's palace or the governor's residence, built during the reign of Isabel Segunda. One of them has the picture of a sugarmill surrounded by glorious Puerto Rican landscape in brilliant bloom.

One day my pupils found the blackboards covered with posters picturing the bullfight in Spain. One of them showed the crowds carrying "Bombita" on their shoulders on the occasion of his retirement. That day we had a most interesting lesson on bullfighting, Spain's traditional sport.

Work of this type can be done on the unassigned day, sanctioned by school directors. Many teachers use even their unassigned day for grammar drill or a difficult test. There are some who don't believe in special work because they feel it spoils discipline or that which they conceive to be discipline. They are upset by the interjections, laughter, or apparent restlessness of their pupils, calling it poor discipline. I do not think it is poor discipline, but emotional outburst. They may be boisterous for a while, but that happens occasionally in every classroom, even without the strong appeal of your visual didactic material or without excuse and without any fruitful results. After the noise caused by

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the first impression, it is easy to secure attention and develop a real chat between teacher and pupils, even if the teacher only answers questions. There are some who might think their questions silly, forgetting difference in age and maturity of thought and mind.

Another thing of strong appeal is the theatre program of Spanish functions. After I attend them, I bring to the classroom enough copies for distribution in my class. They enjoy reading them and asking questions about the performance and the place. I learned more French and Italian that way than in several chapters from the text-books. Later they paste them in their scrap-books which, by the way, always hold a great thrill for me when I collect them for the exhibit held at the end of the term. You find they have gathered the most fascinating and curious illustrative material that even you yourself, perhaps, may never be able to find.

When I spoke to the Pan American Club of our school on Puerto Rico, they were particularly interested in the University of Puerto Rico, and having finished my brief talk they requested me to give them more information. I think this request was motivated by the way I described the island, telling them that Puerto Rico is the ideal point for the contact of the two civilizations and consequently the logical spot for the much dreamt of Pan American University, where students of both continents might interchange culture. Puerto Rico, a bilingual country, is the hand clasp of the Americas or their "wedding trousseau," as Chocano (a Peruvian), the "Prince of American poetry," called it. This appealed to them.

There are many who wonder about the superiority of most European actors. It is not that they are better, but the glamour they convey on their appearances before our audiences renders them superior. La Argentina, the great dancer, and Escudero, the Spanish gypsy, pack their houses by irresistible attraction of their glamour. There are, however, American dancers who are just as good.

American youth loves glamour, especially because of his love for travel. Imagine the thrill of our youngsters when we tell them and show graphically the great wonders of the 22 Spanish-speaking countries in the past, in the present and in the future. The forest of columns of the Mosque in Córdoba, the altitude of Lake Titicaca, the spring of blood, the regattas in Santander, a game of "jai-alai" in Havana, the gypsy cave life in Granada opposite the Alhambra, the Escorial, the pictures of Velásquez and Goya, the "verbenas," the oldest university in America, that of St. Mark in Lima, the Roman ruins in Spain, the Moorish palaces and gardens of Adalusia, the comedies of the Quintero brothers and the drama of Benavente, the Spanish cathedrals, the la Cierva autogiro, the music of Albéñiz and of Manuel de Falla. There are hundreds of outstanding and typical things that can be mentioned in the form of "instantaneas" or snapshots, as I call them, without sacrificing time for the technical part of language teaching. Giving merely the names of these things in Spanish is language teaching in itself.

I have had many cases of students who had given up all hopes of accomplishing anything in their study of Spanish and who intended to drop it at the end of the term. Not to tire my readers, I am going to mention only one case of a remarkable "come back." One of my first-term students tried to justify his negligence in his Spanish work by telling me that he did not see the reason for the foreign language course in the high school curriculum. In his case, for instance, he was interested in radio and he was going to make it his life "modus vivendi." Fine! I told him. Don't you know of the great market in the Spanish-speaking countries for radios of American manufacture? Besides, there is a demand for the radio "expert" everywhere in those countries. Since that day, he awoke from his indifference to Spanish and started bringing his homework. He made a beautiful Spanish cultural scrap-book which was exhibited with those of star pupils.

A very efficient teacher in one of our best high schools showed me the work of her "slow" pupils. A miniature replica of a bull-ring, a model of "Plus Ultra," the plane used by Soto y Franco in their transatlantic crossing (before Lindbergh's flight), a manuscript newspaper, cartoons, maps of several kinds, cross-word puzzles, and many other articles in connection with Spanish countries. The same teacher once brought the Spanish Club of her school to visit ours in order to have a social gathering and see our annual exhibit in the library. She was wearing a gorgeous Spanish shawl and high comb with flowers and spoke to the students in very simple Spanish which she made perfectly understandable with the aid of her gestures. She became the star of the day and my boys and girls said to one another with deep admiration: "Some teacher!" In fact, she is a great success in her school with "glamour" as her magic wand.

As students of English in Puerto Rico, we used to admire Miss Hall, our English teacher, because of her immaculate white dress, hat and gloves and her 100% English type. We thought she was ideal as an instructress in her subject and we discussed earnestly what we heard about her travels in China, Japan, the Philippines and Spain. One day we enjoyed seeing her in a street-car in Santurce reading "Don Quijote." On the following day the whole school learned about it.

Glamour is a great aid in language teaching. Dry-as-dust grammar drill, unimaginative "question-and-answer" practices, eternal translating of English sentences into the foreign language—these procedures too often constitute the unrelieved round of language routine. In the case of the student of Spanish, has he not the right to be introduced to the color and grace, the mystery and romance of which Spain and Spanish America are the world's treasure chest? The teacher of Spanish who does not avail himself of the glamour that inheres in the life and

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history of Spanish-speaking peoples is surely neglecting a powerful means of awakening and maintaining the interest of his pupils.

PEDRO CABALLERO.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

An Attitude of Positive Health

Throughout human experience man, generically, has had to pay costly for violating or disregarding nature's laws. These digressions from natural living, these departures from health led to ill-health. This became known as time went on as "disease." As disease became more prevalent through the increased complexity of heredity and environment the number of ailments multiplied rapidly. To combat this onslaught, fylfols, amuletic medicines and systems of treatment were born and continued to grow in proportion.

Religions early established the belief that prayers or sacrifices to appease a deity would result in divine healing. They gave us dances, masks, and rattles to frighten away the demons of disease. They gave us the idea that certain words, colors or numbers would ward off disease. They gave us numerous other forms of treatment for afflictions, real or imaginery. Not so long ago there existed a naïve faith in such amulets as amber, a swastika, a rabbit's foot, and a horseshoe as a protection. Relief was still sought, however, and we find mankind resorting to patent medicines, nostrums, and varied mechanical treatments of massage. This late day still finds many of us victims of the pseudo-scientific claims of high-pressure salesmen and copywriters. Are we not ever ready to adopt new chemical cure-alls, electrical panaceas and other forms of quackery for our various maladies?

To prove that these practices, nostrums or systems of treatment are valid or invalid is yet to be proved by current scientific thought. Reason determines truth: that in order to get and maintain maximum health we must follow obediently sound hygienic principles. Individuals ought to be imbued with a health conciousness to understand that the assurance for forestalling and preventing sickness and premature death is taking a complete periodic health examination. And if our audit detects any remedial disorders, then we ought to know that they are most easily corrected in the earlier stages by proper follow-up treatment. The school through its program is in a favorable position to play a significant rôle in accomplishing this attitude of *positive health*.

M. DONALD ADOLPH.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

An Evaluation of the Scope and Content of Introduction to Business

Within the last year or two all of our high schools have enlarged the scope of the Commercial Courses to include Introduction to Business. The subject is now being given to all Commercial students in their first year. This revision is highly commendable, in view of the fact that Bookkeeping is much more technical, and it naturally follows that the students being more mature, and having background in the fundamentals of business science, are better qualified to proceed with their recordative studies. Further, this course tends to serve as an exploratory course, since the pupil receives some indirect contact with bookkeeping work, and, should he so desire, he can continue with the more advanced studies. Our present laws permit boys and girls of seventeen who have secured positions to leave school at that age. Under the previous curriculum, a large proportion of these youngsters were compelled to begin their high school careers with Bookkeeping. Thus, if the student found it necessary to leave school after attending classes for a term or two, the commercial content which he did absorb was of extremely doubtful practical value. Invariably, their first positions were those of the office or messenger boy, a factory worker or possibly some junior selling occupation. One would have to stretch his imagination to conceive how a year's training in Bookkeeping could possibly be of any material help to these boys and girls starting out to earn a livelihood for themselves.

We must not conclude from the foregoing that the primary purpose of Elementary Business Training is vocational. Rather, it is an attempt to provide these students who complete the work with a satisfactory and useful knowledge of the basic elements and functions of business science as it relates to them in their economic and social relationships and associations with the community and the world in which they live. Our boys and girls will soon be leaving school; some will have dropped out, others will have graduated, a small percentage of the latter to continue further intensive and specialized study in college and professional schools. As educators, it is our duty to so help the present student body to do better those desirable things which they are likely to do in later life; to aid them in adjusting themselves to and preparing themselves for active participation in society.

No single subject suffered in the first year of secondary education is of more vitalizing and more practical value to the student, particularly to that individual who is to leave school after a term or two. He is acquiring knowledges, skills, attitudes and appreciations which are necessary for his everyday life. Let us suppose that John Doe is discharged from school after he has completed his second year. During this time he has had English, Science, Bookkeeping, Introduction to Business, a language or some other constant. It is immaterial what type of employment he secures. The point at issue is, Has his schooling thus far helped him to adjust himself to an actual and realistic world and if so, how? Will the boy or girl make any practical or appreciable utilization of any French, German, Latin or Spanish which he may have acquired? The science may be of some indirect help to him in his everyday life. The English content will prove beneficial since knowledge of the correct use of diction is fundamental. The scope and content of the material covered in the

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first year of Bookkeeping is too limited to warrant any practical and theoretical mastery of the subject to enable the student to become a bookkeeper. Introduction to Business, however, can and does help John Doe to do better those desirable things both vocationally and avocationally, which he finds that he must now do.

These remarks should not be construed as an attack upon our courses other than Introduction to Business, for indeed such an attitude would be inane. English, the Sciences, the modern languages all have their proper place in a well rounded program in attaining an abundance of "social goods" and in achieving our aims and objectives set forth by the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education."

The material which follows is an attempt to elaborate on the aims and objectives of Introduction to Business and to illustrate what we are attempting to do at the present time in order to help "develop in each individual the knowledges, skills, interests, ideals, habits and powers whereby he can find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society towards ever nobler ends." (Bulletin No. 35, Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Page 3.)

The tentative syllabus for our city (1931) has for its objectives the following:

1. To develop an appreciation for the functions of modern business and the interrelations between it and the world in which we live so that the pupil may better understand his own relations with business, regardless of his present or future activities.
2. To serve as a basic course for the study of business.
3. To develop proper attitudes, appreciations, habits and knowledges "through materials in themselves worth while."
4. To prepare pupils, who must leave school to enter business before completing their high school course, for work within the range of their capacities and abilities.
5. To serve as a means of educational and vocational guidance.

The primary purpose of this article is to enumerate, specify and elaborate on the material content of this course and the skills, habits, knowledges and powers which we hope to develop, with due consideration of the variability in the achievement qualities of the pupils. With the completion of the course the student will have an understanding of the following:

THE MEANING OF BUSINESS

1. What is meant by the term "business," its complexity and interdependence.
2. How human wants are satisfied by business agencies.

COMMUNICATION

A. *The Telephone*

1. How to place or dial a call.
2. How to use the various types of telephones and services.
3. How to speak properly over the telephone and take memos or messages.
4. How and when to make long distance calls, person to person, station to station, appointment, or messenger calls.
5. How to verify telephone costs.
6. How and when to make emergency calls.
7. How to use the telephone directory.

B. *The Telegram, Radiogram and Cable*

1. When the telegram is to be used.
2. How to properly prepare and forward a telegram.
3. How to select the most economical service.
4. How to send a telegram by telephone.
5. How to forward money by telegram.
6. How to use code and its possible application in every-day life.
7. How to determine the cost of a telegram.
8. How and when to use the special forms for special occasions.
9. How and when to forward messages by cable, radio or wireless.

C. *Letter Writing and the Mails*

1. How to properly prepare a letter emphasizing appearance, neatness, arrangement, correctness and plan.
2. How to answer an advertisement.
3. How to fold and address a letter.
4. How and when to use the various classes of mail.
5. How and when to make use of such special services as special delivery, air mail, registration, insurance, special handling, C.O.D., money orders and tracers.
6. How to determine mail costs.

D. *The Newspaper*

1. How to locate quickly what you wish to see.
2. Why newspapers are an important socializing factor.
3. How a news article is organized.
4. How to determine advertising costs.
5. Why editorials are brief and concise summaries of current news.
6. How a newspaper is organized.

E. *Recording and Filing*

1. Why efficient filing records are important.
2. How to readily file and locate material.
3. How to install an alphabetic, geographic, numerical or subjective filing system.
4. When to use a spindle, box, Shannon, visible or vertical file.
5. How to index properly.

THRIFT—SAVINGS—INVESTMENTS —INSURANCE

A. *Thrift*

1. How progress is to be achieved; by a combination of thrift, labor and good management.
2. How to construct a personal or family budget.
3. How to make pictorial graphic analyses of statistical data.

B. *Savings*

1. How "Money makes money, and the money that makes, makes more money."
2. How money serves merely as a medium of exchange and a con-

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venient way in which to express values.
3. How the government regulates the coinage and issue of money.
4. How checks, bank drafts, postal and express money orders serve as substitutes for money.
5. How to accumulate a reserve fund through systematic savings.
6. How to open a savings account, make deposits and withdrawals.
7. How to proceed with special club accounts, as, for example, Christmas Club account.
8. How Building and Loan associations operate.
9. How simple and compound interest is computed.
10. How the savings banks are regulated by State and Federal laws.

C. *Investments*

1. How to judge the qualities of a good investment, emphasizing safety, satisfactory income, salability and suitability.
2. How to distinguish speculation from investment.
3. How large corporations secure capital funds.
4. How to secure daily stock and bond quotations.
5. How the stock market and stock brokers operate.

D. *Insurance*

1. How insurance depends upon mortality tables, compound interest and chance.
2. How to fill out an application for insurance.
3. How one type of policy differs from another.
4. Why accident and health insurance are necessary in addition to life insurance.
5. How the 80% fire insurance clause operates.
6. How to present a claim for damage or loss.
7. How to obtain a loan of a life policy.

E. *Bank Services*

1. How the modern bank evolved.
2. How to use the facilities of the school bank.
3. How to use a checking account.
4. How to write a check properly.
5. How to endorse a check properly.
6. How to reconcile a bank statement.
7. How checks are cleared.
8. How the Federal Reserve System is organized.
9. How commercial banks extend loans and credits.
10. How to discount a note.
11. How a bank acts in the capacity of a trustee.
12. How to secure and use a certified or cashier's check.
13. How to bank by mail.

F. *Travel Information and Facilities*

1. How to plan an itinerery.
2. How to read a time table.
3. How to make reservations.
4. How and where to apply for travel information.
5. How to check baggage, secure insurance and purchase tickets.
6. How to determine the correct time in the different time belts.
7. How to reach the larger transportation terminals in the community.

G. *Organization for Management*

1. Why good management is necessary in the home, school and business.
2. Why the greater degree of specialization and coördination is required as the organization increases in size.
3. Why the manager of a large business is not necessarily the owner.
4. Why special buying, selling, recording and filing, financial and personnel departments are provided in the larger businesses.
5. How to map out a simple organization chart illustrating the delegation of duties and departmental division.

H. *Purchasing*

1. How to give due consideration to a proper combination of price, quality, terms and service in making a purchase.
2. How goods are ordered in a larger establishment—the necessary records.
3. How goods are received in a larger establishment—the necessary records.
4. How goods are stored in a larger establishment.
5. How to compile an inventory, both perpetual and physical.

I. *Selling*

1. Why each and everyone is a salesman, either of goods or services.
2. How to appreciate and analyze a good sale.
3. How salesmen are paid.
4. How to prepare sales slips, bills and statements.
5. How goods are marked for sale.
6. How trade and cash discounts are used.
7. How to use the different shipping facilities.
8. How to prepare a package for shipment.
9. How to use the "sight-draft" with bill of lading attached.
10. How to present a claim for merchandise damaged in transit.
11. How to trace merchandise lost in route.
12. How to send merchandise prepaid, collect or C.O.D.
13. What the mort important commercial abbreviations designate.

J. *Methods of Payment*

1. What the business man includes under the term "cash."
2. How the business man safeguards his receipts.
3. How to make change properly.
4. How credit can be built up with a business concern.
5. How to use the services of credit agencies.
6. Why it is advantageous to borrow from the bank in order to take advantage of discounts offered.
7. Why financial records are necessary.
8. How to prepare a promissory note, draft and trade acceptance.
9. How installment buying functions, its advantages and disadvantages.

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K. *Types of Business Ownership*

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the single proprietorship, partnership and corporation.
2. How chain stores operate, and why they seem to be displacing the small retailer.
3. What are some of the outstanding legal characteristics of each type of business organization.

In addition, correct legible handwriting and mastery of arithmetic fundamentals are constantly stressed. Although complete perfection of all the knowledges, skills and appreciations is not required, since time permits of concentration on the most important only, nevertheless a student who has completed two terms of Business Training has acquired a sufficiently varied and valuable store of general business procedure which can be definitely applied to his personal affairs.

HERMAN DRUCKERMAN.
Jamaica High School.

Psychology in Shorthand

The teacher today has a very responsible duty to perform. To him is given the task of helping *each individual pupil* to develop to the best of his capacities.

To the teacher of shorthand, this implies having the pupil develop not only mechanical skill, but also desirable attitudes and tastes, initiative, appreciation, and an inquiring mind. Success in helping the pupils realize these objectives depends, I feel, to a great extent upon the teacher's knowledge and application of the principles of modern psychology.

How do some of these theories of psychology apply to the two phases of shorthand:

a. The skill-building phase.
b. The cultural phase.

Skill in shorthand implies:

a. The taking of dictation rapidly.
b. The transcription of the notes on the typewriter accurately.

In writing shorthand from dictation, it is necessary to have an *automatized, efficiently distributed attention.* The attention must be distributed over the following factors:

a. Selective listening.
b. Word carrying.
c. Writing of outlines.

Selective Listening

A girl coughs, some one enters the room, the orchestra practices, an airplane passes overhead, trucks go by,—but the dictator's voice continues. The pupil must be mentally deaf to all stimuli other than the dictator's voice. Not only must she hear the voice, but she must hear *every word* spoken.

Word Carrying

Have you ever tested pupils to determine just how many words they can retain verbatim at a time? The number is surprisingly small. To train the pupils to increase their word carrying powers is part of the shorthand skill-building process.

Writing of Words

In the advanced stage, most words are written as a result of kinesthetic memory. The words have been automatized. The aural stimulus results immediately in motor reaction. Naturally, the greater the automatized vocabulary, the greater the speed at which dictation is possible.

All words, however, are not automatized. Many have become almost habituated. There is almost instantaneous writing. Other words have been but imperfectly learned or have fallen into disuse, necessitating conscious recall. On the other hand, some of the words dictated are brand new. Then, while the muscles automatically write the familiar outlines, the entire attention is focused upon the building up of the unfamiliar outline through association, analogy, or application of rules.

Writing the notes, however, is but half the job. The notes must be transcribed accurately on the typewriter. This is a complex problem. At this stage, native intelligence, rich general background, and a developed language sense are valuable. Some of the factors involved in transcribing are:

a. Estimating the comparative amount of notes taken, in terms of finished typing.
b. Form, set up, indentation.
c. Typewriting thought represented by symbols.

Acquiring skill as a writer and transcriber of shorthand is not a simple matter.

Our thesis today, however, is especially concerned with the fact that acquiring skill in any subject is not sufficient. The subject must also have cultural value. To me, a subject has cultural value if, through the study of that subject, the pupil is prepared to function better in his social group. Has mathematic cultural value? Latin? Bookkeeping? Stenography? Our answer depends largely upon our faith in the theory of the transfer of learning.

Not so many years ago, our psychologists expressed implicit faith in formal discipline. Most European countries still do. With faith in that theory, it was easy to discourse at length on the many values to be derived from any subject. A short time ago, however, some of our eminent American psychologists maintained that the amount of transfer is extremely small.

Today the pendulum has swung back a bit, and most people agree that there can be transfer of learning if:

a. The elements in the situations are similar;
b. The elements in the responses are similar.

But saying that Latin helps English, and that biology helps in the study of chemistry because they have elements in common does not necessarily result.

The teacher must consciously plan his work so that these values may emerge. He must reveal to his pupils ways in which what he is learning can be used to advantage not only in his personal affairs, but also in his vocational activities. Therefore, the teacher must have clearly in mind what attitudes, ideals, tastes, and so forth, she wishes transferred, and these must be consciously dissociated from the immediate setting if they are to function in life situations. Many of the traits and attitudes which the

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shorthand teachers can achieve through deliberate planning are desirable and necessary.

It behooves the shorthand teacher therefore, to definitely make up his mind as to what cultural values he wishes to derive from the learning of his subject, and so to plan his teaching procedures and content that these values will materialize.

EMMA FELTER.
Walton High School.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Coöperative Tests for High Schools

Eighteen States now have coöperative testing programs for their high school pupils, it is pointed out by Dr. David Segel, specialist in tests and measurements, in a new Office of Education bulletin, "National and State Coöperative High School Testing Programs."

Increasing popularity of coöperative testing is due, Doctor Segel says, to the fact that "the work of the individual students in one school can be compared with the work of the students in all schools. This intimate comparison tends to bring about a better understanding of the achievement and ability of the pupils in a given area."

In addition to the State coöperative testing services there are six national testing programs. One of these national services, the College Board Entrance Examination, gave examinations to 19,929 high school pupils in 1932.

In some of the States even greater numbers of pupils take part in the coöperative testing programs. More than 190,000 examinations in 34 subjects were given to Minnesota high school pupils in 1932.

CHIEF REASONS FOR TESTING

The chief reasons for giving coöperative tests, Doctor Segel points out, are six:

1. Tests give scholastic endeavor attention such as "is centered on physical competition of various sorts between schools. Scholarships in colleges are often awarded to individual winners." Comparative results also serve to make the marking of pupils in high school more accurate.
2. Some of the examinations emphasize the applications of principles to the solution of problems rather than specific bits of facts which could be learned through force of memory. The result is a freeing of the teacher from too great dependence upon the textbook. The teacher naturally turns to the more general development of the thinking of his students since it is this power that is tested by the examinations.
3. For many years such tests have been used in determining admission of students to college.
4. Records of the growth of an individual over a comparatively long period of time will furnish a better means of predicting success in school or in different curriculums than we have hitherto had.
5. Coöperative tests aid in the supervision of high schools by State authorities.
6. Test results yield important data for research on problems of "different methods of instruction, different text-books, size of class, etc."

"All tests of subject matter," says Doctor Segel, "can be used for guidance, supervision, research, and motivation."

POSSIBLE IMPROVEMENTS

Improvements which can make the coöperative testing programs more efficient are suggested in the bulletin. Doctor Segel urges that "the application of principles of reasoning rather than factual knowledge," he introduced in more tests and that the tests be given early in a pupil's high school career rather than solely at the end. "Distribution of testing for each individual over a long period of time makes it possible to begin planning the post-high-school educational career," the author points out. He also suggests that care be used to make the tests for successive years comparable.

Two other desirable improvements are the equating of test programs "so that students transferring from one geographical area to another during their high school career would continue to have the benefit of wise counseling and direction," and that coöperative testing include, at least in its initial stages, all the pupils in the subject.

The bulletin gives thumb nail sketches of the coöperative testing programs in each State and also the six national programs.

Copies of "National and State Coöperative High School Testing Programs," Bulletin 1933, No. 9, may be obtained at 5 cents each from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

The Unit Plan in the Teaching of History: A Criticism

In recent years, quite a good deal has been written on the advantages of teaching history on the "unit plan." At the present time a committee of First Assistants in our high schools is at work on the revision of the American History syllabus, and it has accepted, tentatively, seven or eight units, which, in their opinion, will give the students an adequate conception and understanding of the development of our nation, so that they may be fully prepared to take their places as self-reliant and law-abiding citizens. It is claimed that when a unit of history is mastered, it will prove an adaptive step in the adjustment of the individual. It is also claimed that through the unit plan, historical movements can be studied in their entirety, and that such study will result in a better understanding of the present.

The writer has no quarrel with giving the pupils "a better understanding

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of the present," but is skeptical of the unit plan, as it is generally understood and practised, as the best means for producing such results. If the unit plan of study be pursued, as its ardent advocates desire, students are apt to see American History as a number of compartments, unrelated and distinct units, rather than as a story, where the interplay of many forces, political, economic, social, and spiritual, resulted in shaping life as it is. For instance, it is proposed that in the first term of American History we begin with the unit "Economic Development," later "Democratic Institutions," then "Foreign Relations," and so on, all studied from their early beginning to the present. Such study may result in giving pupils the impression that "labor" came first in our history, then "railroads," then "banking," then "immigration," then "political institutions," then "foreign relations," and so forth. If one of our chief aims in the study of history is to develop historic-mindedness, to secure a sense of growth and development of a civilization, we must see a nation "growing into bloom." We must see it unfold at convenient stages so that its progress may be noted.

History is the study of human beings —their thoughts and their works. Their past acts explain the present—the future is unknown. The best we can do is to note tendencies and movements, a knowledge of which may guide us to act in accordance with the best interests of society. But these tendencies can best be studied by understanding the life of the people in the past. A clear picture of conditions in the past is essential to an understanding of our present civilization.

The study of the history of a people is analogous to mountain climbing. As we go up the mountain side, the panorama becomes more interesting, and when we reach the top, the whole vista is viewed in all its splendor. The life of a people develops as time goes on, and this life is affected by many forces, operating simultaneously and constantly, with greater or less potency at each stage of development. Understanding the civilization at each stage of our history is preferable, we believe, to a thorough study of a unit from early times to the present. The unit plan fails to reach the interplay of these vital forces, which produce the complex connotation we call "life." Can one enjoy a novel or a play if he reads one actor's lines throughout the drama, then another's, and so on? All the beauty, emotion, and understanding is lost. Things and actions can best be appreciated in their appropriate setting. Thus to appreciate historical movements one must study them in the light of the times. To dissect a nation's life into its component parts is to lose its real significance.

If, instead, cross-sections of our civilization be studied, if our story be viewed at convenient stages, a true conception of our development will be attained. The following stages are proposed:

1. How We Became a Nation: A study of our Colonial heritage, our struggle for freedom, and the organization of our Constitution. Our state of civilization about 1790.
2. Our Struggle to Remain One: Our economic, social and political problems to about 1870. How far we have progressed since 1790! Comparisons should be made in all fields of our endeavor.
3. Our Great Industrial and Agricultural Development: With topic 2 for our background we can proceed along all lines of development through the World War. Our place among the nations is studied as a result of our economic expansion. Note our progress as a people! This section may be studied along the unit plan, if it is so desired, but we must keep constantly before the minds of our pupils all influences that operated in the resulting picture we wish to create.
4. Since the World War has influenced us so profoundly, since our economic, political and social life has undergone such marked changes, it is most essential to study this period since 1919. Our objective is an understanding of present-day life. What influences shape our thoughts and actions? Why do we think differently now about our economic and political situations? How far we have progressed since 1912!
5. Trends—Criticism: Ways of improving our social, political and economic conditions. This step may be used as a survey of our present civilization, noting tendencies for betterment.

The above procedure is advantageous to the learner. It does not delay to the end of his course, what his study is all about. At each stage he reviews the road he has travelled, and he notes progress. He sees life unfolding, civilization progressing, and so a better understanding and appreciation of our history results. I seriously question the need or the desirability of specializing in any one or several fields of our history in the secondary schools. This is college work.

LOUIS R. JAFFE.
New Utrecht High School.

School Receipts Down, Enrollment Up

The first study of small city school system finances just completed by the Federal Office of Education reveals that with a decrease in 1932 of nearly $34,000,000 in receipts for current expenses, and an increase of nearly 1,000,000 children in enrollment over the school year 1930, small city school systems face a major problem. Comparative data obtained in that study, issued in a pamphlet, "Small City School Systems, 1930-1932," by Lester B. Herlihy, is now off the press.

The small city school system is an important factor in our nation's educational structure, the investigator finds. He presents data to show that more than two-thirds of the school systems of the United States are in communities of less than 10,000.

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Not only do small school systems educate 20 per cent of all the city school children, but they accomplished this task last year at an average expenditure of $70.35 per pupil for total current expenses whereas the average in the larger cities is $104.17 per pupil.

Comparative data show that the "differences among the several sections of the United States in expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance for various educational functions are marked." In the Northeast section, representing all the New England States, the total current expenditures per pupil a year was $94.79. This was more than twice the sum spent per pupil in the Southern section, which includes Virginia, West Virginia, Georgia, North and South Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi, where the average dropped to $40.56.

This means that to keep a child in school costs in a small Northeastern community an average of 52 cents per day, and in the South 23 cents. The average per diem cost in schools in small cities for all sections of the country is 42 cents. More recent reports indicate that all these averages will be lower in 1933.

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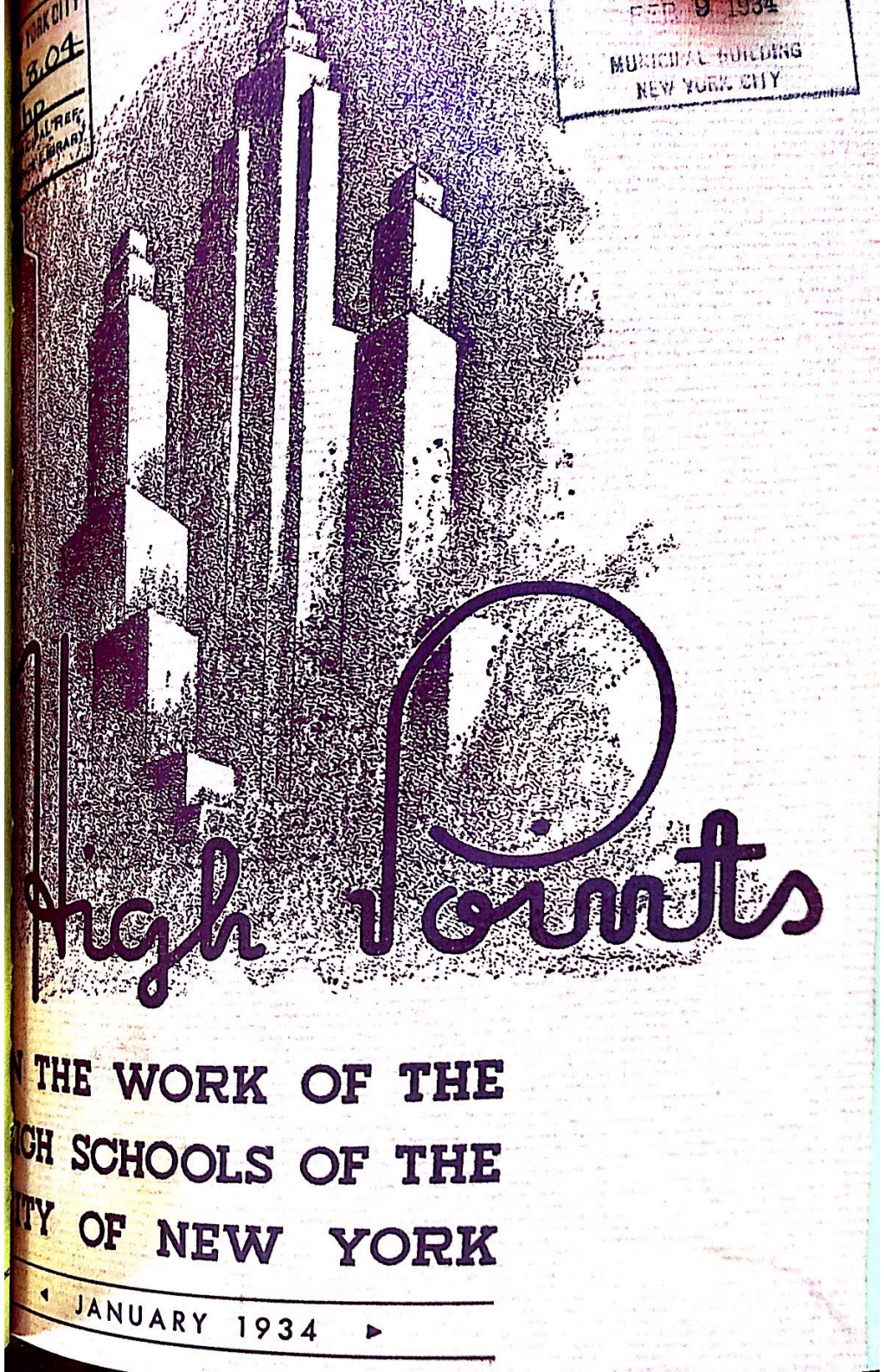

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I AM TOLD that I speak not only to the Conference on Current Problems but to colleges and universities throughout the country, many federations of women's clubs, almost two thousand organizations interested in education, public and private schools and State educational associations, numbering among their members many of the educational leaders of America. I mention this because I want to enlist your support in the fight we are making on the depression. When this fight is won, your problems will be solved. You can help your Government—Federal, State, and local—and we in Government want your help.

It is true, unfortunately, that the economic depression has left its serious mark not only on the science and practice of education but also on the very lives of many hundreds of thousands of children who are destined to become our future citizens.

Every one of us has sought to reduce the cost of government. Every one of us believes that the cost of government, especially of local government, can be reduced still further by good business methods and the elimination of the wrong kind of politics.

Nevertheless, with good business management and the doing away with extravagance and frills and the unnecessary elements of our educational practices, we must at the same time have the definite objective in every State and in every school district of restoring the useful functions of education at least to their predepression level.

We have today, for example, a large surplus of so-called qualified teachers—men and women who even if we had full prosperity would and probably should be unable to find work in the field of education. Even today we are turning out too many new teachers each year. That is just as much an economic waste as building steel rail plants far beyond the capacity of railroads to use steel rails. It goes without saying that we should have enough teachers and not a large excess supply. It goes also without saying that the quality of our teaching in almost every State of which I have knowledge can be definitely and distinctly raised. The main point is that we need to make infinitely better the average education which the average child now receives, and that, through this education, we will instill into the coming generation a realization of the part that the coming generation must play in working out what you have called "this crisis in history." This crisis can be met, but not in a day or a year, and education is a vital factor in the meeting of it.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT

Excerpt from his radio address of October 13, 1933, to the Third Annual Women's Conference on Current Problems, held in New York City.

THE RACKETEER AND THE SCHOOL

JONES came to my room that afternoon, brazen and defiant. In the morning, I had called on him to recite. His only response was, "What the hell for?" And a triumphant grin spread over his face. He had been congratulated by his fellow-students for having put the enemy to rout. His cup of happiness was full. He had nothing to fear from me. I was only the teacher. What I thought mattered not at all.

"Sit down, Jones," I said. "I want to talk to you." My tone was now gentle, almost conciliatory. I realized now that I would have to win him over before I could regain the respect of the class.

He sat down, said nothing, and seemed intent upon following the design of the wood grain in the desk.

I began: "I don't think you did yourself justice this morning, Jones. There was no reason for your acting as you did. Of course, I could have sent you to the disciplinarian. Perhaps I don't understand you——."

"Naw, I don't know. I'm just sick and tired of school. You're not a bad egg. But it's de same wid all youse teachers. Yuh understan', all right. Yuh know books an' things. But yuh don't know de guys. You're too high sassiety. I don' mean you in particular. But all de teachers. Howd'ya expect us ta loin anything from yuh? Yuh dress like Marys. Yuh talk like Marys. All yuh know is books. If dat's what edjication does to yuh, we don' wan' it. We wanna teacher what's a pal. We ain't ever found one like dat. All of 'em is on a high horse. Don' give a rap about de boys. We don' give a rap about dem either, see?

"Say, you're a new guy here. You're de only one what's ever spoke to me like dis. Wadda yuh say, wanna go down and meet de boys?"

"Sure," I said, "I'll go. But first, let's go out and have a soda."

He made a wry face, but came along willingly. We drank sodas and smoked most of the afternoon. I knew that it was unorthodox to smoke with one's students. This was a procedure never envisioned in the Teachers College where for six years I had been soaking up pedagogical lore. It was a bad headache after the night before my first class when I had been hugging the delightfully tormenting vision of myself dripping luscious gobs of knowledge at the feet of a hungry, clamoring class. When I met the boys that night, I learned more about pedagogy than I had in all the years of devoted grubbing among books. I realized that, henceforth, I must teach what I was and not what I knew. Or, rather, I could teach what I knew only by what I was to these roughnecks.

I discovered from the office files that they had been segregated in this group on the basis of intelligence

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tests. Their ratings were uniformly low. Intellectually, they represented the most inferior group with which we had to deal in the school system. A special course was being devised to give their limited capacities the fullest play. They had shown themselves unfit for the regular academic course and the new curriculum had been constructed to suit their needs.

But the real, vital problem, as I eventually came to see it, was an entirely different one. It was a social problem of vast and far-reaching significance. An overwhelmingly large percentage of these students came from the same social as well as intellectual class. Their backgrounds and environments were identical. They were recruited from the areas which the New York State Crime Commission Report of 1931 noted as having a particularly high juvenile delinquency rate. Potentially, they were gangsters, racketeers, petty thieves, and other such vermin which infest our modern society.

Within a week, I picked up two pairs of brass knuckles, five evil-looking knives, and one stiletto from among these students. I discovered later that many of the boys were themselves petty racketeers or had some friend or relative who was a racketeer. And the job of education here was to turn these young thugs into constructive, social-minded citizens! The task seemed futile. But Jones' words kept ringing in my ears: "Yuh gotta know de boys, how dey live. Yuh gotta like 'em. Dey gotta like yuh. De're a tough bunch. But yuh can git 'em. Udderwise, yuh can't loin 'em nuthin'."

I saw the problem. I thought I saw the correct approach. But I was afraid — afraid that by association with my students I might lose my dignity and hence my power over them. But, I reflected, it deserves a trial. The older, traditional, what seemed to them the holier-than-thou attitude had failed to touch these boys; had, in fact, aroused their hostility. And something had to be done to reclaim this almost irreclaimable tract of social wasteland. The menace was there. The Forces were already at work leavening this unsavory mess. If education could not rise to meet this challenge, for them it had no justification. In the realm of books, perhaps education had succeeded more or less indifferently. It did not matter too much. But here was a pressing need for social reconstruction. It had to be done immediately —and effectively. In this country we are spending approximately two and a half billion dollars on education annually. At the same time, the cost of crime has mounted to approximately ten billion dollars per year. In addition, the racketeer, whose ranks will eventually be swelled by some of these very boys, is taking an enormous toll in terms of human life and property. In 1928, the United States Government spent over one billion dollars to crush racketeering. Howard Ameli, United States Attorney for Eastern District, N. Y., recently estimated that between $200,000,000 and $600,000,000 is

levied on New York business by racketeering. Chicago pays the racketeer approximately $200,000,000; Philadelphia, $100,000,000; Detroit, $75,000,000; Los Angeles, $50,000,000; Cleveland, $25,000,000; Pittsburgh, $25,000,000. Hardly a city in this country is immune from racketeers. And the evil grows.

The repeal of Prohibition promises little relief, for, as Homer Cummings, United States Attorney General, and other qualified observers point out, the racketeer organizations, deprived of the loot of Prohibition, are turning elsewhere, and "muscling in" on territory hitherto untouched by their nefarious activities.

What does this mean to education? Briefly this. The embryo racketeer must be seized before he has had the opportunity to commit his first illegal act, or before his anti-social tendencies have crystallized into a way of life. When the juvenile delinquent comes before the courts, the die is virtually cast. Society can have its revenge. But the possibility of remoulding the underlying philosophy of the delinquent is slight. The school, owned and financed by society is the best hope of constructive benefit to society. Can it be done? How can it be done? I offer my suggestions.

After my first baptism under Jones' fire, I shed my professional manner. I came down to the level of the boys, timidly, it is true, as one steps into a cold bath; but I went in up to my neck, and I grew to like it. For months I virtually lived with those boys. I gave up all my spare time to them. We played pool together. They came to my home. I went to theirs. I met their parents, their priests, their girl-friends, their gang-leaders. I went to the garbage dumps in the dead of night, and watched them shoot rats, long-tailed, fierce, red-eyed rats, that came up out of the heaps, eyes blinking in the automobile headlights, and whiskers dripping with refuse. They "plugged" them with "lead", and we watched them die, clawing at the air. I refereed "grudge fights".

I learned their slang until I could speak it without any self-consciousness, I did everything with them but annoy the policeman on the beat. At times, when I sat alone, I reproached myself for this wallowing in the gutter. But I felt that there was only one way to get them out. And that was to get into the mire with them, and help them. It would not do for me to stand aside and preach as I had thought to do. I would have to be one of them, and then, through the affection they felt for me, lead them to something better. But, for the time, I must seek a common bond of understanding and sympathy, else I was lost, and so were they. Mohammed must come to the mountain. I went.

Living with these boys taught me much that I could not have learned otherwise. Without this knowledge, I was doomed to failure from the start. The first requirement in dealing with them is an intimate and sympathetic insight into their prob-

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lems and ways of life. They are, at present, a group apart, animated by thoughts and feelings equally as potent as those found among the "normal" groups. Essentially, they are neither good nor bad. I found no congenital saints or sinners among them. They are the victims of their environment, and must continue to be so until we either modify that environment, or direct the energies there generated into fields of social usefulness.

Forced in upon themselves by a society which does not understand them and refuses to deal with them as human beings, these boys form their own societies. Denied in most instances the benefits of a happy family life, they find play for their social instincts in the streets. The gang, the "club", is their social unit. It is a protective organization, held together by ties of hatred for society, the monster that denies them the right to live a free and healthful life. Within the confines of the gang, the spirit of revolt is bred. The boys become anti-everything—anti-school, anti-parent, anti-policeman. They have but one loyalty, a deep and profound one, to the gang leader. He is the King, embodying all that they admire. His word is law. He rules with a despotic hand, unchallenged. In him, the boys find expression for all their loyalties. A godless, lawless tribe, highly emotional, they find through him the means whereby their desires may be gratified.

Like all normal individuals, these boys are motivated by the same master-passions—money and power. Deprived of the lawful means of satisfying these impulses, they become opportunists, and "get it by hook or crook". The modern gangster and racketeer is the model for these youthful gangs. His daily activities are on the lips of the boys. They see him operate, and very frequently feel his influence in their own homes. They see him flout the law, grow wealthy and powerful, fix politicians and judges, lord it over the cop on the beat with impunity. Is it strange, then, that they ape him at every turn? He has what they want and cannot get. He waxes fat and prosperous through terrorism and extortion. No one disturbs him. Why not try it? One of the boys told me bluntly, when I asked him what he was going to do when he left school, "I'm gonna be a big-shot racketeer. My cousin cleaned up and got away wid it. So can I." A week later, his cousin was found in an automobile, his head riddled by bullets.

"Well," I asked him, showing him the paper, "still want to be a racketeer?"

"Sure," he answered, "why not? Dat's nuthin'. He just got a bad break. He wusn't smart."

The exaltation of the gangster by the movies is another important factor in the lives of these boys. They never miss a gangster picture. They forget nothing of what they see. And with remarkable fidelity, they carry over the habits, conversation, and tricks of the veteran racketeer into their own lives. I had a vivid demonstration of this fact when "Little Caesar", starring Edward G. Robinson, was being shown in the neighborhood. Sitting at my desk, I observed Dominick enter the room, flanked by six of the boys, leering arrogantly at me. They stood in front of my desk, their bulging hip-pockets pointed at me.

"De boys wants tuh see yuh on business," drawled the spokesman. They all laughed. "Ain't dat great stuff?" beamed Dominick. "We seen it last night in 'Little Caesar'. Dat's a swell pitcher. Y'oughta see it."

For weeks after that I noticed many of the boys sidle into the room, and poke imaginary revolvers into each other's spines, meanwhile muttering, "Stick 'em up. De boys wants tuh see yuh."

Having neither the facilities nor the connections with which to enter upon big-time racketeering, they start modestly. They are willing to sacrifice the present for the future. A favorite form of this petty racketeering is to be found in most big cities, especially in the theatrical districts at theatre time. "Take care o' yer car, mister?" the boy asks, very solicitously. Bitter experience has taught most motorists that they had better have their cars "taken care of" willy-nilly. Some independent souls have refused these generous offers, and sent the care-taker away without paying him for his proferred services, only to find their tires slashed, or their headlights broken. In San Francisco recently a group of youngsters hit upon a novel plan of securing the desperately needed revenue. They solicited the housewives in the neighborhood, offering to keep their lawns clean for five cents a week. Many housewives were taken by the scheme very glibly expounded by the spokesman of the gang. But one stubborn woman insisted that she could care for her own lawn, and bade them a very brusque good-day. The next morning, this staunch defender of individual rights found her neat little lawn littered with broken bottles, sticks, and various other refuse. The final gesture was expressed in the form of rotten eggs spattered all over the house.

The activities of the gangs are not confined merely to organized thievery. The restless energy of these boys finds its expression in other forms. I have before me a confession written by one of the younger boys, a little colored fellow, whom I came to know very intimately. I cured him of a very embarrassing stammer, and so gained his confidence and friendship. His account is a fair one. There is no exaggeration in it. With the exception of a few stray remarks, it is notably lacking in contriteness. A year later, he had virtually reformed. He moved from the neighborhood, and thus broke the hold the gang had exerted over him. The story, as quoted, is entirely in his own words. I have deleted only irrelevant and unimportant passages.

"About five years ago, when I was living in ——— Street, I became acquainted with boys on that block, Italian and colored. It was in the

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paper not very long ago that the —— Street gang was the toughest gang in ———. We used to go out stealing, and if the man came, would not run. When he came close enough, all of us would jump on him. If we were standing on a corner talking, and a cop would tell us to move on, we would get about five feet away and call him names. . . . I would be told to stay out of gangs like that, but would not listen. We would keep soda crates, bricks, and bottles on the roof in case of emergency. One night we were walking around looking for trouble. We saw five fellows standing on the corner of ——— Street. We walked over to them and for no reason at all, beat them. About two minutes later, other fellows were coming from everywhere. We started to run toward ——— Street. When we reached there, we threw bottles, bricks and those heavy crates off the roof. Then we came off with those heavy long sticks and iron pipes. I ran down a cellar and looked out of a window and saw everything. All of that happened in about fifteen minutes. Then the cops came. Some of the boys did not go home that night. Some were taken to the hospital.

"Last year, we went to a Public Bath on ——— Street and ——— Avenue. Some of the boys must have remembered us and started an argument, and then a fight. My cousin was knocked out and I was hit over the head with a stick. . . . Little by little, our gang was growing smaller. Some boys' mothers took them away, and some are still in jail. Three are injured for life. Our gang was known by all other block gangs. About five months ago, some boys who are between 18 and 23, went uptown to a dance. After it was over, some of the uptown boys started to bother some of the girls. The boys didn't like it, and told them to leave them alone. They kept on teasing the girls. One of our boys hit one of the uptown boys. Then a fight started. Two uptown boys were shot. One died a week later. All were carried to the police station. Three of these girls go to this school now in the morning session. One boy is serving time now. . . . Three Sundays ago in a crap game on the roof, one boy drew a knife on another guy because he was losing. The other boy would have shot him, only we stopped him." . . .

As these facts, and some almost verging on the horrible, came to my attention, I began to see my course clearly. I could reach my boys only through my genuine sympathy for them. Down-trodden, brow-beaten by their other teachers, suffering from a depressing sense of inferiority acquired as a result of constant failure to master a highly literary curriculum, the very word "teacher" was anathema to them. I saw that I would have to abdicate my rôle as teacher, and teach them only when they did not know they were being taught—behind their backs, so to speak.

I set myself the task of being taken into the inner sanctum of the gang. The obstacles in my way were appalling. But unless I became "one of the boys," I might just as well give up before I started. More, I must become to them the gang-leader, the symbol of all they desired. For only in this way could I ever hope to show them that it was possible to possess all the virtues of the gang leader and still be something different and more desirable to oneself and one's fellowmen. There was everything in these boys to make them actively useful citizens. They were loyal, brave, adventurous, romantic, coöperative when the cause seemed to their advantage. They were so different from the normal adolescent. They merely lacked guidance, a point around which to rally their turbulent, half-formed, generous thoughts and hopes. Their present perversion did not mean, as it has so frequently been interpreted, that they were lost souls destined for the hangman's noose. They were being carried away by forces quite beyond their control. They needed a new gang leader. It was a question of becoming their leader or else consigning myself to look helplessly on this tragic waste of young manhood while I ground syntax and "cultchah" into my other unwilling victims. I was the man for the job, or I wasn't worth my salt.

I was not sure that I had succeeded until the following incident occurred. I was standing in the hall of the school, talking with my principal. Two of my boys approached us, and giving the Fascisti salute, greeted me airily, "Hi, pal." The principal was astounded. I was confusedly happy. I had gained my first and most important point. I was their "pal." From subterranean sources, I soon learned that they spoke of me as a "swell guy," "a good egg," "a good sport," "one of the boys," "the boss." One of the more virile boys expressed his unqualified approval of me as follows: "He'd make a swell racketeer." I accepted the dubious honor for what it was worth—the highest form of commendation he could bestow on me. The enemy was mine. Now, to surround them and take them into camp!

Secure in the thought that I had become their leader or "boss," I mapped my campaign. The essential point now was to get them to practice and respect those virtues which they had hitherto derided and despised. My first step was to convince them that education was not an imposition upon them, but a boon that society granted them gratis. The classroom was a coöperative venture in which they and the teacher were engaged. The teacher was not set there to bully them, or to make them conform to disagreeable rules. He was a guide, a helpful companion, not less human than they, but possessed of abilities which they could call upon to help them understand and conquer their environment. I had no difficulty here. By now, they believed me implicitly. Was I not the "boss"?

Together, in class, we determined upon our objectives, and solemnly bound ourselves to carry them out. The class elected its officers, who drew up a code of ethical regulations which was ratified by every member.

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I drafted it into English; it was signed by the officers and mimeographed copies distributed to every member of the class. For one and a half years (the time I had the class to myself), this code was enforced. Woe betide the offender! He was dealt with summarily—not by me nor by the disciplinarian, but by his own fellow-students. And a more rugged, more undeviating sense of justice I have never seen. At times, I stepped in to relieve some of the harshness which was occasionally visited on the culprit. I recall the boy who was tried in class by a jury of his peers for having thrown an eraser which narrowly missed me as I entered the room. His attorney pleaded that the boy had not meant to throw the eraser at me. To no avail—he had thrown an eraser. The code classified that as one of the seven deadly sins. He must bring his father and mother to school the next day. The boy broke down and wept. His father was working and so was his mother. They'd "beat the hide off him" if they had to lose a day's pay because of his rowdiness. The jury was unrelenting. He had sinned—he must suffer. I finally prevailed upon them to temper this primitive justice with mercy, and read them, not incongruously, Portia's speech on the "Quality of Mercy."

Jones, my arch foe in the beginning, had now become my "district leader," whipping (literally at times) the recalcitrants into line. He had grown more social-minded than some of the more docile students. He was an active organizer in the interests of class harmony and efficiency. As his responsibilities grew, he became more sober and thoughtful. He once said to me, "Y'know, our class is like life. Y'can't do what y'damn please. Y'gotta sac'fice something. Everybody's gotta sac'fice. Dat's de only way to git along in dis life."

In his simple, unliterary way, he was expressing all that I had tried to achieve through this democratic organization of the classroom. These students, a wild, lawless group, were beginning to realize the value and desirability of some sort of law and order. They were sensing the chaos that grows out of individual caprice unrestrained by the feeling of social responsibility. In a dim, vague way, they were beginning to see that freedom does not mean the exaltation of the individual desire over the social good, but, in fact, leads to neither. The classroom was here furnishing a valuable antidote to the "might is right" and "dog eat dog" philosophy which dominates their social and economic life. The light of love and logic was penetrating into these depths at last.

The extent to which this concept spread throughout the class was vividly brought home to me one day when one of the dullest students in the class handed me a manuscript. He was a shy, sweet little Pole. We had just finished reading a book of narrative poems. Yes, by this time I was able to read poetry to them without feeling that I was secretly laughed at or branded as a "sissy." The king could do no wrong. And if I thought poetry was the thing for them, well, poetry it was. Chester had been insistently curious about how poetry was written. Some of the poems, like Alfred Noyes' "The Highwayman," had moved him very deeply. He wanted to write poetry. I tried to help him, but gave up. A month later he handed me the following poem which I quote, not for its literary merits, but because it reveals the poignant gropings of his perturbed soul with a thought too great for his poor powers.

"Dunt ridd it to class," he begged. "De boyss leff wen dey know I write potry. It's fur yuh."

IN OUR CLASSROOM

We have a good teacher by name of
  Mr. ——
Which teaches all his pupils in the
  class;
What is evil and what is bad—
  Not to do it in company or in any
  other class.

Our teacher teaches us
  How to respect each other,
As if it was our true brother;
  To be pals with each other.

We all share hand in hand,
  To make it easier for ourselves to
  understand,
What is the subject all about—
  Maybe we will need it in our
  future life.

We all have a good time
  Which cannot be seen in our
  dreams—
But it can be seen in our mind,
  In all different kind of means.

We next embarked on a course in social procedure. We were to study and practice good manners. Most of these students were about as well-manners as the proverbial bear with a sore ear. Feeling themselves a group apart, they rationalized their inferiority into a contempt of all the social amenities. To them, there was no more indelible stigma than the possession of good manners. That was too much like "sassiety," not enough like the gutter-life they led. And since society represented to them a huge hostile force which they must forever battle, it was no easy matter to get them to see that they were sacrificing nothing and gaining much by learning how to act in public. Within a short time, they were won over and went at Emily Post with an almost fiendish gusto. They brought dishes and silverware to class, and they learned how to eat! Many did not know how to hold a spoon or a fork. We next proceeded to the very delicate and ticklish job of escorting a girl across the street, to a seat in a restaurant or movie, and in the trolley car. I was amazed at the seriousness with which they went through the motions in the classroom. Even Jones played the part of the girl willingly and allowed himself to be led to his seat in the restaurant and gracefully abandoned his coat to Joe, the "River Rat," as the boys called him. A new morale prevailed in the class now. A girl student, entering on some errand, no

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longed blushed to the roots of her hair at the winks, ogles, jeers, and sly comments of the class. Now, Joe, the "Tire-Slasher," would open the door for her as she went out.

The traditionalists, I know, will sniff contemptuously at all this. "What are these boys learning?" they will ask. Books? No; definitely, no. They will not and they cannot. They are learning to live a sane, wholesome, socially useful life. They are turning into citizens who put a value on human decency, who look upon themselves not as social outcasts pitted against society in a battle to the death, but as beings who can and will find, in their own humble way, a plane on which they can live, respectable, and respected. This group out of which the racketeers swell their forces pass, must pass through our schools. Are we going to disregard them because they do not fit into our academic scheme? Are we going to let the iron of our indifference and neglect sink deeper into their already warped minds and hearts? Are we going to spend billions to turn them into predatory beasts? Are we going to spend billions more in an attempt to catch and confine them at the public expense? Education has an obligation here which it cannot shirk.

The home and church play a very insignificant part in the lives of these boys. The gutter, the gang, the racketeer, the burlesque show, the sexy movie, the tabloids, the whole social pattern of the slums—these are the dominant themes of their lives. These, even more than their heredity, dictate the course they are to follow. The responsibility for these boys falls inevitably upon the school. It is the only unit fitted to take up this enormous social lag, to divert this enormous energy into socially useful channels. The public has invested its billions in school personnel and equipment. It has the right to demand that the schools produce at least a law-abiding citizenry. The task is a staggering one. The odds are long against us. But it is a challenge which strikes to the very roots of our educational system. Failure to meet it is to admit that the public is investing in a commodity from which it can hope for no return. I am not obsessed with the notion that with education as a lever we can pry the racketeer loose from our society. But without the forces of education lined up with an indignant and outraged society, the racketeer will become a permanent and none too glorious fixture of our national life. Education, I repeat, cannot accomplish its purpose unaided. But it dare not raise its head again if it fails to recognize and treat the evil at the only source at which it can reach. Society has its task too. But it can never succeed if we keep creating gangsters and racketeers by an educational regime which does not allow the impulses of these boys to flow into normal avenues of expression. We cannot remove these pressing realities by averting our eyes and retiring to our ivory towers. We must peel off our coats, roll up our sleeves, and get down into the muck with these boys. They cannot lift themselves up by their bootstraps. It is we, the teachers, who must help them. The time for educational aloofness is past. We must get into the lives of these boys, learn what they want, what makes them go. They are not tainted. They have an essential core of goodness, loyalty, and humanity. They have infinite capacities for productive social labor. But theirs is a wild, undirected, and misdirected energy. We are fighting forces whose potency and magnitude we can only guess at. While we hesitate and quibble about school policy, and cut budgets to the bone, and scrape the bone, these forces are moulding these boys slowly, quietly, without any vast educational outlay. Not a cornerstone is laid, not a university is endowed, not a commencement address is made. And yet tomorrow, and after tomorrow, they graduate into gangsterdom and racketeering. We pay doubly, first to perpetuate this subterranean society, and then to eradicate it.

ABRAHAM H. LASS.
Manual Training High School.

THE HIGH SCHOOL SCENE

WHEN I report to school for duty each morning, I have a comforting sensation when I walk to the publications office and assume the seat behind the editor's desk. The reasons for this are fairly simple. To see wide-awake youngsters happily and busily working out their destinies in the school environment gives me a quiet thrill. I feel, too, that here I can escape the pain engendered by reading the daily news about new dangers to education. Here I see a system dedicated to the greatest good moving along efficiently as though oblivious to the harshnes sof depression chaos, as though going on forever despite any and all obstacles. The youngsters here in the office make me feel these things. I am glad for them and what they represent.

As my eyes wander over the girls busy at clacking typewriters, at the reporters coming and going on assignments, at the headline and rewrite boys attacking copy, at the make-up editor preparing his "dummy" newspaper for the week, I know that I've found a great thing—an institution of learning where young lives are being moulded and trained in the best paths to go.

The publications activity is only one of many, the school only one of many in the largest public school system in the world. As I think on these things I want to jump up from my desk, forget all my editorial dignity and talk to the first person I meet about what's being done in our New York City schools. I want to paint a picture of the school so that those who are encouraging drastic retrenchment in school appropriations will spare the axe which can bring about so much ruin.

A quieter thought, however, impels me to jot down my observations, to

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present them to interested people for their careful, impartial appraisal. Hence I write this article, not so much as a plea for the saving of schools and education as a portrayal of actual things actually going on.

Now the critics of the school system most probably mean well. However, I think many of the charges made are not tenable and are advanced without the proper first-hand knowledge so necessary to accurate judgment. It may well be, too, because of this unfortunate circumstance that education generally may be relegated to a comparatively unimportant position in the affairs of men.

What are some of the charges these critical gentlemen make? They say our methods are archaic; that maximum effort is used to produce minimum results. Entirely too much money is annually spent for rewards that are intangible, impractical, and negligible. Too much attention is paid the younger generation which isn't paying its way, and which is enjoying so many more opportunities than the older generation. There are entirely too many needless courses of study. Educators ars impractical for the most part, and their mild efforts tend to make the student anything but independent. With life they have no contact, being always embraced by sacred walls of pseudo-learning.

Enough for that.

Now there is an actual, practical problem. Expenses must be cut to the bone and cut until it hurts—until it hurts this time the schools which always have formed the vanguard of a progressive civilization.

Before I make an attempt to refute the allegations mentioned and portray as faithfully as possible the situation, may I say that no attempt is being made here to detract from abuses which do exist in the school system. In such a gigantic body, any such abuses are, paradoxically enough, signs of health and movement, hence of growth.

If the purposes of the schools, briefly, are to train the youngster for a specific job, to train him to do some constructive thinking, to give him some useful information and more useful source materials, to open and discover his personality for him, to give a fair amount of culture, to place him intelligently and securely in the type of world which surrounds him, then I maintain the schools are doing all these things. And in so doing them the youngster is given tools with which to work and a chance to find later happiness and a place in the sun.

Now to a refutation and a portrayal of facts as they exist.

If meetings of the various national councils of education and the national associations of teachers may serve as an indication of modern trends in education, then I am glad to point them out.

From coast to coast of this huge country, teachers and teaching are kept abreast of the times by constant meetings and discussions. Mere talk is distinctly not the fruit of discussion. Revised state syllabi, forward-looking reports, brilliant studies in the professional journals are the fruits. Pick up a syllabus of the present time, glance at the reports ready for action lying on school superintendents' desks, read the professional articles, study the results of constant research. These should be convincing.

All of the findings of experimental schools, private institutions and research foundations are utilized in so far as physical and budgetary conditions allow. These results are always combined with the practical findings of classroom projects simultaneously going on in almost every school of importance in the country.

To find the general condition that exists in public school education we can do no better than to examine institutions in metropolitan districts. Here we find, in both large and small cities, the bulk of the student body. Overcrowded conditions, depressed budgets are more heavily felt here; hence progress which moves educational ideas forward in spite of these real, unexaggerated obstacles may be termed progress in deed and in fact.

I can think of no better way to throw the probing spotlight on the situation than to invite you to see with me the operations of the average modern school in an average community.

There are approximately three thousand students in the school you've just entered, of widely differing personality and intelligence. They range in age from twelve to eighteen, a period of life which is precariously susceptible to any and all educational influences. They have a school day of some five hours, divided into forty-minute periods. Classes range in size from thirty to forty students. These students are distinctly not treated with supposed "mass education." Each one puts his or her own needs before an experienced grade adviser who, from a knowledge of the child, selects a course of study.

From the moment they pile noisily into the building until they leave it just as noisily, the students move in a group where social living is the absolute rule. As in the world outside, diligence, observance of rules, ambition, and vision are rewarded; and dereliction and indolence punished. However, reward and punishment no longer follow the old trend. The hero with the nice, new geography book and the teacher's proud glance, the villain with the spanked seat and a dunce cap no longer exist—they are exploded myths.

Reward comes in the guise of enriched, happier school living, in widened elective subject privilege, in wider participation in school activity. Punishment (fitting the crime) comes in restriction of privilege, in curtailment of school activity. Neither reward nor punishment is given out indiscriminately or stupidly. Besides the best faculty advice available, student governing boards, honors awards committees, sit in judicial appraisal of merit or demerit.

Let us examine for a moment the daily fare. Decidedly it is not an incessant round of implicit or explicit

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threats on the part of the absent-minded pedagogues "to do something drastic if you don't pay attention." It is, however, a well-balanced diet of subjects giving life in the form of practical and cultural guidance. There are the sciences — biology, zoology, general science, physical geography, chemistry, physics, with laboratories for each subject. There are the languages — English, French, Spanish, German, Italian, Latin and Greek. There is history — ancient, modern, European, American. There are economics, government in the guise of civics, bookkeeping, accounting, commercial law, advertising, typewriting, stenography. There are arts—free-hand and mechanical drawing, illustration and design, modeling, carving. There are also the home economics courses from dietetics to dress design.

The content of these subjects gives the student sound material for the purposes of education which I have already mentioned at some length. There is no naïve theorizing.

To make all the material taught in the classroom tie up with the modern, practical way of doing things, no correlative measures go unheeded. Every subject is enhanced and clarified by the use of visual instruction aids of all kinds, including up-to-date sound movies. Men and women who have made names for themselves in a particular line of endeavor are called in for lectures and for consultation. Representatives of large business institutions come to the school, observe what's being done, give advice for still closer correlation.

Students go to the Stock Exchange for practical guidance in economics. To various plants, journeys are made to find actual demonstration of the actual processes of manufacture. Visits to legislative bodies drive home the lessons given in history and civics. Embryo chemists and physicists go to the experimental laboratories of the large utility companies. The theatre auditorium, the newspaper pressroom, and the radio station make really alive the studies of all school branches. Theory goes hand in hand with practice. The student gets the how and why of every subject.

For the young boy and girl evincing greater interest in a specialty, there is an enriched curriculum and a great spread of extra-curricular activity. Classes in creative writing, journalism, dramatics, open doors for some. The administrative offices take in complete staffs of student clerks, typists, secretaries, telephone operators. The movie projection booth, the amplification system, the school printing press, and the carpenter and machine shops are fertile fields for mechanically gifted youngsters.

Clubs in every conceivable study keep interest active and well motivated, and the social instinct vibrant with color. The school publishes a weekly newspaper usually, and a magazine two to four time a semester. It mounts and produces many plays of established merit and popularity which are a long way from the stigma of rank amateurishness. There are the forceful, entertaining, varied, and informative assembly programs held weekly. Movies, theatricals, musicales, speaking contests present appealing but always educational programs.

The school, once a term, conducts a big election campaign for the choosing of student officials and form representatives. In the elections parties are often formed, conventions held, nominations made—all in the approved style of the world outside the school building.

Special bulletin board exhibits make mere passing through the halls an educational treat. In the classrooms, debates, discussion forums, mock trials and mock broadcasts enliven the usual classroom procedure. Not one element which makes an integral part of the student's normal living is overlooked.

You cannot put a very accurate measuring rod on growth; but growth physical, moral, spiritual and intellectual is the business of every modern school. If our results appear negligible and intangible to some, then the possibility is that there is lack of vision and understanding on the part of our critics.

Despite the contrary belief of some, the average teacher is absorbed in his work. He may grumble against restrictions, distracting work conditions, entangling clerical work, but he is absorbed. The reason is that youth is ever new, ever fresh, ever changing. The challenge to keep in line with the present day is always there in the appraising eyes of the students. Become an old dotard and you'll soon know about it from them.

Teachers must learn their jobs, administer them efficiently, keep up with modern trends, or schools will have none of them. Minimum requirements demand training adequate and varied enough to insure the best educated candidates. After a teacher lands his job, he is generally urged or compelled to continue his studies for purposes of mental alertness. Constant supervision brings the highest coöperation. General faculty conferences are designed to keep the teacher informed of new developments and to keep him always in close touch with objectives.

The old "front of the room" barrier, too, has broken down. The teacher is part of the class now, through the new socialized procedures which permit the student to speak whenever interest or curiosity dictate. He is no longer the antagonistic stranger making vague gestures and vaguer remarks.

The picture I have drawn I have attempted to make a faithful reproduction. These things are truly being done in the schools. No taxpayer need blanch at the costs of education. The investment is repaid in full and has one of the finest purposes known to man.

The school body is big, it moves slowly, but in the right direction. The country would suffer grievously were the younger generation done out of its birthright of education for all.

Our economic structure has changed so profoundly and so rapidly that even the swiftly-moving in a more swiftly-moving world have despaired

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of keeping up. The age of specialization is sinking—the ebb and flow of the economic tides have drowned it. To general training must we look now. And it is the school which faces today the severest test, for upon it depend the millions of young people who must take from it defensive armor to ward off the blows of changing fortune.

We may look askance at democracy today in its tribulations, but we are democratic to the core. We want no other form of living. The school of today, absorbing greater and greater school populations, is the greatest bulwark of democratic living. It is in the high school particularly that for the greatest number, formal education training reaches its zenith. Beyond it very few can or will ever go. In it must be continued the most complete, thorough, and general studies that skilled educators can conduct. Restrictions, curtailments, sent to beset the school now will cut away the roots upon which life itself depends.

To conclude I wish to quote Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur in an address on the crisis in education, delivered in January, 1933: "We must take an aggressive attitude for the schools if we are going to see our children through. This is not a matter of passing resolution. It is a matter of fighting, and there is not a better thing to fight for than the American school child. Fight—it is worth while."

GEORGE W. SULLIVAN, JR.

John Adams High School.

LOW BRACKET CLASSES*

IN opening the discussion of today's topic I would say that the first point to be considered, in dealing with low bracket classes, is the mental attitude of the teacher towards such a class. This mental attitude will be perceptibly influenced by the teacher's mental attitude towards herself.

Hence it is of vital importance that the teacher establish a correct, mentally hygienic state of mind towards herself, before approaching her work with the class. There should be a careful avoidance of the Pity-Thou-Me-See-What-I-Have-Drawn mood when the teacher finds a low bracket class on her program. She should, instead, try to consider this type of class as much an opportunity for the exercise of her teaching ability as she usually feels classes of greater aptitude are.

She should next guard *religiously* against any idle talk with others in which the class is spoken of in derogatory tones or terms. No teacher worthy of the name, and in particular, no teacher of English should ever be heard employing such terms as "dumb" or "stupid" in reference to a lower bracket group. Never from her lips should come, "They are so dumb." "I have such a stupid lot." "I have a set of the dumb ones." Aside from the question of the good taste, the truth, and the ethics of such statements, is the incalculable harm they do to the teacher's mental-set towards the class.

After the establishment of a mentally hygienic attitude towards herself in relation to her class, comes the establishment of an equally hygienic mental-set towards the class, as a whole, and especially towards the individuals composing it. Here, the greatest possibility of error in attitude and technique lies in treating the pupils of these classes as though we held them personally and almost criminally responsible for their lack of greater mental endowment.

Let us endeavor to remember the long line of ancestral factors that have contributed to the condition confronting us, and treat the resultant of these factors as difficulties to be overcome rather than as sins to be eradicated; let us keep ever in mind the child's entire lack of responsibility for his low degree of mental endowment. Don't, in other words, hold his I.Q. against him personally.

Speaking of the I.Q. brings me to my third point. This is perhaps heretical, but I shall venture to express it for what it may or may not be worth. It is:—Don't rush to examine the individual I.Q.'s of a low bracket class. It is well, in starting work with a group of this kind, to know the I.Q. range, but, unless some immediate need arises, defer the examination of the individual I.Q., at least for a while.

Come to know Sadie Kabrilowitch as a particular Sadie—the Sadie that is reacting to you in the environment that you are creating for her reaction. Come to know her, if you can, without a preconceived idea of her as, "Oh, yes, that is the girl with that frightfully low I.Q." Take a look at Sadie, through your own eyes, and not, if I may so speak, through the eyes of her I.Q. Consciously or unconsciously the latter method will alter your otherwise more human approach. Don't prejudge Sadie in the terms of her I.Q., for we all know that the I.Q. does not measure many qualities of soul that Sadie does possess.

Having established a correct mental attitude towards ourselves and an equally correct mental attitude towards the class, we have then to consider the question of what we are going to do for such classes and how best to do it.

Now it does not matter what we may think about the right of such students to be in high school, or how much better it would be for them to be in a continuation school or in a specifically vocational school. Until more such schools are built there will be little that we can do about the matter, and, in the meantime, there are and will continue to be our low bracket Sadies. The question then for us is not the theoretical one of where they ought to be, but the ex-

*A talk, given at a Department of English meeting at Washington Irving High School, on the subject of how to deal with the largely increasing numbers of pupils of limited mental ability, now entering our high schools.

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tremely practical one of—there they are, sitting in front of us, and representing our job. Because of that fact, what are we to do both for and with them and how may it best be done?

A partial answer is that we must first of all endeavor to establish a happy relationship with them. If they are capable of getting only a little, let the getting of that little be a pleasurable experience. Don't try to nag knowledge into them; don't try to upbraid it into them. Such methods have been tried and found worse than wanting.

Adopt with these pupils an entirely opposite course. Be generous with praise, group praise and individual praise. See that the spotlight of "success in something" is turned as soon as possible on every individual in the class. This must not be done in any sentimental, Polly-Anne-ish way, but may take the form: "Mary will put that on the board for us because Mary has such clear handwriting." All of value that Mary, perhaps, does have for us is clear handwriting—a sort of Gift of the Gods under the Law of Compensation, but she does have that, so we spotlight her specialty and raise her morale and the respect of the class for her and itself. Again, "Jane passes the paper for us, because she does it so quickly and quietly." What Jane puts in her particular piece of that paper may not merit praise, but that should not deter us from praising the thing in which she does excel; namely, passing paper quickly and quietly.

Next to praise, in dealing with this type of pupil, is patience. Try to feel that your genealogical line goes back to Job and that you have a family reputation to maintain. Be prepared, in dealing with the type under discussion, to answer questions patiently—numerous questions, needless questions, foolish questions, questions just answered. Asking a question requires a certain amount of mental activity and mental activity is what we are striving for. So do not impatiently shut off the type of question that this type of class will ask. You may have just answered practically the same question, but calling upon your kinsman, Job, for help, answer it again for the particular inquiring mind.

If a low degree of intelligence in a group be accompanied, as it so often is, by disciplinary difficulties, make use of the letter to the home. Do this rather quickly before the discipline problem reaches a critical stage. In such cases it is better to use the personal letter rather than the printed form. Be extremely courteous and stress not so much the actual disciplinary problem, as its effect on the best interests of the girl and her classmates.

Endeavor, however, to avoid the necessity of writing the disciplinary letter by a considerable use of the complimentary letter. If the student does something well, comparatively speaking, write to the home expressing your pleasure in this fact and anticipating theirs. We can usually find time to write the letter of compliment. We may well be even more ready to take time to write the letter of compliment. In so doing we give the child something to live up to and thus oftentimes make the letter of complaint unnecessary.

Having obtained immediate control of any question of discipline, by the above methods of anticipation and home coöperation, we are free to give our entire attention to the how part of our problem of teaching these pupils of limited ability.

To build upon the pupils' personal present interests is axiomatic in teaching. Where is this principle more applicable than in teaching classes in the lower bracket range? I can take time to give but one illustration. When, for example, in a bit of concert repetition work with a class of low mentality you find them almost yelling their memory selection at you in crude, strident voices, you will accomplish little, I fear, by giving them a long dissertation on the value of the cultural tone of voice. You may, however, obtain a somewhat lower, better modulated tone by suggesting that all try again with each one in the class pretending, this time, that she is Garbo or Chatterton or whoever the star of the moment may be. I find that I can make very effective use in these classes, in a variety of ways, of their motion picture interests. This method of availing oneself of dominant, present interests affords a wide and exceedingly fruitful field for one's efforts in teaching low I.Q. pupils.

I might here speak about the matter of reading. Listening to the reading of these groups is a painful experience. Whether one be an advocate of reading aloud, or a follower of the school that feels that reading aloud is and should be a lost art, it is only when one does listen to their attempts to read aloud that one realizes how meagerly equipped they are for getting thought from the printed page, and how little they actually are getting from their silent reading.

Though listening to the reading of such pupils be such a painful experience, I feel that they need more than any other type of pupil to read, and to read aloud. It is a difficult problem, however, to decide whether to drag through a period trying to have them read, or to cast all theories of their actual reading need aside, and take the short-cut of reading to them. A happy compromise is the three-to-one method. Let the teacher read in the neighborhood of three paragraphs and then have a pupil read the next paragraph. This method expedites the work, enables the pupils to hear a more cultural, expressive reading than their own, sets a pattern, and yet does not deprive each one in the class of opportunity for personal practice.

May I suggest some specific devices that I have found helpful in dealing with low bracket groups.

1. Remember to make constant use of your blackboards. Pupils of low mentality must always be given the opportunity to do and see as well as to hear.

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2. Avail yourselves of the dramatic presentation method as often as possible.

3. Hold desk conferences on paper work. Assign to the class some prepared work to be handed in at the end of fifteen minutes. Take this opportunity to call the Baby Blunder girl to the desk. Go over some paper of hers, previously written. The personal contact of the desk conference will help her in her English, and in our increasingly large classes help to individualize and humanize both of the participants—teacher and pupil.

4. Don't forget the importance of repetition and drill for the type of pupil we are considering. Vary the repetition by all the rainbow effects your ingenuity can devise, but don't neglect it, for it is vital with these pupils.

5. Use graphic material in abundance, and then more graphic material.

6. Try to train their chaotic and flighty minds to short periods of concentration by exercises in listening and reproduction. This work is most valuable, but successful, with pupils of high school age, only if delightfully and unusually motivated.

7. Encourage naturalistic oral expression by putting it on the informal plane of, "Oh, I've something I want to tell you."

Permit me in conclusion to say: Don't feel that you have to accomplish miracles. Don't feel that anyone is expecting it of you, and, above all, don't expect it of yourself. Try for the minimum of the course. Hold that as a goal, but if you do not attain even that with some of our mental deviates, be satisfied, if, for the time alloted, you can see in the individuals composing your low bracket class, some degree of social adaptation, some degree of increase in factual knowledge, and some degree, however slight, in mental growth.

ELSPETH M. MCCREARY.
Washington Irving High School.

REFLECTIVE THINKING—IN PRACTICE

A Proposed City-Wide Project for High Schools

IN September, 1931, because of the prevalence of infantile paralysis, pupils were not permitted to attend classes until the second week of the term. The first week, therefore, was devoted to a series of conferences on the general topic, reflective thinking. In the high schools, the faculties of several schools met and listened to reports from various department representatives on how that particular department had been using its course of study as a basis for inculcating right habits of thinking into the minds of the pupils.

It was the consensus of opinion that this exchange of ideas had been extremely valuable in at least arousing a consciousness of the common problem and the common goal of all high school activity. Hopes were expressed that this sort of symposium might become a regular feature of our educational system. So far, however, this hope has not been realized.

Concretely, very little seems to have been done about the entire matter. In some schools, however, there was a follow-up. In James Monroe High School, for example, the principal, Dr. Henry E. Hein, saw in this a chance to put into practice some of the theories which he had been advocating for a long time. In his public addresses to teachers and to others interested in progressive education he had advanced the theory that the pendulum was swinging back in the direction of a modified disciplinary theory—the theory that a subject has a right in the curriculum because it makes a definite contribution to the development of character, proper attitudes, and general reflective power of the pupil.

Dr. Hein saw in this city-wide discussion of how to develop reflective thinking a proof of the validity of his prophecy. His first step, therefore, was to call a series of general conferences for which the outline that follows served as a basis. In order to make attention more specific to certain points, every teacher was given a copy of this summary.

WHAT ARE WE GOING TO DO TO DEVELOP PROPER HABITS OF REFLECTIVE THINKING IN THE JAMES MONROE HIGH SCHOOL?

Discovery of Problems. We think reflectively only when disturbed by a problem. If no problems beset us we do not think. Hence we must train our pupils to become conscious of problems. These must be their problems if they are to do the thinking.

Formulation of Problem. We think hazily if the problem that stimulates us into thinking is not clearly defined in our own minds. We must learn to see our problem in its exact focus. Wording our problems correctly is a check upon such focus. We must learn to express our problem accurately.

Prejudices. Reflective thinking is frequently predetermined and vitiated by our prejudices. We must habituate ourselves to recognize our prejudices and emotional reactions and to guard against them. In other words, we must learn to think objectively and not subjectively.

Objectives. We must learn to analyze the problem and to recognize what it is that we must look for or do, in order to solve our problem.

Analysis. We must learn to catalogue exactly what we must know or do or have before we can get what we seek.

Review. We must learn to make a precise catalogue of what we already know, have, that bears on the problem confronting us.

Sources. We must habitually list the sources where we may find what is needed for the solution of our problems.

Proper Use of Sources. We must train ourselves to select the proper procedure in using these sources, such as scientific apparatus, text-books, observations.

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Eureka. We must recognize and accept what we seek when we have found it. We must learn to reject whatever is irrelevant.

Application. We must learn to apply what we have accepted to our problem.

Conclusion. We must learn to draw a conclusion from the application of what we have found to our problem. This conclusion we must learn to express accurately.

Checking. We must make it habitual to check our conclusion by testing it in every possible way.

Further Reflection. Having accepted our conclusion we must further reflect upon its implications.

Use of the Conclusion. The good thinker does not rest when a conclusion has been reached. He immediately formulates tentative applications of his new possessions to other problems.

The Complete Circle. The accepted conclusion should immediately become a stimulus for the recognition of a new problem demanding the initiation of the whole process all over again.

Pedagogical Considerations. In order to develop these habits, teachers must bear in mind the following:

1. The teacher must be conscious of and must have definitely formulated in his own mind the particular habit he wishes to develop.
2. The teacher must guide his pupil to a recognition of and a definite formulation of the habit to be developed.
3. The teacher must select that material best suited for the development of the desired habit.
4. The teacher must select the best method of procedure on his part and on the pupil's part for the use of the selected material to develop the desired habit.
5. The teacher must provide sufficient drill situations for the fixation of the desired habit.
6. The teacher must provide many and varied situations for the application of the desired habit.

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.

September 21, 1931.

The James Monroe High School has a sort of cabinet which meets weekly with Dr. Hein. In it are included the administrative assistants, department chairmen, heads of annexes, the chairman of the program committee and of the grade advisers, and the deans. Others in the faculty are invited whenever there is a matter up for discussion which affects their work particularly. At these sessions which, in procedure, are very informal, there is an unusual freedom of discussion on problems and plans that concern Monroe. Questions of school policy are gone over thoroughly and without restraint; specific details of procedure are very carefully checked from individual angles. From this weekly conference radiates the departmental meeting, so that there is always an underlying unity in all school activity.

By September, 1932, Dr. Hein felt that the general idea of training for power had been sufficiently emphasized, and that the time was now ripe to proceed from theory to practice. He therefore asked every member of the cabinet to draw up a definite, detailed plan of applying this principle to classroom procedure. These plans were carefully gone over at subsequent meetings. A whole term was devoted to this study. Finally on February 7, 1933, the first meeting of the Spring term, the following circular to chairmen was issued:

To the Chairmen:

The major topic for this term upon which I hope to have the whole school concentrate is "Development of Proper Habits of Thinking and Proper Appreciation of Thought."

The mode of procedure, the illustrative material, etc., will vary with the particular department. Chairmen will make a very brief report (they are permitted to make long reports if they so desire) on the dates indicated. The chairmen's meetings will, I hope, be a place for free discussion of methods and devices employed or discovered by the various chairmen. Each succeeding date includes all that precedes.

February 17: The meaning of the scientific method. Pupils to understand its use.

March 3: Developing the ability to analyze a problem. (What is a problem, recognition of a problem, steps in analyzing a problem.)

March 17: Appreciation of good habits vs. bad habits. Habit as related to work; desirable habits of work in particular subject field.

March 31: Habit of deferring conclusion until all the facts are in.

April 13: Habit of open-mindedness.

May 5: Habit of critical-mindedness.

May 19: Intellectual honesty.

June 2: Power and habit of reflection.

June 16: The will to work towards mental and spiritual perfection.

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.

As indicated here, each chairman reports, at two-week intervals, on the progress of the project in his department. These reports are not mere expositions of psychological or pedagogical principles. They contain reactions of teachers to the idea under discussion. They include suggestions for revision or modification. Above all they contain specific instances of how a teacher has applied the principle to a specific lesson, or how he has failed to make such an application when there was an opportunity. Since we are not interested in individuals, names of teachers need not be included in the report.

The crux of the matter which Dr. Hein has been emphasizing during the current term, is the principle of dissociation. The pupil must be made conscious of the fact that he is not acquiring facts merely for their own sake. The teacher must understand that he is interested primarily in giving his pupils the ability to adapt

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themselves to a new situation with intelligence. The teacher must be conscious of the habits and thought processes that he seeks as the results of his teaching. The pupil must be made conscious of the habits and thought processes that are to be the result of his learning process.

When a teacher insists on neatness in homework, he should dissociate the habit of neatness from his subject. He may ask to see the work in other subjects as a check. In this way he is inculcating a habit.

When a man is trying to decide whether he should or should not purchase a house, his thought process is along the same lines as when he is solving a problem in algebra. He must gather a certain amount of relevent information, he must combine this information with a clear, unprejudiced mind to arrive at a logical conclusion. What he should ultimately get from algebra is the ability to reason intelligently, and the realization of the importance of intelligent reasoning in regulating his own affairs.

This apparently simple formula seems very difficult to apply in practice. So many teachers are imbued with the idea that their particular subject represents the alpha and omega of all knowledge that they are interested only in filling the pupil with facts, and they ignore the more important, more vital idea—training the pupil to think and consciously to apply this thinking process to the specific problems that confront him in or out of school.

Here in Monroe we have been working along these lines. We think that there is sufficient evidence to justify our belief that this principle of dissociation has taken hold. This term we plan to continue in the same direction. Already we are discussing minor revisions of the details in the light of our experiences in the classrooms the past term. Our general objective remains the same. We hope, eventually, to turn out a student who will be able to think clearly, scientifically and impersonally whenever a problem presents itself to him.

We think that such a student will make a good citizen, a good business man, and a good parent. We think also that such training will help clear away the mass of muddled thinking, prejudiced opinion, and loose talk which has caused so much misery in the world.

S. SCHUMAN.

James Monroe High School.

ILLUSTRATING THE HISTORY TEXT-BOOK*

HISTORY text-book illustration has progressed considerably these last few years. The days when hand-some national academy paintings were the sole adornment of the text are now well over. There is no reason why publishers printing large editions of school books should not invest a goodly sum on refreshing graphic materials the way they are accustomed to do for their regular trade editions of childrens' books. When the publishing firm of Harpers can retain Thomas Benton to illustrate an ordinary edition of Leo Huberman's "*We, The People,*" why can't the other text-book companies do the same for their standard school sellers? They have too long depended on the library to furnish prints and the uniformity of the prints you find in history text-books indicates pretty plainly that not only do historians repeat each other, but use the identical sources to illustrate what they repeat.

From a modern pedagogical viewpoint, no text is worth its salt unless it contains an assortment of illustrative devices like cartoons, time-lines and statistical diagrams that will fetch the interest of the wayward student and steer him to investigate the text. We have only scratched the surface in that direction and, strange as it may seem, it has not been the academic historian steeped in the principles of educational psychology who did the scratching as much as the post-war group of popularizers who made history a best seller. We refer to the popular histories of H. G. Wells, Hendrik Van Loon and Lewis Browne. These men writing for adults and not for children, mind you, felt the need for diagramming their story more so than our college trained pedagogues. Adults like their popular history with a rich seasoning of pictures. Not being like school children, at the mercy of the monopolistic publishing companies, they bought what pleased them. Mr. Wells and his contemporaries, as gentlemen who appreciate the glamour of illustrated childrens' books, knew this well and made ingenious efforts to weave their pictures into the text instead of regarding the illustration as something gratuitous, hero-worshipping images removed from the context and simply inserted when the print-jammed chapter needed relief from eye-strain. A great deal of the deserved popularity which attached itself to the "outline" vogue was undoubtedly caused by the copious use of illustration.

In the past, history illustration centered about reproduced paintings depicting great historical events in ideal form. People were always dressed-up, posing for the painter, no matter

* This is the fourth in a series of articles designed to show how the classroom teacher attempts to realize the objectives of history teaching.—SAMUEL STEINBERG, Associate Editor.

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in what position they were found. Whether it be paintings like David's coronation of Napoleon or Washington crossing the Delaware, the artists always polished the breeches and adjusted the cravat. These classical paintings are exceedingly boring. After all, said the professor, holding the abridged edition of his college text in his left hand and a contract in his right, high school students are still children and children must play with pictures. Accordingly, a publisher's assistant familiar with the art end of the firm was assigned the task of supplying the pictures. These pictures included, if it were an American history test, several Gilbert Stuart portraits, Paul Revere's engraving of the Boston Massacre, an artist's conception of Jefferson hitching his horse to a post before entering the White House, a frontispiece of Garrison's *Liberator*, an old print of Fort Dearborn, an imaginary scene showing a long line of Conestoga wagons disappearing into the horizon, another imaginary picture representing the famous "Monitor" to look like a cheese-box, some of Brady's photographs of the Civil War, with the inevitable Mr. Pinkerton watching Lincoln before General McClellan's dilapidated tent, and an Underwood and Underwood photograph of President Wilson addressing Congress in a plea for war. If it were a European history text, it included portraits or photographs of all the crowned heads of Europe and all the famous prime ministers of England, chiaroscuro interiors of the British Parliament, the Jacobin Club in session, interiors of the Third Estate, the National Assembly and the National Convention, all looking the same but everybody a bit more excited in the Convention picture because the Jacobins had bad manners, Landseer's portrait of Queen Victoria, Winterhalter's Eugénie, the berobed Napoleon, the Napoleon with the fiery black eyes that made grizzled generals wince to look at them, the Napoleon at Arcola, the Napoleon on his charger Marengo returning from Moscow, the relatives of Napoleon, Bismarck dictating peace terms to Thiers after Sedan, and the inevitable Tenniel cartoon entitled "Dropping the Pilot." When all there were assembled and inserted in their proper places, the buckram bindings were glued on and history was made a bit more palatable to Baseball Joe, our long-suffering pupil.

During the last decade, there have been several innovations in the illustrating of history text-books. These changes have been the work of men primarily interested in the *teaching* of history rather than the *subject* of history. It has long been a standard complaint among teachers that professors who know little about teaching do all the book composing, while teachers who know all about pedagogy seldom write books. Constant criticism among history teachers of the texts they have been forced to use has had the healthy effect of causing the collaboration between these two groups. As long as the high school selected the cream of the elementary schools, it didn't make much of a difference what text was used. Good students knew how to study and had a fairly large vocabulary. With the recent influx of students who would rather work than study, but who cannot study because there is no work, the unteachability of the text-book and the fear of declining scholastic standards brought about a loud cry for simpler treatment of the subject matter and the use of such teaching devices as will enable even those who cannot understand the text to grasp the leading idea behind the words.

The most notable example of text-illustration in the social sciences, is the series issued under Professor Rugg's name with the aid of a numerous staff recruited from Teachers' College, Columbia University. What makes this series notable from a standpoint of illustration is: (1) The judicious and copious use of illustrations that are directly connected with the text by suggestive legends. The tendency in our old texts was to insert the picture and repeat its title without associating it with the text. (2) The frequent appearance of black and white maps made for the occasion to illustrate such ideas as the distribution of the Indian tribes in America; or the routes taken by the explorers during the sixteenth century. (3) The effective use of bar-graphs and pie-graphs to show growth, instead of relying on the weak connotation of numbers. (4) The use of page diagrams to outline the contents of the volume and to integrate the study of the various chapters as the student progresses. (5) The use of made-to-order illustrations depicting growth from one era to another by contrasting pictures. (6) The use of small statistical tables inserted into the text to enliven numbers and paint growth. (7) The insertion of dramatic episodes to break the monotony of pure description and convey the flesh of historical characters. (8) The discriminate use of cartoons to humor the story through allegory and caricature.

Another example of an excellently illustrated book is Professor Pahlow's world history, "Man's Great Adventure." As a teacher of the teaching of history, Pahlow knows the importance of graphic materials in the presentation of his subject to young pupils. His single volume embraces the entire span of recorded history, from neolithic man to Gandhi, and he is faced with the problem of keeping his readers oriented in space and time while they feel their way through the complicated labyrinth of fact. Too much stress cannot be laid on the importance of the time concept for the young student out to conquer the span of history in one year! Under such circumstances facts are bound to be minimized in favor of the larger movements of civilization and correct historical perspective. If the author succeeds in leaving his readers with the point that the economic system of Greece had more in common with that of the eighteenth century than the eighteenth century had with the nineteenth, then an omnibus course in history is justified. Let us enumerate

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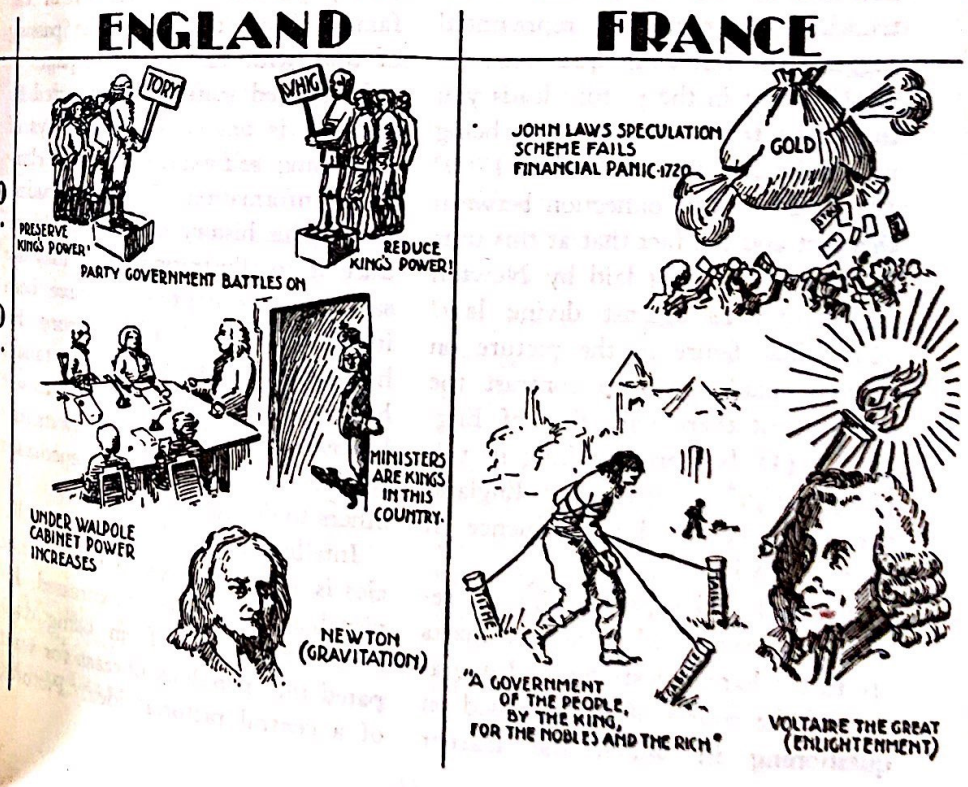
some of the features of "Man's Great Adventure": (1) A good-looking array of pictures that seem to be especially created for the text. They resemble the illustrations of story books in their detail and good draftsmanship. (If they were not painted for the occasion, why is no credit given to the artists? The preface should at least have mentioned the illustrators.) The captions, though facetious at times, have a boyish touch to them that should invite the student to reciprocate. (2) The splendid use of time charts from beginning to end. The advantage of using symbols in arranging the chart is very evident when we compare the cipher chart of the author with the word chart he uses elsewhere in the text. One can be read at a glance; it has clarity and beauty. The other is a maze of print, difficult to understand and uninviting to reluctant students as well as to teachers. The chart on historical threads conveys beautifully the concept we mentioned before on the economic similarities between the ancient world and the world before the industrial revolution. If it were expanded over two pages it would gain in effectiveness. Such charts are worth the space they occupy. (3) The symbolic *clichés* that appear on maps in the form of time reminders, to remind the learner that the world is round and European time differs from his own; power symbols to show the chief sources of motion as being much the same from the time of King Krufu's pyramid to King Louis' Versailles.

Perhaps the foremost need in text-book writing today is not so much graphic illustration as graphic writing. The anemic sentence structure that burdens the average page of the average text-book, is a blight on the imagination. It is the very lack of colorful writing that needs some compensation in colorful pictures. Occasionally we stumble across books written with real flair for the dramatic in history, but these volumes are either incomplete in the required subject matter or so peppered with inaccuracy as to prohibit wide acceptance among teachers. There have been, however, several outstanding examples of scholarly text-books written with literary gusto. We think the early books of Robinson and Beard epoch-making in rescuing the classroom Bible from the dessicating influence of the university pedant. Recently another volume on modern Europe, written in the scholarly and literary traditions of Robinson and Beard, has been seen on the market. We mean the excellent text called "Modern History," written by Professor Carl Becker. While others must rely on Newer Learning gadgets as a justification of still another text-book, Becker is blessed with a felicity of style that radiates from every paragraph. There will be those who will criticize his book because it has too much material, because it isn't merely an outline of fact, but a robust attempt to clothe the skeleton of history with flesh and blood, and therefore not particularly available for impounding the minima of education.

To those we extend our pity—a pity made all the more pathetic by a self-realization that only too often in our present educational system the best-intentioned teacher must forego the real purpose of education for such results as can be easily tested and rated.

Not only in the writing is Becker's "Modern History," outstanding, but also for its graphic materials. The graph outline that folows every chapter is the best summary of its kind we have yet to find in a text-book. The most important essentials appear, and, to give them new life, a rising or falling line to convey intensity is used. The maps, by being slightly shadowed to indicate mountain ranges, gain vividness and convey the third dimensional feeling.

Another graphic device that can be used either in conjunction with a text or apart from it, is a series of charts on modern European history developed by the writer of this article in collaboration with Mr. Robert J. Kuhn of Franklin K. Lane High School. For example, the accompanying diagram (the original from our Graphic Survey contains Germany and Russia on the same line with England and France, but space forbids the inclusion of the entire plate) presents the chief contemporaneous events by countries. The student by observing the set of charts should be able to get a bird's-eye view of what is happen-



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ing in Europe contemporaneous with the country which he is studying. In the classroom, we follow the thread of one country's history to the major exclusion of all others. Too often students do not realize that events studied in one country were partially caused by events in another and may influence the course of events in a third. A graphic panorama, such as is partially illustrated, should convey a concrete feeling for the historical whole and break down the artificial categories set up in the text-book for the sake of simplifying learning. Once contemporaneous events are arrayed in column form, it should be easier to draw inferences of cause and effect without which the study of history degenerates into self-sufficient nationalism. Thus a perusal of the truncated diagram here represented suggests the following questions:

(1) What in the picture leads you to believe that absolutism was being undermined in the England of 1700? (2) Is there any connection between this fact and the fact that at this time emphasis was being laid by Newton on natural as against divine law? (3) What figure in the picture on France enables you to contrast the government there with that of England? (4) Is there anything in this picture which suggests that England may have exercised an influence in France? What?

Naturally, the possibilities of review are greater when all six charts are in the hands of students. Integration of the course of study, based on questioning in which the learner searches his plates for an answer, becomes a practical reality and not an activity beyond the grasp of high school students.

It will be also noticed that the Graphic Survey is framed on the left by a chronological margin. The teaching of time concepts still remains a knotty problem in our pedagogy. The ordinary time-line, for want of variation, is a dull thing to handle. While it may teach sequence of events, it fails to evoke the learner's imagination, it fails to draw him into a day-dream out of which alone time assumes its shadowy significance. The use of cartoons and pictographs are more stimulating to the imagination than small print attached to a straight line. The kaleidoscopic format of the survey parallels the capacity of the family album to suggest the passing of time with the turn of a page.

Illustrated material constructed by students is one of the best ways of combining self-expression with classroom information. When a student absorbs his history so that he can reduce it to illustration, then may we say that his impressions have been indelibly engraved in his memory. He has not only learned what was taught him; he has recast his learning to suit his own mold. The survey by its suggestive outlines should encourage others to do the same.

Intelligent thought free from fallacies is a corollary when ideas can be visualized before being expressed. Information is kept from being dissipated into nebulous phrases for want of a central pictorial idea. Pictures, as somebody once said, supply the visual imagery which the young learner seeks as a vehicle for his thoughts. The uses of all graphic materials, including the survey, will depend on the brain capacity of the student and the amount of imagination he can generate. Good diagrams don't replace brains. They remain graphic tools at the service of the user.

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THE NEW AMERICAN NOVEL*

"AMERICA'S come of age!" That was the cry that resounded throughout the literary circles of Europe in 1930, when for the first time since its inception, the Nobel Prize in Literature was won by an American—Sinclair Lewis. Let us see why it was that no previous writer of fiction in American had won this coveted prize. What was there to the *new* American novel that the old lacked?

Up to 1900 you will no doubt agree that fiction in our country was pleasant, light reading. Authors were careful not to delve too deeply into problems that were in the "taboo" class, problems, I mean, like sex, physical disease, or mental abnormality. Fiction was like a big house, and the nineteenth century novelist as the major domo of that house was anxious to show every visitor the beautiful tapestries, the imported rugs, the oil paintings, the spacious dining rooms—in fact, everything that was pleasant.

With the turn of the century there came a decided change. The novelist, to be sure, still remained a showman, but with a far different outlook. Of course some continued to present to view the beautiful aspect of their homes, but those with the new point of view were just as anxious to reveal the plumbing of the washroom, the sewer pipes, the coal-bin, and other fixtures their brothers of the previous century would have blushed even to mention. One of the main differences, then, between the *old* and the *new* novel lies in the change from romantic to realistic treatment of subject matter. In the case of some modern novelists like Dreiser, Lewis, and Anderson some readers think this realistic treatment is carried beyond the pale of decency.

There is another great difference between the *old* and the *new* novel. In the former, *events* were stressed more than character. It was man's struggle with the outside world that was all important. Now, the scene of the action is often transferred from the *outside* world to the *inner* man. Attention is paid to man's struggle *within himself*. And the tragedy of an introvert can be made as dramatic as the fall of an army.

*A talk given over radio station WNYC, November 4, 1933—the second of five talks on "Trends in Twentieth Century Literature."

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In general, therefore, I would say that the *new* American novel differs from the *old* in more realistic treatment of subject matter and in an emphasis on the inner struggles of man rather than the effects external events have on him.

The question that you will naturally ask is this: From the vast number of novels that have been written in our country since the beginning of the century, what tendencies or trends seem to be the most dominant? That question, by the way, is more easily asked than answered.

I would say that one dominant trend is the "stream of consciousness" novel, a type of work based so much on the inner workings of a man's mind as to neglect almost entirely the events of the world around him. It is a sort of interior monologue. The originator of this kind of fiction in English is James Joyce whose "Ulysses" created a sensation when it was published in 1922. Joyce holds that of the countless streams of impressions that come to us through the five senses we consciously or unconsciously choose to ignore or forget 99 per cent. And it is of this 99 per cent that he writes. Despite the fact that the events of the story fall within twenty-four hours, the book is of exceptional length. Naturally, to the ordinary reader, its outstanding characteristic is incoherence, as the author with stenographic inclusiveness has incorporated a hodge-podge of psychology, physiology, philosophy, love, and a hundred other more or less relevant topics of human interest. Characters without number appear and just as mysteriously disappear. Plot, as we understand it in the ordinary sequence of beginning, climax, and end, he entirely disregards. The last fifty pages of the book contain not a single mark of punctuation. At times two and three words are run together as a single word. Need I say that the reader closes the book with a sense of bewilderment?

This stream of consciousness idea has been transferred to America, though no great American novel has been the result of its influence. Dos Passos, Thomas Wolfe, and William Faulkner employ the method occasionally, but Conrad Aiken in "Blue Voyage" has written the best known American stream of consciousness novel. It recounts a neurotic's mental reactions during an ocean voyage. He is troubled with insomnia, is annoyed by the countless noises aboard ship, and to add insult to injury, is snubbed by his sweetheart, who is a first cabin passenger. Needless to say, the work is not easy reading, and we seriously doubt whether this or any other novel of its kind will greatly influence American fiction of the future, though at present it represents a dominant trend. Modern critics have ridiculed the Victorian novel for its extreme length, but thank the Lord we could at least understand what the writers were saying. No three hundred page commentary was necessary to understand "Nicholas Nickleby," but at least two volumes of that size have been written in interpretation of "Ulysses."

With what relief does the bleary-eyed reader, after wading through the interminable stream of consciousness novel, turn to the precision and the clarity of the next type which we shall consider. The most marked characteristic of this form of literature made famous by Hemingway is its simplicity—even understatement. Let me quote from one of the passages in "A Farewell to Arms.":

"Often a man wishes to be alone and a girl wishes to be alone too, and if they love each other they are jealous of that in each other, but I can truly say we never felt that. We could feel alone when we were together, alone against the others . . . . We were never lonely and never afraid when we were together. I know that the night is not the same as the day: that all things are different, that the things of the night cannot be explained in the day, because they do not then exist, and the night can be a dreadful time for lonely people once their loneliness has started. But with Catherine there was almost no difference in the night except that it was an even better time. If people bring so much courage to this world the world has to kill them to break them, so of course, it kills them. The world breaks everyone and afterward many are strong at the broken places. But those that will not break it kills. It kills the very good and the very gentle and the very brave impartially. If you are none of these you can be sure it will kill you too, but there will be no special hurry."

As we examine this excerpt we note that Hemingway gains his effects by the use of four devices: his language is that of every day speech; his sentences are unadorned; his repetition of certain words is very telling; his interest lies in recording only facts and physical sensations. In his novels "life is just one darn thing after another" without any frills or fancies. He writes of a post-war generation—"hard-boiled," cynical, disillusioned—and his manner suits his matter. His style is stripped of needless verbiage, in fact, at times he creates effects by understatement and implication. Nor is he the only twentieth century novelist whom J. W. Beach refers to as belonging to "the cult of the simple." In this class of writers may be included W. R. Burnett with his "Little Caesar," the story of a bootlegger, and Erskine Caldwell whose "Tobacco Road" deals simply and directly with shiftless Georgia crackers.

A few minutes ago I mentioned three well-known American novelists: Theodore Dreiser, Sinclair Lewis, and Sherwood Anderson. All mark a strong reaction against the romanticism of the old novel. The kind of writing they do is known as naturalism for the reason that they stress to an unusual degree the question of sex. And it is this tendency that constitutes a third great trend of the new American novel. Sexual piracy as a topic seems to be the common denominator of these three writers, and we like or dislike their works as we like

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or dislike our discussion of sex "straight" or diluted. Witness Clyde Griffiths and Roberta in "An American Tragedy"—characters of Dreiser's who are blinded by the instincts and passions of the jungle rather than governed by the conventions of society. Then too, we have that arch sexual hypocrite, Elmer Gantry, whom Lewis makes a monster of iniquity—a man too bad to be true. With Anderson the case is different. His characters move with a sense of dumb confusion; "they don't know where they're going, but they're on their way." Note how Hugh McVey in the novel "Poor White," though gifted with inventive genius, always remains in doubt regarding the problems of life, especially sex. In ending my discussion of a third dominant trend of the new American novel, extreme naturalism, let me quote from Robert Frost: "There are two types of realist—the one who is satisfied with his potato brushed clean; and the one who offers a good deal of dirt with his potato to show that it is a real one." You can readily see to which type the naturalist belongs.

The next trend in the American novel is concerned not so much with the presence of potato dirt as with the manner in which it is served to the reader. So thought James Branch Cabell, whose books exemplify a fourth dominant trait in the modern American novel. I refer to the literature of fantasy or escape. Cabell became so fed up with this world of sordid reality that he deliberately escaped from it in the pages of his books by establishing an imaginary principality, Poictesme, and by supplying it with a complete history. He has gone so far, in fact, as to draw maps of this mythical kingdom, which he uses as a background for his conception of human life. The central book of his career is "Jurgen," called "A Comedy of Justice," in which a middle-aged pawnbroker pursues an insatiable desire in Poictesme, finds all women as accessible as bread and butter, grows weary, and returns to his humdrum existence at home with a sigh of relief. In his outstanding critical work, "Beyond Life," this significant line appears: "It is only by preserving faith in human dreams that we may, after all, perhaps some day make them come true." One finds, I would say, in Cabell's books a peculiar intermingling of past and present, romance and irony, realism and daydream. Many people find him extremely difficult reading, but whether we agree with his method or not, we must admit that he has afforded in his novels a medium of escape from the present-day world to his own ironic dreamworld—and as such is the leading exponent of our fourth trend in modern fiction—the literature of fantasy. Elinor Wylie in "The Venetian Glass Nephew" and Christopher Morley in "Where the Blue Begins" have also done this sort of thing.

Far different from Cabell and his Poictesme is a group of authors whose works exemplify a fifth trend of modern fiction—the tendency to write sectional literature of racial groups. This coterie of writers is not to be

confused for a single moment with the local color artists of thirty or forty years ago—I mean writers like Bret Harte, Thomas Nelson Page, and James Lane Allen who used certain sections of the country merely as a background for their *romances*. The people to whom I refer are all *realists*—men and women who are fired with the purpose of showing how their characters overcome or (more often) are overcome by problems peculiar to certain racial groups in particular sections of the country. In their novels there is no such thing as poetic justice. Man lives in a certain section of the United States, is confronted with difficulties that spring from the traditions or nature of that very region and rises or falls in accordance with his ability or inability to conquer the obstacles placed in his path by God and man. From a host of sectional novelists, I have time to mention the work of only a few writers of the South and Middle West (where, by the way, this type of novel seems to offer the most propitious background). The Norwegian-American, Ole Rölvag, writes of the plains of Dakota; Glenway Wescott, of Wisconsin; Elizabeth Madox Roberts, of Kentucky, Willa Cather, of New Mexico, the prairies, and Quebec; Edna Ferber, of the commonplace people of the Middle West; Thomas Wolfe of North Carolina; Julia Peterkin, of South Carolina; Ellen Glasgow of Virginia, and so on. This type of the novel, dealing with certain sections of the country as a setting, I consider particularly valuable because it helps one half to learn how the other half lives.

Before closing this little talk on the new American novel, may I express the hope that I have made clear to you what I consider the five dominant trends of present day fiction are: the stream of consciousness idea, as exemplified by Conrad Aiken in "Blue Voyage"; the novel of marked simplicity—even understatement—as written by Ernest Hemingway in "A Farewell to Arms"; the novel of extreme realism, the chief exponents of which are Dreiser, Lewis, and Anderson; the novel of fantasy or escape, as conceived by James Branch Cabell in "Jurgen"; and lastly, that type of fiction dealing with certain sections of our country inhabited by social groups, like Rölvag's "Giants of the Earth" and Julia Peterkin's "Scarlet Sister Mary."

And as Dryden once wrote of Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," so I say of the new American novel: "Here is God's plenty."

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The English Teacher as Confessor

To many the mere mention of English teachers suggests red pencils poised in mid-air, ready to swoop down upon any of those offenses against the laws of our language for which appropriate symbols of correction have been devised. Often have I heard expressions of commiseration for the poor English teacher, doomed to proofread huge stacks of weekly themes, to circle and underline until her weary eyes close and the red pencil falls from her hands.

At the risk of destroying this picture of conscientious zeal in the finding of errors, I should like to tell of some of the joy and interest to be found in the themes of high school English students. I am not thinking here of those few well-written, genuinely creative pieces of expression that are obviously a source of pleasure to all English teachers. I am referring to something that can be found in almost all the themes of young people, from the most illiterate to the most articulate, and that is a free outpouring of intimate experiences, petty worries, troubling thoughts, and private problems.

I am continually being surprised not only by the number of students who, given wide choice, write on topics permitting self-revelation, but also by the frequent confessions from seemingly indifferent or insensitive pupils. No secret seems too personal to be included in an English composition. "Problem" boys confess to petty thievery and deceit in their own homes, to wild escapades, and even to knowledge of the suffering they are causing their parents. A stolid-looking girl writes touchingly of the death of her father, and her sympathy for her youngest sister, who can never enjoy the happy childhood she herself knew. Of late, money losses are frequently mentioned, usually with a note of quiet acceptance of the consequences of reversals of fortune, for the children of this generation are quite familiar with the economic phase of life.

Sometimes the force of all these confessions so freely made is so overpowering that I forget to wield the red pencil in following the unburdening of these growing minds. I find I am learning a great many things that I should know about the world outside the classroom for each of the pupils. I grow absorbed in one boy's account of past illness in his household, and wish that I had known of it at the time. I smile at a semi-tragic recital of the difficulties of keeping books and homework out of the hands of a baby brother. I follow reflectively the eager enthusiasm of a girl who has discovered a new author, and has appropriated all his thoughts. In every case, my interest is held, and the hours of theme-reading and correction seem hours, not of petty drudgery, but rather of vital experience.

ETHEL K. HARTE.

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A Project for Everybody

Let me suggest the class paper. It is a fine project in any classroom. For many years I have made it part of my term's work. The pupils have enjoyed it, and profited; and I have had much fun from it, too. That makes it an all-round favorite. And it is easy. Here is how we do it, how easily any one may do it.

As a lead—a bit of educational doctrine. Thus far the class work has been done with guidance by the teacher. But now they are becoming grown-ups. They are arriving at an age where they should begin to make themselves independent of teacher guidance. They should be doing things themselves for themselves. Time will soon come when no teacher will be at hand to guide. The best educated person is the self-reliant person. The most useful teacher (if you like paradox) is the teacher who finally makes himself useless. And so on, far and wide.

This indirect approach leads to the idea of the class paper. It is to be their own creative work from start to finish, without help from the teacher beyond the preliminary explanation of why, how, and what. Just one reservation—before the paper is published, the completed typescript must be submitted for approval. This precaution is taken so that anything likely to offend, or otherwise in bad taste, may be deleted. No other limits are set definitely.

Our first aim is to have a good time over the paper. Therefore the great standard is interest—lively appeal of the material. It should have to do with our class—its work, its members, by-the-way happenings as we go on. An editorial suggested by class discussion or by some class need; comments suggested by interesting incidents in the course of our work; an excerpt from some quite unusual piece of written work; a list of the prominent members of the class with humorous characterizations of them as we know them; class notes or chatter; a burlesque of some part of our literature work; a couplet, a quatrain, a longer poem; infamous (bright) sayings by famous class wits (and nit-wits); plans proposed for inter-class competitions. There is no dearth of topics here, nor any end to the ingeunity of the class in suggesting new ones.

Then, a little to set the tone of the paper. Preferably, we decide, it should be free and easy, yet dignified. Here, in our subject, is vantage ground for the teacher to get across the idea that effective English need not mean long words nor formal style. Colloquial and informal English give, often better, full play for practical and literary expression.

The paper is to be run by the editor-in-chief and his associate. It is their job to get contributions, accept or reject them, edit them, and finally to present the complete paper to the teacher before publication. Besides, we need a typist, a stenciler, and a mimeograph machine operator.

Now the class is asked who would like to undertake the editorship. If competition is keen, the editor may be elected, second highest being made as-

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sociate editor; otherwise, both editors may be appointed from the few volunteers. If election is held, it is well to say beforehand what the qualifications of the editors should be.

For a dramatic beginning, a short appeal by the chief editor for contributions does good, and gives strength to the thought that it is all by and for the class.

Until publication, then, the teacher has nothing to say to the class about the paper. The editor is instructed to report twice a week, outside class, what progress is being made. If contributions are slow the teacher may suggest another appeal by the editor, followed by short class discussion. This usually brings results. Yet, if things come to a bad pass, as sometimes happens, a sure-to-win strategy is left. The teacher arranges that on a certain day he will make no home assignment, but that the editor will make the assignment — at least one contribution from each pupil for the class paper. It seldom comes to this pass, though.

I ask to be excused ("willingly," you say) from having reprinted here the very numerous text-book values of project work. Instead, let me tell specifically of one of the by-products of this venture.

I count most valuable the informal spirit, the colloquial tone. Freedom of expression is urged. Good colloquialisms are encouraged. High class slang is allowed. So they learn that the teacher does not object to, rather encourages, disagreement with his judgments; and that the teacher does not have to break his heart to let them be themselves. No; he enjoys having them be themselves and wants to have them improve on that basis. Through the class paper, boys and girls can be weaned away from the stilted or over-literary style that ill-becomes them, that they were infected with by some teacher whose praise of expression was directly proportional to the number of polysyllabics used.

I count it valuable, too, that many pupils become clearer to me for what they write or what their classmates write about them. And it is good to see the editors, as they go ahead, initiate the same project in other classes. Not least, either, is the fun we have.

As I write this, I have by me several class papers, some as far back as 1924. From them I take a trifle here and there for illustration. Nothing among them to go into raptures over but so much the better for illustration, don't you think?

A few titles: The Reporter; The Fortnight Despatch; The Loudspeaker of English 717; The Famous Class Record; The 515 Rapid Express; The Tatler.

Here is a fourth term paper from many years ago, before we took to mimeographing. It is graphic with illustrations accompanying the various articles. An article "Great Victory in Mid-Term Battle" has for illustration an ostensible knight-in-armor marked STUDES, riding full tilt into another marked EXAMS. STUDES is knocking over EXAMS.

Referring to a fine interpretation by one of the class, of Milton's "On His Blindness," a seventh term paper says: "It was so original in idea, so different from the ordinary composition, that it seemed as if a master of the art of English had written it. This piece of art deserves to be in the English exhibition." The suggestion was followed.

Some brief notes:

On November fifth English 717 was quiet. Lehrman was absent.

Why does Murray Heller speak to Mr. Block in private when called upon. Don't you know the class is there, Murray?

Blessed Event—Hilda did her homework. Careful, Hilda, maybe the teacher has a weak heart and the shock may kill him.

Anna Budlinsky, that beautiful natural blonde haired damsel, has started to call herself Anita Budd. Sounds like Hollywood.

Did you ever hear Silverstein recite "Boots?" If not, you're lucky.

What a swell guy —— is. What would a half dozen others do if he didn't do his homework to pass around?

Our worthy instructor remarked that Binder would be a candidate for one of the city's institutions if he kept on cutting paper dolls in class. Tell us, Binder, can this be love?

Class Nicknames:

Strauss: Shrimp. He's afraid to grow.

Sacks and Steinberg: Gold Dust Twins. Clean up all the good marks.

Meyerson: Doctor. Takes life easy.

Kramer: Mr. Whatchemacallit! How we love to hear him say it.

Booker: The Golfer. Always wears golf socks. His caddy never shows up.

Fables:

The doctor volunteers to do something.

Our floor is always dirty.

Berger came back to school.

Mr. Block does not twirl his watch chain.

Also he shaved off his mustache.

An eighth term class paper sent me by the editor, who was also editor of a class paper before, is clear proof of what this medium can accomplish. It is a masterpiece. The paper is called "The Lyons Cub." (Miss Lyons was the teacher.) The table of contents shows twenty-two items including such topics as: Creativeness (taking the class paper for example for a general theme; serious); Between Bells (the classroom before the teacher arrives; full of humor); The Boy Who Sits Behind Me (a poem with lame feet); Epitaph of the Class (really a farewell poem, parodying Kilmer's "Trees"); Class Roll of Honor (what each pupil will do after graduation;

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knocks and boosts), etc., etc. And last, a plan to continue publication as an alumni paper, a subscription form, and a request for dues. All first rate!

Try a class paper.

JOSEPH BLOCK.
Seward Park High School.

Program Advising at the Abraham Lincoln High School

The grade advising system in New York City is a much criticized institution. Whether a school uses the grade adviser system wherein the adviser moves with the class, or whether the grade adviser is permanently set on a definite grade, it is admitted that the duties of the grade advisers are so great that all phases of the work cannot be done with equal effectiveness. In the large schools, we give the grade advisers, particularly grade advisers in the lower terms, about one thousand pupils to supervise. We expect them to advise each student about his individual program; to take care of pupils whose records show excessive absence; and to adjust programs of pupils who need special programs or fail many subjects. Is it so strange that they fail to do a complete job in any single phase of their work and before long find themselves checking so many records that they have very little time remaining for individual interviews? They soon become "glorified secretaries." This situation existed at the Abraham Lincoln High School after its first two years of existence. It was decided that the system needed alteration in order that the pupils might be given the proper attention for their programs and other problems.

The program advising system was the outcome of this. The advisory group at the Abraham Lincoln High School is divided into three parts: The program advisory group which takes care of program problems of students of the first four terms, the subdeans who concern themselves with the personal difficulties of pupils of Progress Grades 1—4, and the senior advisory group who give special attention to pupils of Progress Grades 5—8, whose major problems are those connected with graduation and college requirements. The program advising is done by the program committee consisting of the chairman, assistant chairman, and three members. This group has always done the organization, program, and examination work of the school. This particular work of advising was undertaken in addition to all this because it was felt that program advising could best be done by a group handling the program problems. The sub-deans consist of one man teacher for the boys and one woman teacher for the girls, each having two teachers assigned to assist them. The senior group has four advisers with four assistants, the entire group taking all of P. G. 5—8 rather than dividing the group into separate grades. It is a simple matter to understand the complete plan if we follow the pupils through their eight terms of attendance at school.

At some time during the first four weeks of the term, the program committee calls a meeting of all new pupils, graduates from elementary school and junior high school, as well as transfers from other schools. To this meeting, all other pupils of P. G. 1—4 are invited. At the meeting, the group requirements for graduation (3-2-2-2 for Academic Pupils and 3-2-2-1½ for Commercials) are explained. After that meeting all pupils are called for individual interviews. Pupils of each prefect class are assigned certain days for interviews and they are told to report during their free periods, or before school for late session pupils and after school for early session pupils. A pupil of P. G. 1, when reporting has special forms, depending on course, filled out for him by our committee. At this time terms 1 and 2 are considered.

The forms resemble permanent record cards except that no marks are entered on them. Each card shows a pupil's achievement for every term he has been in school and anticipated program for every future term until graduation. The future program is entered in pencil and adjusted term after term as necessary. The card is designed in such a manner that the prescribed subjects and groups required for graduation can easily be checked and so that any one term's program can be seen quickly by glancing down the appropriate column. Of course, different forms (each adaptable to its own course) are used for the academic and commercial pupils.*

*We will be glad to supply copies of these forms to any school interested.

The pupil is told that next term, he is to repeat any subject failed or to take the 2nd grade of all subjects passed. He is also told that during the second term he will be asked to decide on his probable groupings for graduation, as explained at the general meeting. During his second term, the pupil is again called for an interview. The pupil elects his grouping and an entire four-year program is arranged (in pencil) on the same forms as used above.

The pupil is told that he may change any subject on the program whenever he wishes, provided that no subject for any term is changed after that term has begun. The program for the four years is arranged so that no more than four major subjects appear on the program during any one term with certain exceptions. The pupil is told what his following term's program should be, is advised to repeat anything he fails, is told what he should take if he has to drop a subject failed for a second time, and what fifth subject should be elected if the pupil's average entitles him to a fifth major. If there is the possibility of a second failure, form C below is filled out (Fig. 1).

FORM C

_____ _____
Name Room

If you fail _____ for the second time, you must drop that subject. We recommend that you elect _____ in its place.

Program Advisement Committee

Fig. 1

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FORM D

Name ..... Room .....

If you are permitted to elect a 5th major subject, we recommend this subject to be .....

Program Advisement Committee

Fig. 2

In every case, form D (Fig. 2) is filled out advising the pupil what fifth subject to elect. The complete card and slips C and D are given to to prefect toward the end of the term. The pupil is shown the card by the teacher about the middle of the final month (January or June) and is told to see the program committee if he wishes to have any changes made on it. When the final marks are in, the pupil is given the card again and he copies his next term's program (making changes due to failures) on a special "Request for Program Card." If the pupil fails a subject for a second time, the prefect teacher gives him slip C. If the pupil is entitled to 5 majors, he is given slip D. If neither slip C nor D applies to a particular case, the slips are destroyed by the prefect. This procedure is repeated during the pupil's third and fourth terms. The four-year program, in each case, is readjusted either because of failures or because pupils request such readjustment. In every case (P. G. 1, 2, 3, and 4) pupils get an individual interview. After the fourth term, the pupil leaves the sphere of influence of the program committee and enters the sphere of the senior grade advisers.

During the first four terms, while the program committee is at work with pupils' programs, the sub-deans' committee is handling the pupils' personal problems. They interview pupils who are failing excessively. They also consider any other cases of pupils who need adjustment. Wherever necessary, the sub-deans arranged adjusted programs for them. The program advising group refers all such cases with which it comes in contact to the sub-deans.

As mentioned before, the pupil who enters P. G. 5 is put under the wing of the senior advisers. They are the graduation and college entrance specialists. Because of the work they must do with the seventh and eighth term pupils, the senior advisers find themselves unable to reach most of the pupils of P. G. 5 and P. G. 6. We therefore, place the pupils of these grades on their own responsibility. We feel that the program training given them during their first four terms should give them the power to think intelligently about their programs during terms 5 and 6 without further interviews and advice. The program advising cards used during their first four terms are therefore given to them during their fifth term. They are told that they may keep the cards for their own use and that they are responsible for their own programs for the next two terms. The reverse side of each type of card furnishes the pupil with a summary of the information received during terms 1—4. They are also notified that if they wish any additional information, they may go to the senior-advisers for such advice. This assumption of responsibility, we feel, is excellent training for the pupils.

The above system of advising has been found much more effective than the old grade-adviser system. We feel that the pupil is getting much more individual attention than heretofore. In addition the pupils are being taught to think intelligently about their programs and to accept responsibility when the time comes.

The entire plan is working very well and we expect even finer results from it as time passes.

I. BERT LEVINE.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Combating Errors in Geometry

A list of the most common errors in geometry was compiled by the mathematics teachers of Manual Training High School. In department meetings the teachers discussed the various methods that they were using to eliminate and prevent these errors, and the results of the discussion were set down in mimeographed form and were made available to the members of the department.

The writer will present a number of typical examples that were studied, with a word or two concerning the treatment of each case. Of course it must be understood that there may be many methods of combating errors, and so the "cures" to be presented are not intended to be much more than suggestions which can be used as they stand or modified to suit the special needs of the individual or the class.

Poor habits of thought probably cause more errors in geometry than anything else, and so it cannot be too strongly urged that the best way of preventing and correcting errors is to inculcate in the pupils, first, the desire to grasp thoroughly the meaning of every word they encounter, and second, the desire to understand exactly what is requierd of them in every problem that is considered.

1. *Error:* Drawing special figures for exercises; for example, an isosceles triangle for an exercise that applies to triangles in general.

Remedy: Preliminary practice in drawing general and special figures.

2. *Error:* Poor judgment in figure construction as to lengths of lines and sizes of angles.

Remedy: Give preliminary practice in estimating and comparing lines and angles. The right angle should be used as an angle of reference when it is required to sketch acute angles of 30°, 45°, 60°. Use of a protractor is recommended.

3. *Error:* Giving the statement to be proved as the reason for the last step in the proof of a theorem.

Remedy: Practical applications to show the absurdity of this type of reasoning. Apply for example to a campaign speech in which the speaker says: "Mr. Jones is the best candidate because he is the best candidate."

4. *Error:* Failure to make use of all the given facts.

Remedy: Check off each given fact as it is used in the proof.

5. *Error:* In construction, imposing two conditions upon a straight line, the classic example found at the beginning of Book I.

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Remedy: Emphasis on the impossibility of constructing a line so as to satisfy more than two conditions. Let the pupils try to construct lines in this way, and they will soon see the impossibility of the construction. This type of work should be taken up before reaching the proposition.

6. *Error:* Stating the wrong theorem as the reason for the congruence of triangles.

Remedy: Use markings to indicate the equal parts as they are discovered. Pupils must point to the equal parts *in the proper order* while stating the reason (e.g., side, angle, side).

7. *Error:* Stating incorrect reasons when proving lines parallel.

Remedy: The meanings of the words alternate, interior, corresponding, transversal, must be taught before an attempt is made to use them. Once the meanings are clear the pupils will rarely use them incorrectly. Where there may be some confusion due to a more or less complicated figure it is advisable to have the pupils look for the similarity between the significant parts and the letters Z or N for alternate interior angles, and for the letters F or π for corresponding angles.

8. *Error:* Stating that two angles are equal because they are alternate interior angles.

Remedy: Insist upon the *complete* reason and be certain that the pupil comprehends the meaning of *each word.*

9. *Error:* Confusing the various propositions in angle measurement in a circle.

Remedy: Point out that *in all cases* an angle is measured by one-half the sum of the intercepted arcs. In the case of the inscribed angle one of the arcs is zero. In the case of the central angle, extend the radii forming two equal arcs. In the case of an angle formed by two secants, a tangent and a secant, or two tangents, the smaller arc is negative. In the case of an angle formed by a tangent and a chord, one of the arcs is zero. (In teaching this topic the use of rubber bands is recommended to represent the variable lines. The teacher can make this topic most interesting by employing the idea of motion in its presentation.)

10. *Error:* Obtaining incorrect proportions from similar triangles.

Remedy: Marking and numbering the equal angles and placing the numbers of the angles above or below the names of the lines as they appear in the proportion.

11. *Error:* In similar polygons, stating that $K:K' = a:a'$.

Remedy: Impress the fact that a length is of the first degree whereas an area is of the second. Thus in the formula $K:K' = a^2:a'^2$ for similar polygons, and $K:K = r^2:r'^2$ for circles, every term must be of the second degree.

12. *Error:* Incorrect application to diagrams of such statements as "a line parallel to one side of a triangle divides the other two side proportionally."

Remedy: To emphasize the fact that the *corresponding* lines are proportional, have the pupils point to the

segments and state the relation in words before using letters, as, "the upper segment is to the lower as the upper is to the lower."

13. *Error:* Incorrect construction of triangles when certain parts are given.

Remedy: The use of the analysis figure is imperative. All the given parts should be marked and the pupil should attempt to construct the triangle so that it has the same appearance as the analysis figure.

14. *Error:* Incorrect application of the Pythagorean theorem in numericals.

Remedy: Label the sides of the triangle: arm, arm, hy. Use the abbreviated form of the theorem ($arm^2+arm^2=hy^2$) as a formula and then substitute.

15. *Error:* Inability to use a formula for finding the value of a term other than the one for which the formula is solved.

Remedy: Emphasize the fact that a formula is an equation and should always be written as such. Plenty of drill should be given in substitution in formulas and in ordinary algebraic solution for the unknown.

16. *Error:* Assuming that the area of a parallelogram is equal to the product of two adjacent sides. Similar errors in triangles and trapezoids.

Remedy: In all area problems involving these figures *draw the altitude* first and then proceed to determine its value.

17. *Error:* Proving something different from the conclusion to be established.

Remedy: When the last step has been reached in the proof the pupil should check or underline this step; then do the same with what was to be proved, and compare the two.

EDWARD LEPOWSKY.
Manual Training High School.

German Is English

You may be in Berlin or Leipzig,
In New York, or Kalamazoo,
The language you hear is Germanic—
This fact may seem strange, but it's true.

You all have a Vater and Mutter,
A Bruder and Shwester or two.
When you're hungrig you eat Brot and Butter.
On each Fuss you all wear a Schuh.

Your shoes are all made of Leder,
And windows contain lots of Glas.
From a Henne you pluck out a Feder,
On a Feld you can always find Gras.

In Leipzig, New York, or Chicago,
Each family lives in a Haus.
In Dresden, as well as in Fargo,
There's an animal known as a Maus.

I bring—is in German—ich bringe,
Du siehst—is in English—you see.
I sing—simply stands for—ich singe,
Ich fliehe—is only—I flee.

Das Wetter ist kalt im Winter,
Der Sommer ist warm und grün.
A splinter, in German, is Splinter,
Ich meine—you know means—I mean.

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Each Hand has many a Finger,
And Nase is German for nose;
A Sänger is really a singer,
And Rose is German for rose.

So whether in Berlin or Leipzig,
In New York, or Kalamazoo,
The language you hear is Germanic—
This fact may seem strange, but its true.

EUGENE JACKSON.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Homework

In spite of the fact that this question is as old as the hills, no apology should be necessary for considering it as a serious problem today.

Investigation proves to me that most pupils who use the term homework are thinking solely of that written assignment which the teacher requires to be handed to him. I have also proved, to my satisfaction, that a majority of pupils do nothing else in their study outside of class.

Because of their slavery to *written* homework, most pupils are incapable of studying a lesson orally. I have found that a good many of them, by careful coaching, can be taught to do so. Those who do their studying orally and take notes on their difficulties are able to cover much more ground in the same period of time. A few, who are unable to do anything without writing it out, must be allowed to do so but not required to hand in their work.

If all pupils in a recitation class have not the same ability, I see no reason for requiring all of them to do exactly the same amount of home-work.

In my classes the work has been vastly improved by assigning a starting point for all pupils, by urging them to *study*, not dream, for 30 minutes, and by making it clear to them that I shall be satisfied with whatever amount of work they accomplish in the required time *provided* they *master* what they have gone over. I have also allowed some bright pupils carrying five subjects to take only 20 or 25 minutes and I have persuaded some of the weakest ones to spend 40 minutes.

Thorough investigation of complaints of parents in regard to homework has convinced some parents that the trouble has been because the pupil wastes time and does not concentrate and some cases have convinced me and the teacher that the latter has been very careless and unreasonable in assigning homework. I am of the opinion that two hours of homework, on the average, is enough to require a pupil to spend outside of classes on all his subjects. Teachers who demand half of this time for their own subject are not dealing squarely with the pupil or their colleagues in other departments. Some teachers would probably get a shock, if they wrote out themselves the work they assign to their pupils.

ROBERT H. KEENER.
Evander Childs High School.

Pupil-Teacher Relationship—Personality

The secondary school level is of vital importance to the adolescent youth. It is during this period of his life that ideals and principles may be moulded either for good or bad. The transition from joyful, frolicking youth to serious-minded manhood is not accomplished in a frictionless fashion. Actions of individuals which yesterday were meaningless to the growing youth, today antagonize him, inspire him, or become fringed with uncertainty. Reactions to situations vary considerably in the pre-adult age. Outward physiological changes are evident, but the mental adjustments, though somewhat veiled, are far-reaching and significant.

Not every youth is affected by the transition. Some are carefree and playful, others tend to become serious. The adolescent is usually sensitive and may be a "touchy" individual. It is difficult and dangerous to trifle with him. He may be morose or happy, grave in demeanor, or exceptionally silly. He is often emotionally directed. And one who is associated with such individuals must make allowances for changing factors. The secondary school teacher plays a conspicuous part in creating and guiding commendable aims, purposes, and qualities. The teacher-pupil relationship is of paramount importance.

What should be the relationship between pupil and teacher? Shall one adopt an overlord attitude? Shall the teacher occupy a position where he is, in his own estimation, the incarnation of all that is perfect? Is the teacher always right? Has the pupil anything to contribute to the teacher?

Four music connoisseurs rode one day to the opera house of Milan to hear the great Bellicini Anduvini. Returning from the concert, the four discussed the favorable impressions which they carried away after having listened to the famous tenor. To their profound amazement, they discovered that each admired Anduvini for something entirely different from what the others did! The same is true of personality. It presents many different aspects; one counsels, another guides; this one inspires, and that one instills ambition.

How often do we hear boys remark about their teachers, "Oh, Miss —— is fine; she is great; she is O. K.; she is a good teacher"? Occasionally they become confidential and tell their teachers, "We first begin to know you when not in class. Outside the classroom you are swell."

How can the teacher-pupil relationship be rendered finer and more enduring? What can be done to encourage and promote a desire on the part of both to understand each other? Does one have to be born with these qualities of finesse, or may they be acquired?

With proper application and willpower, the teacher can acquire finesse. Often the process requires years of practice. Many mistakes will be made, but one should not surrender. It is not the making of mistakes that counts; it is the elimination of such errors that must be effected. What qualities are needed? They are many and varied. A few may be discussed here.

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Forcefulness of expression ranks high. Such expression, however, should not be exaggerated; it should not smack of artificiality or superficiality. It should not have a dogmatic or fearful implication. The use of the voice must be correlated with facial expressions and general mannerisms. The proper degree of forcefulness of manner and voice commands respect and attention. Act the part of a salesman, of a high-pressure executive who is trying to convince his prospect of the worth of his wares. Don't be the cheap corner-barker ranting off measures of knowledge memoriter. Feed your client judiciously so that he may digest the offering to greatest advantage; don't force it down his throat.

The best salesman is the one with the least superfluity. Some men are not born salesmen; they must therefore be made. They may acquire the technique of effective salesmanship by keen observation and careful study of the persons with whom they contend, and of the factors and influences that they will be forced to meet and overcome. A good salesman will not try to dupe his prospective purchaser, for he understands that he must gain the confidence of the prospect. Occasionally it is necessary to speak to him outside of regular hours, possibly at luncheon or at the club.

The teacher is the salesman; every pupil is a prospect. If the employer were to measure the effectiveness of a teacher by the success of his pupil, we should have a far more efficient teaching staff. The salesman who loses his customers by "pulling the wool over their eyes" or in like fashion loses the confidence of his prospects is a poor employee and will not long retain his position. Teachers should treat students as though they were a group of possible buyers.

You may meet boys informally by appointment to talk over things. Put them at ease. Do not invite antagonism before you start. An occasional straight-from-the-shoulder talk may be necessary.

Let your pupil know what you expect from him. Remember that there are two sides to every story and the pupil's concept is as important to him as yours is to you. Act as a judge; come to a decision accordingly; don't be blinded by your emotional responses. Iron-clad rules often rust and become burdensome or useless through the indomitable inflexibility of the "Iron."

Many teachers regard themselves as good teachers. Do their pupils have the same viewpoint? The merit of a teacher is relative. He may be good for himself; he may be good for his supervisor; he may be good for his class. The successful teacher is good for all three.

Some consider themselves good because they obtain excellent results in examinations. They have the largest percentage of passing pupils. Some teachers are proud of the fact that the boys "not only respect me but fear me." They obtain that result by inculcating the attitude into the pupil which leads him to remark, "I'm afraid not to do it because Mr. — will take it out on me. He will punish me." Such a pupil does his work conscientiously and thoroughly because he is afraid to do otherwise. He knows the consequences. The same is true of the plug-horse. The lash of the whip is his only incentive. The army that discards the shackles of subordination is like the reservoir that breaks forth forcibly from the confines of its sustaining walls. Great is the difference between order and discipline!

How many adults today dislike certain subjects and are inferior in certain divisions of training because of the fear unconsciously implanted in them in their childhood. The teacher is not dealing with mere automatons; he is dealing with social beings as well as with human beings. The application of the Golden Rule would not be entirely amiss here. Ask yourself in retrospective contemplation, "Would I have wanted my teacher to act towards me that way when I was a child?"

In many cases, a great liking for each other arises between pupil and teacher. The danger in this situation, however, lies in the possibility of the "pet" problem. A mutual understanding is more conducive to fairness and better results all around.

Attempt to cultivate a sentiment of understanding kindness and courtesy in your relationship with the pupils. Make a friend of your pupil and be content in knowing that you have succeeded in gaining his admiration, respect, and will to coöperate in the learning process.

Insist on exactness and accuracy. It may be hard on the pupil at first but ultimate benefits will be compensatory enough.

Personality to some individuals is merely dramatic camouflage. This "put-on" affair may serve its purpose, but it soon becomes apparent. Probably one of the most important factors in teaching is the voice. It is difficult to change the voice but "acting" will achieve the same end. The history voice must be different from the science voice. The teacher must act! He must put his lessons across by acting, and his personality should go across with every word that he utters.

"Clothes make the man" and may break the teacher if sorely abused. Expensive clothes are not necessary, but one should always dress neatly and cleanly. Teachers as a class dressed sloppily in the past. Indications today, however, point to improvement in that respect.

A sense of humor is absolutely necessary in a teacher. "Laugh and the world laughs with you; cry and you cry alone" is never more true than in the classroom. Allow the class a little respite and leeway once in a while; it affords a greater impetus to more effective thought and study.

A teacher is not only a teacher, but also a salesman, a doctor, and an actor. He is a versatile character and should live up to what is expected of him. As a salesman, he sells his wares. As a doctor, he must diagnose and analyze his patients and then act accordingly in putting his act across. The more challenging the problem the more

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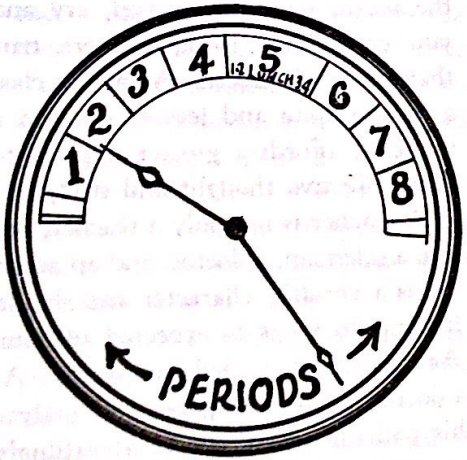
enthusiastic should he be in solving it.

BENJAMIN ROSENTHAL.
Haaren High School.

Period Clock

The clock in the office of the Administrative Assistant in the Eastern District High School is made to serve the purpose of indicating the periods of the day. The face of the clock is taken off and the reverse is painted flat white and replaced with the flat white side facing front.

The bell schedule is then gone through as follows: The clock is set to "8:35—Pupils Admitted," and a mark is made on the circumference at the end of the hour hand. The hands are turned to "8:40—Session Begins," and again a mark is placed at the end of the hour hand. The hands are turned to "8:44—Pupils Late"; to "9:02—Pass to First Period"; to "9:46—Pass to Second Period"; to "10:30—Pass to Third Period"; to "11:14—Pass to Fourth Period." This is followed for the entire bell schedule. Radii are drawn from the points on the circumference. In each segment a figure indicating period is placed.



PERIOD CLOCK
AS USED IN EASTERN DISTRICT H.S.

The minute hand is left on the clock, but is dipped in white enamel in order not to attract attention. It is the hour hand that indicates the period of the day. This device has been very helpful in saving the administrator's time.

If there is a double or a triple session day concentric circles may be used.

MATTHEW J. MURRAY,
Administrative Assistant.
Eastern District High School.

Linking the Past with the Present and the Future in American History

In order to add more life and vitality to the teaching of first-term American History, as well as increasing the practicality of the course of study, and collating the past of American History with the present and the future, the following method has been employed with much success.

The first week of the term is spent in the study of current events. Not only is this a splendid method of arousing interest, but it serves as a practical device to impart information during a period when the student program is undergoing its initial period of adjustment. The first five lessons are planned so as to obtain the general aim of arousing intellectual curiosity in American History, and the specific aim of deducing ten truths, applicable to the human race at all times. By means of skillful questioning upon the present day occurences, the following ten truths were deduced.

1. The spirit of exploring and discovering is a persistent characteristic of mankind.
2. The spirit of gaining and maintaining independence is a dominant trait of humanity.
3. Human conflicts are inevitable circumstances wherever misunderstandings arise.
4. The government is a necessary instrument for the existence of a nation.
5. Relations with domestic and world neighbors are unavoidable and desirable.
6. The ideals and aims of a people are their guiding factors.
7. Constant expansion is a result of ever-changing conditions.
8. Cultural and social progress is necessary to the advancement of civilization.
9. Compromises and arbitrations are the solution for many human problems and aids to moral progress.
10. Industrial life is at the foundation of existence.
(See "Historical Outlook," for March, 1933.)

The students are then informed that the ten truths are to act as the units of study for the term. Inasmuch as the present is not understandable without a knowledge of the past, it is necessary to trace the more important activities of man today back to their early history in our country.

In order to provide a systematic approach to the study of the various units, the student is required to keep a note-book in which he places his outlines and current information, culled from the press and the radio. On one side of the page he places the current material and on the other he develops the history of the unit in full.

The units are studied in the sequence placed above, but one out of every ten lessons is used to summarize the recent events and place them under the units already studied or those about to be considered.

Below is a model outline used in developing the various units.

UNIT ONE: SPIRIT OF EXPLORING AND DISCOVERING

1. Introduction; conditions that promote research in general.
2. Great periods of exploring and discovery in the New World.
3. Later explorations and discoveries in America.
4. Modern discoveries.
5. Conclusion: value of exploration and discovery to man.

UNIT TWO: SPIRIT OF GAINING AND MAINTAINING INDEPENDENCE

1. Introduction; freedom, the greatest feeling in the human heart.
2. American continent the battle ground of European struggle for freedom.
   a. Conflict in the Spanish colonies.
   b. Conflict between the French and the English.

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c. Conflict in English Colonies for freedom.

3. American Colonies' struggle
   a. Fundamental causes for the Revolution, prior to 1763.
      1. Theory and practice of political relations between the colonies and England.
      2. Theory and practice of economic relations between the colonies and England.
   b. Immediate causes for the Revolution.
      1. Treaty of 1763.
      2. New British policy under Grenville, Townshend, and North.
      3. Colonial resistance to the British Acts.
   c. Movement for Independence.
      1. Gradual development of the idea of independence.
      2. Declaration of Independence.
      3. Division of the colonists.
      4. Conduct of the war.
      5. Results of the conflict.

4. Forces at work today to secure freedom.
   1. Political.
   2. Moral.
   3. Social.
   4. Economic.
   5. Intellectual.

5. Conclusion; worth-while types of freedom yet to be gained by human endeavor.

UNIT THREE: GOVERNMENT

1. Introduction; government is agency.
2. Democracy the most commonly accepted ideal form.
3. Development of the Union results in the formation of our present government.
   a. Forces for Union.
   b. Forces against Union.
   c. Instances of Union before the first legal United States Government.
   d. Articles of Confederation, 1781-1789.
   e. The Constitution.
      1. Steps in calling the convention.
      2. Compromises.
      3. Nature of the Constitution.
         a. Principles.
         b. Unwritten laws.
         c. Implied powers.
      4. Interpretations of the Constitution and differences of opinion.
      5. Rise of and changes in parties as people participate in government.
      6. Recent problems of the Federal Government.
4. Conclusion; responsibility of the citizen to his government and his attitude toward it.

UNIT FOUR: HUMAN CONFLICTS

1. Introduction: causes for misunderstandings among people.
2. Conflict in the American Colonies.
3. Conflicts resulting in wars (example, War of 1812).
4. Conflicts resulting in factions.
5. Conflicts resulting in the disrespect for government.
6. Conflicts of the present time.
7. Conclusion: conditions instrumental in overcoming individual and group conflicts.

UNIT FIVE: RELATIONS WITH DOMESTIC AND WORLD NEIGHBORS

1. Introduction: can we be independent?
2. Intercolonial relations of pre-Revolutionary days.
2. Relations of political, economic or social nature.
   a. Unfavorable:
      Treaties.
   b. Favorable:
      Aid to or from other countries.
4. Sectionalism—the result of non-neighborliness.
   a. Colonial period.
   b. Critical period.
   c. Constitutional Convention.
   d. Period from 1800 to 1830.
   e. Period from 1830 to 1860.
5. Conclusion: importance of improving relations with neighbors as the world grows smaller.

UNIT SIX: IDEALS AND POLICIES

1. Introduction: ideals as stars to which we hitch our wagons.
2. American ideals expressed in
   a. Declaration of Independence.
   b. Preamble to Constitution.
   c. Monroe Doctrine.
   d. Other documents.
3. Application of doctrines to circumstances.
4. Nationalism, 1815-1830.
   a. Second National Bank.
   b. Tariff of 1816.
   c. Bonus Bill.
   d. Supreme Court.
   e. Election of Monroe.
5. Realization that our policies must often be broadened or changed to fit changing conditions.

UNIT SEVEN: CONSTANT EXPANSION

1. Introduction: Factors affecting human migration.
2. Forward march of people across this continent.
3. Acquisition of new territories.
4. Problems that follow in the wake of aggressive expansion.
5. Conclusion: probable limits of geographic expansion.

UNIT EIGHT: CULTURAL AND SOCIAL PROGRESS

1. Introduction: Meaning of the terms.
2. Culture in Colonial America.
3. Growth of education in America.
4. Rise of common man.
5. Contributions of science and inventions.

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6. Present day contributions.
7. Conclusion: Immense strides toward human advancement result from cultural and social progress.

UNIT NINE: COMPROMISES AND ARBITRATIONS

1. Introduction: the idea of give and take.
2. Attempts at conciliation that have failed.
3. Compromises between factions of the country.
   a. Constitutional convention.
   b. Slavery Question.
      1. Missouri Compromise.
      2. Compromise of 1850.
      3. Acts whose passage prevented further compromise.
4. The increasing attempts to arbitrate and compromise, at home and abroad on present day questions.
5. Conclusion: enormous value of settling big and little disputes by reconciliation.

UNIT TEN: INDUSTRIAL LIFE

1. Introduction: welfare of a nation depends on its industrial situation.
2. Development of industry before 1860.
3. Industry and the question of tariff.
4. Industry demands the creation of a banking system.
5. Issues arising out of industrial conditions.
6. The growth of big business after the Civil War.
7. Conclusion: need for stabilizing industrial conditions in order to promote human progress.

WALTER L. WILLIGAN.
Boys High School.

Vitalizing History in The Girls High School

It is most necessary that the students realize that history is dynamic, a story about characters as real as the students themselves. The enthusiastic spirit of youth should be aroused in students to get that "spirit of the times" feeling about a particular period, an insight into character and motives and a realization that they are continuations of that great progression through the ages.

The intellectual or brain appeal, although quite necessary, will not suffice to make history dynamic to all students. We all recognize differences in their responses to various methods. This intellectual appeal should be supplemented by appeals through the eyes, ears and hands. This will help to make students better acquainted with characters and events concretely presented and expressed.

In this article I should like to present in a general way some of the practices which I have found helpful in the vitalization process. These may be listed as (1) illustrated lectures, (2) three-minute talks, (3) visitors, (4) cartoons, (5) charts, (6) music.

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES

The students have found these to be quite helpful in reviewing a particular period or unit series. A lecture chairman is selected. Volunteers are asked to work the lantern, one to adjust and another to pass the slides to her in the order arranged by the lecturer. Usually three days' notice is allowed for the three or four student lecturers. They are told to go to the library, where our slides are filed, and select those which they particularly desire to talk about. They are told that they will be limited as to time and that the class will be the first judge in determining the preparation of the lecturer and the interest she arouses.

On the appointed day the chairman introduces the general topic of the lecture and then presents each speaker to the class. Lights go out and the lecture begins. Each speaker makes comments on her slides. At the end of the entire lecture the chairman announces to the class that she is ready to see what the members think of the work of each lecturer. She then draws two horizontal lines on the board, above one the word preparation is written and above the other the word interest. These are to guide the students in judging the work of each lecturer. Ratings such as 10, 9 or less for preparation and interest respectively are then ascertained by show of hands. The chairman then calls on some member to summarize the lecture.

When these lectures started I had only one or two volunteers from various classes. After the first, requests came from the students to assign them as speakers. The class will have to become acquainted with the general procedure when the practice is started. After that when you announce the general topic and the class has selected a chairman the latter is responsible for seeing that everyone and everything is properly prepared for the occasion.

These lectures usually give students, who have special interests, the opportunity of talking about them. At our first lecture this term one student, interested in art and dress designing, wished to talk about costumes. Since the general topic dealt with the Napoleonic period she was told to select the desired material. The result was a most interesting talk with incidental remarks about Napoleon, Josephine and other Napoleonic characters. I mention this because it shows that some one particular interest may be used to work through to a keener interest in history.

THREE-MINUTE TALKS

These are used at times in connection with daily work. Students are designated, after the general assignment has been given, to pick out something that particularly interests them in that assignment and to be prepared to talk the next day for at least three minutes. Knowing that the class is going to judge them on preparation and interest aroused, these talkers try to please the audience. They frequently bring pictures to interest their listeners. If the speaker goes over her alloted time the time-

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keeper asks for a show of hands to determine whether the class desires her to continue.

Visitors

Students volunteer or are asked to take the part of characters mentioned in the day's discussion. These "visiting" characters pass to the front of the room, give accounts of themselves and are questioned by the class if the latter finds that omissions have been made. Frequently the "visiting" characters find that the questioners are well acquainted with their past lives.

Cartoons

Assignments are made to illustrate graphically some famous event. I suggest some key idea. The class may be asked, for example, to illustrate the changes made in Europe at the Congress of Vienna. The next day after the aim has been stated students are called upon to exhibit the cartoons and explain the meaning, etc.

We all have a jolly time at the exhibition. Each exhibitor helps in emphasizing the desired facts. The means to the end is justified.

Charts

These serve to give the student a clear idea of the progression of events and of their relation to each other.

The class chooses the chairman whose qualifications for the supervision of chart making have been emphasized. This chairman is responsible for the preparation of the chart. She selects groups to work with her. One group selects and rules the paper, another illustrates, another gains information to supplement the text. These charts may cover a particular period or a whole century. Of course, the number of events will be limited according to the desired type. For century charts the size would be considerably larger than for period charts. The chart is ruled according to the number of years to be recorded during a particular period. Only great personalities and outstanding events are included in period charts. At the proper places various events are printed and the picture of the person connected with them is pasted. Other illustrations are made by the art group working under the supervision of the chairman. Pictures are valuable because they associate the period and the events of that period with a symbol and thus assist in retaining facts. The position of one event in its time relation to another is clearly shown. These charts serve as a means of training in initiative and responsibilty.

Progressive groups are usually assigned the chart work as a supplementary activity.

Music

The phonograph is used to play selections connected with the periods studied. For example, La Marseillaise is played when they are studying the French Revolution. The students led by one of their number join in the chorus. Those studying French, of course, give us the "real spirit." The "Overture of 1812" is suggested as one selection to play during the Napoleonic period. This idea merely indicates what may be done in connection with any country studied. In addition the instrument can serve to bring into class the voices and views of prominent statesmen.

The history department at the Girls High School believes that these various appeals help to give the student a better assimilated background and an insight into the meaning and significance of history which might otherwise be lost.

Theresa F. Oliphant.

Girls High School.

A Session of the Pan American Club

Friday afternoon. The dismissal bell had just sounded. A steady stream of boys and girls flowed through the corridors impatient to get out of the building. A small group turned aside from the main current and made their way to Room 511.

The room was decorated with the flags of the Pan American Republics and maps of South America and Mexico glowed colorfully on the walls.

The meeting was called to order. The secretary read the minutes of the last meeting. "The guest of honor," the secretary read, "was Miss Mary Williams, who spoke about the old civilization and recent explorations in Mexico, Central and South America. To add to the interest of the talk, Miss Williams passed around pictures of caves and cities that were dug up recently. Those who were present had the good fortune of handling a string of beads made of polished stone two thousand years old. These beads were loaned by Mrs. Skilton, whose husband was interested in explorations in Yucatan.

"'La Paloma' was played by Miss Rose Scheick and sung in English by the members of the club. The advisability of having an exhibition of typical Pan American costumes and products was discussed and the suggestion favorably received.

"With happy hopes for the future, the meeting adjourned."

After the minutes had been approved, Mr. Levy, the guest speaker, was introduced. His topic was "Progress in Health Education in South and Central America." Having visited South and Central America several times, his talk had that personal, intimate touch that made the audience feel they were listening to a story. Some of his audience were surprised to learn that if one started from New York in an airplane and flew directly south he would reach Chile, the western part of South America and not the eastern part of that continent and that Natal, the most easterly point of Brazil, was 1,875 miles away from Cape Verdi, the most westerly point of Africa. The importance of this, as the shortest and safest commercial air route, has been recognized early by French, German and English business concerns and only recently in America, as the five-months trip by the Lindberghs under the auspices of the Pan American Airways reveals.

Some of his listeners seemed a little incredulous when Mr. Levy told them that, though schools in the larger cities of South America were free, they were not compulsory, yet very few boys and girls of school age were

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seen playing in the streets during school time. Teaching must be good to attract children into the classroom when the out-of-doors is so alluring.

No longer does the bull-fight play an important part in the spare time of the youth of the land. Baseball, handball, association football, boating and swimming are replacing it slowly but surely.

Then from somewhere Mr. Levy brought a large bag and gave us handfuls of cocoa beans and coffee beans from Brazil. While he was exhibiting samples of crude rubber, jade and Brazilian walnuts we were nibbling at the cocoa beans and looking wistfully at the tempting walnuts.

When this highly interesting talk ended, I listened to the hearty applause and felt that the children who attended were well repaid for the hour that they spent at the Pan American Club meeting.

LOUIS BERKOWITZ.
Bushwick High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

The Gifted Child Receives Special Care in Schools

All gifted children do not become eminent men and women. Great achievement in the world depends upon more than intelligence, and leaders of men need not only to think clearly, but need the ability to get along with people, finds Dr. Elise H. Martens, Federal Office of Education specialist in the education of exceptional children.

"A democracy demands a high type of leadership, and the intellectually gifted child of today should become the able thinker and civic leader of tomorrow," Miss Martens points out in a new pamphlet, "Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children," available from the Government Printing Office. The teacher's first responsibility is to give the gifted child "room to grow." "Avoid holding him down to daily lesson assignments; give him a chance to cultivate his talents," Dr. Martens recommends.

Usually the youngest children in a grade are the brightest. But to determine scientifically the exceptional child, standardized tests must be used. Some very bright children move along from grade to grade at a regular pace, without having the opportunity to quicken their progress unless they are detected by psychological tests.

BRIGHT CHILDREN ARE HEALTHY CHILDREN

Contrary to the popular belief that gifted children are puny and weak, it was found in an extensive study that gifted children, on the whole, are physically superior to the average children of their own age. Under proper guidance, the gifted child may become outstanding not only in the classroom, but also on the playground. He is not only a thinker; he is also a doer.

"Creative ability is his," says the author, "and it is creative ability which the world needs in its onward march of progress." The fact that a child is intellectually more mature mentally than physically sometimes causes maladjustment. For this reason teachers find it advisable to encourage social contacts with children of approximately the same physical and mental maturity. Among such companions the gifted child has an opportunity to enjoy normal play experiences, the study shows.

PROVIDING FOR THE GIFTED CHILD

To provide for the needs of the gifted child, at least three methods are used in the schools of the country. First, the unusually gifted child may be permitted to "skip" grades. Of a group of bright children who were allowed to "skip" through the grades, one girl graduated from high school at the age of 13 with honors. Another child went to Princeton and stood third in his class upon graduation.

Another method of dealing with exceptional children is to provide special classes. The segregated class, if wisely administered, should not lead to egotism or social snobbishness, experience shows. "The purpose of the special class lies in the assignment of tasks which challenge the child's capacity, the enrichment of the curriculum to include a wide variety of experiences which are not possible in a regular class."

In the third place the enrichment of the gifted child's school life may take the form of special assignments in the regular class, such as club work, or group projects carried on under the teacher's guidance called "activity units."

"The activity unit," Says Dr. Martens, "has been proved to be the most promising method for coördinating the entire program around a central theme." In one school the class for gifted children was organized into a miniature civic community. In such situations have been found opportunities for development in thinking, self-reliance, and cooperation.

The new Office of Education bulletin includes an activity unit for gifted children, "Hansel and Gretel," prepared by Eleanor Schmidt and Mary Porter of Cleveland, Ohio. There is also a list of suggested readings on the problem of gifted children. The bulletin is published as the second of a series on teachers' problems with exceptional children, and is Office of Education Pamphlet 41, price 5 cents. First of the series is Pamphlet 40, "Blind and Partially Seeing Children," written by Beatrice McLeod, Office of Education specialist in the education of physically handicapped children, price 5 cents.

Both pamphlets may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Thoughts Provoked by the Reading Syllabus in Modern Languages

In the syllabus dealing with modern foreign languages, pages 8 and 9, we have a general statement as to reading, psychological principles of

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reading and their application. I am rather curious to know exactly on what basis these principles have been worked out in the matter of the study of foreign languages. I am quite willing to concede that the process here described may well apply to the teaching of pupils to read English in the lower grades of elementary school. But do these principles carry over into the teaching of reading in a foreign language? And to what extent have these very principles enabled those pupils to read English with complete comprehension, to whom we are trying to give a reading knowledge of French? I fear me that this is a pregnant question.

Our primary assumption has been that one learns a foreign language more or less in the same way that one learns one's native language. I challenge this assumption. I believe that one must draw here a clear cut distinction. The learning of one's native language is a purely natural process, beginning with early infancy when the child utters onomatopoeic sounds, and then gradually acquires a vocabulary. The child has about him, relatively speaking, innumerable teachers and it is but a step to the learning of reading, that is, the transference of sound symbols to visual symbols. If the child has a French or German governess, the process is exactly the same, that is, a purely natural one. The learning of a foreign language, on the other hand, is not a natural process, but an artificial one. In fact, every method, be it grammatical, direct, or reading, bears out this statement. If the method is grammatical, the artificiality of the learning process is obvious on the face of things. If we employ the so-called direct method we have only to observe the work in class to realize that no human interest course is carried on in the fashion in which a class is conducted. However, this is no condemnation of the method. We must simply be willing to concede that the method is artificial. With regard to the psychological principles laid down in the syllabus for modern foreign languages, we assume that the pupil is going to apply to the reading of a foreign language, principles that seem to be valid in the reading of the vernacular. This is quite impossible for the simple reason that, despite all simplification, the simple basic vocabulary is bound to be lacking the thought structure of the foreign language is fundamentally different from the structure of the vernacular, and, say what one will, this vocabulary must be acquired either by thumbing a lexicon or by constant drill. In other words, we must realize the fundamental artificiality of the process involved; we must realize that the first step in the comprehension of a foreign language is through the medium of the vernacular. I shall ask here how many of our advocates of the new reading method have learned to read a foreign language by any method other than the method described in the last statement? I am willing to concede, however, that with picked groups such as we have in Hunter College or as we might have

in a German Gymnasium, we might be more successful with the present reading syllabus than we can be in the high schools.

It is felt that a minimum of grammar should be taught, and that only recognitional grammar, and that there should be an active grammar and a passive grammar. I am puzzled, however, as to this distinction. Where do we draw the line between active and passive grammar? For instance, it might be stated that it is unessential for a pupil to know that *qui* is the relative subject, and *que* the relative object of the verb. But what is the pupil to make out of the following sentence upon a recognition basis: *Je viens de parler à l'homme que connaît votre père.* I strongly suspect that to him the *que* would be subject, and *père* object in the secondary clause. And how is a pupil to distinguish between *qu'est-ce que vous attendez?* and *qu'est-ce qui vous attend?* Upon a recognitional basis, also, what would a student of German make out of the following: *Nachts sitzt sie am Fenster und schaut hinaus.* The cognate of *schaut* is "show." What does the pupil do with *Nachts*, and how identify it? Take the expression, *es kommt darauf an; ankommen* means "arrive," but certainly not in this idiom. Yet this is an expression that occurs on almost any page of German. Or how will the pupil identify the direct and indirect objects in the following sentence without a thorough knowledge of grammar?—*Ich habe den Männern den Knaben anvertraut?*

I do not advocate parrot-like repetition of grammatical rules, but some knowledge of grammar a pupil must have. This knowledge can be applied in definite concrete drill sentences from English into the foreign language, drill sentences that deal with perfectly ordinary phases of life and which will drive home principles to be carried over into the reading knowledge. Again, what is the objection to translation from a foreign language into the vernacular? Isn't it possible to bring out the niceties of a foreign tongue through the niceties of one's native tongue? What harm is there in this?

At this point we might as well consider the question of cognates and word lists. There has been a tendency to place great emphasis upon these. The great difficulty with cognates is that they convince the student that the foreign language is more or less a translation of the vernacular. One of the classic examples of cognates that I know of is the sign that was displayed in Paris some years ago: *Ecole de Déportements.* Unfortunately, *déportements* means debauchery, and even conceding the wickedness of Paris, I am quite sure that the English lady who established the school had no intention of initiating her pupils in the ways of vice. As for the word lists, the result of our insistence upon them has been that we have shied in some of our readers at perfectly ordinary words like *gronder* that never offer any difficulty to any student, and have substituted words like *réprimander*, a cognate incidently

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that would convey very little meaning to the average New York student; like *funérailles d'un paysan*, which means the "obsequies of a peasant," to avoid the perfectly simple word *enterrement* which could offer no difficulty.

As a matter of fact, the tendency in the teaching of modern languages has been more and more to predigest such material as we offer the students. Why need we be afraid of putting some difficulties in their way? After all, all play and no work makes Jack a dull boy. It seems too bad that we are making our work more and more childish as exemplified by the use of such texts as *Aventures de la Famille Gautier* in the third term. Even though the quality of our students has apparently deteriorated within the last ten years, still I cannot believe that we are teaching them to face life, to think clearly, to give them habits of work by feeding them pap. I fear that the result is going to be intellectual rickets.

DANIEL C. ROSENTHAL.
James Monroe High School.

The Allegany School of Natural History

I think that many city people would like the Allegany School of Natural History, if they only knew about the place, but since it is located in Allegany State Park, in the western part of New York State, few of us have been there. Many heads of departments have received leaflets which describe the field courses offered in the various branches of science; they describe also the camp life, but when you see the camp site by Quaker Lake, and meet the director, Dr. Coker, the others members of the faculty and the students, you sense a charm which cannot be fully expressed in any descriptive booklet.

Since field tests have become a part of the regular examinations for biology in the city schools, this place would interest candidates for examinations. Teachers who expect to do summer work for alertness credit would find this spot a pleasure as well as a duty. (You do not have to be a teacher to come here, but I think science teachers would like it.) The Allegany School of Natural History conducted by the Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences in coöperation with the New York State Musuem and affiliated with the University of Buffalo.

From a vacation point of view, the school appeals because of the outdoor life and the high altitude with its cold nights. There is always something doing. Field trips come regularly; on Sundays there may be special trips to points of interest; Saturday night means campfire; on Wednesday nights there is a lecture by some member of the faculty or some one from outside on a topic of general interest. Tournaments in pingpong and horseshoes developed spontaneously toward the end of the season. All this is fun.

The work is thorough. Classes are small; all courses take weekly field trips, sometimes spending the entire day from eight to five with a picnic lunch. There are laboratories where the material collected is classified and studied, with the help of the instructors. Independent work receives supervision.

In case you would like first-hand information, I should be very glad to tell you all about the place.

AGNES H. BENNET.
Girls High School.

Ten Years of Progress

Reviewing ten years of progress toward making the high schools of New York City child-centered schools, District Superintendent John L. Tildsley, in his annual report to Dr. William J. O'Shea, Superintendent of Schools declares that "educational changes of an almost revolutionary character have been set in motion," chief among them the "disappearance of one-man domination" and the "growth of the democratic ideal in the high school administration." Dr. Tildsley finds a "constantly greater participation by the teachers in policy making, the writing of syllabi, the formation of courses of study, the use of improved methods, the conduct of faculty and of department meetings and of practically every school activity."

This progress, Dr. Tildsley says, has been achieved during the years in which Dr. O'Shea has been Superintendent of Schools, and Dr. Harold G. Campbell has been immediately responsible for the conduct of the high schools as Division Superintendent.

Here are some of the advances that Dr. Tildsley declares have been made as the outcome of the growth of the democratic ideal:

1. A start toward complete individualization of the educational process.
2. A changed conception of the essence of education as the result of which education is now regarded as a process of exposing the child to an environment that induces growth, rather than simply a process of mastering subject matter and acquiring skills.
3. Substitution of the learning process for the instructing process, with the teacher as an energizing force rather than a mere hearer and checker of knowledge acquired.
4. Growth of experimentation with almost complete freedom allowed the teachers in the choice of subject matter and methods.
5. Development of the schools as a social agency interested in every side of a child's nature and in improving his economic and social condition as well as his intellectual and moral state.
6. Return to the old belief that ideals are the driving force of character.
7. Increased stress on the development of appreciation in the study of English literature, art, music and even history, as the supreme end of our teaching.
8. The growth of creativeness.

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9. Increased interest of teachers in better fitting themselves for their work.

Dr. Tildsley declares that by making every teacher feel that he is an active, vital factor, not merely in his own classroom, but in the conduct of his school and even in the system of schools, the teacher has been given a just pride in himself and his work, and the schools have been able to tap an almost inexhaustible reservoir of ideas of inestimable value.

The freedom of teaching in New York City's high schools, Dr. Tildsley says, is regarded by some as the greatest in any system of schools in the country and has been one of the chief causes of the fine professional attitude of the teachers.

Dr. Tildsley declares that "this spread of democracy in the conduct of our high schools would not have been possible save for the example set in the division headquarters. No one ever comes to the office of the Division Superintendent with an idea that it does not receive consideration. No request to be allowed to experiment is ever refused, provided the experimenter establishes a probability of good to be accomplished through the experiment. No complaint of injustice done to either teacher or pupil or parent is ever ignored, no matter how busy the Superintendent nor how great the time required for consideration of the case.

"The Division Superintendent views himself as a clearing house for ideas and thus is able to draw to himself and pass out to the schools the results of the thinking of thousands of teachers.

"No policy is ever put in force without first seeking the advice of the body of principals. Most changes in courses of study and syllabi arise not from the Superintendent, but from some body of teachers.

"The example of democratic administration thus set by the Division Superintendent is adopted by all save a few principals for the conduct of their schools. It is to be hoped that in the interest of the boys and girls of our schools this participation by the teachers in the conduct of the schools shall go even further."

Dr. Tildsley urges each teacher and each pupil to become conscious of the "uniqueness of himself" and in connection with the individualization of the educative process he says:

"The recognition of the absolute necessity of making that very concrete individual, John Jones, the center of the educational process furnishes, with his distinguishing characteristics, good or bad, his educational equipment weak or strong, his potentialities for development great or small, the stimulus and determining guide for the educating influences which he, not someone else, is to experience. This is the begining of the complete individualization of education, a process which will be completed only as each supervising officer, each teacher, each pupil becomes individual conscious, conscious of the uniqueness of himself, and so conscious of the uniqueness of the contribution he has to offer society, and therefore conscious of his obligation to make the contribution because of its very indispensibleness in that it can be made by no other individual."

Teach—Don't Indoctrinate

I liked Abraham Geduldig's article in the October HIGH POINTS on the need for improving Social Science work as a step in solving pressing social problems. His proposal for the teachers to agree on the best information to be indoctrinated misses the point. We have been doing that, only, as in all countries, our indoctrination in the United States too has been for a Nationalism as an end in itself. Such teaching has run counter to universal truths and principles.

Every other subject teaches methods and information of universal validity so that any one teacher of the non-social sciences knowing the language could teach his or her subject in any "foreign" land. Possibly our "eco" teachers would be accepted in all countries but Russia, for I don't suppose anywhere are the sacred laws of economics subjected to scientific thought. It surely will be accepted without objection that teachers of American History and Civics could not easily transfer to another land. Just how would our teaching in European History that England, France, and other lands were imperialistic be accepted in those countries.

The goal of all other non-social science subjects, including English grammar, is accuracy, or "truth." In some cases this is determined by logical reasoning from basic principles as in Mathematics, or by investigation and observation as in Art, or in the Physical Sciences. Even in football boys learn by observation to find the weak spots in a line. Suppose they took their American History attitude into a football game? How would they act? They would ask if the guard whose name might be Smith or Cohen, were easy "to go through." Suppose they were so assured; then all throughout the game they would buck the line at the spot known to be weak by such historical teaching. After the game they might have the courage to remark timidly to the teacher that possibly there might have been some mistake in the assignment or the text. A bright pupil, or more likely a moron, might suggest that possibly neither Smith nor Cohen played the position that day.

Seriously speaking, all of us wish to use scientific technique for the best of objectives as so many fine articles by Fanning, Geduldig, Aronson, Golub, Steinberg, Schicker and many others have been suggesting these many years. Possibly it is time to suggest a concrete method for so doing.

First in regard to Current Events: (1) Newspapers and magazines should be used under supervised study in the classroom. (2) All kinds: liberal, conservative, radical, capitalist, socialist, communist and others should be used. Teaching methods should be so used

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to train the students to read widely, searching for information and sifting out the evidence; to train for verification and proof and suspended judgment.

Thus we would have scientific training and not indoctrination in the views of a respectable paper.

Second in regard to History: as in Current Events more "stuff" is needed: (1) Print on some controversial topic as American Imperialism in Latin America an article by Inman attacking our country as imperialistic; print a rejoinder by Sumner Welles denying the charge. If done with other controversial topics both sides would be presented; the material would be easily available for all students and there could be socialized class discussion. If "time is short," instead of a whole article, give digests.

2. More important. Since there are not enough books to go around or easy available and to avoid punitive reward pedagogy, develop a new type reference reading text-book, not to supplant any present text but to supplement it. In fact, in order to give training in investigation, search for evidence, verification and suspended judgment. If the perfect "text" and reference book existed we would have to invent the present imperfect crop in order to afford some training in the way the perfection was achieved. The following non-controversial topic is selected as an example of the materials needed. Assign as a problem (assuming motivation for any topic chosen) the topic: "What was the purpose of the Lewis and Clark Expedition?" Then use the following materials:

1. Any text in American History.

2. A collection of paragraphs from a number of authors—Beard, Channing, McMaster, Roosevelt, Thwaites, and others.

3. A collection of original source materials bearing on the topic: Jefferson's message to Congress proposing the expedition; some of his letters to and from Lewis substantiating the evidence presented by his message, and so on.

Present this original source material at length, if not too long for classroom and other purposes; or abridge it wherever possible without doing harm to the material.

Procedure: Teach the material by questions designed to get at the thought of each paragraph and article, and by the use of short-answer tests. Call for comparison of the different accounts asking for agreement, differences, new material and points of view. Ask for a summary of the conventional point of view in the text and in all the "authorities" as contrasted with the evidence of the original source material.

This suggestion overcomes all the many well-known difficulties in getting extra reference reading done, and at one stroke by similar use on other topics, especially major ones, teaches all the desirable intellectual and social attitudes anyone would want.

We social science teachers would be helped in this or any method to improve education if at least these three things were done:

1. Increased and better supervision, and by better I mean different supervision; the teachers might act as supervisors for each other.

2. A moratorium on, if not complete abolition of, all kinds of extensive comprehensive uniform courses of study and examinations.

3. A general abolition of the practice of teaching new lessons by homework and the abolition of the practice of inducing study through the use of punishment and rewards. The learning itself should be reward enough. The use of mental hygiene principles in the classroom would soon eliminate handicaps to good scholarship. Much of the backwardness and poor scholarship would disappear if democracy were allowed in the school and classroom. But this will never be as long as the above practices prevail. The work in non-social science subjects, vastly improved by the use of more scientific technique with its emphasis on accuracy, would still further advance under this democratic spirit so much in accord with the principles of mental hygiene.

Something of the nature of the above thoughts and practices and not indoctrination is what we need. We social science teachers could well get together, state the nature of our problems and plan possible solutions. Dr. Tildsley has given us all the encouragement in the world for improvement, but—well let's act on it.

RALPH B. GUINNESS.
Girls Commercial High School.

Reactions to Dr. Tildsley's Annual Report on "The Inquiring Mind"

In this inquiry of "What Are You Doing to Stimulate the Inquiring Mind?" Dr. Tildsley is setting up a problem for all conscientious teachers to work out. It is at once a suggestion and a challenge to be "Inquiring Mind" conscious. If you are not making some attempt to develop inquiring minds, why not? If you are doing it, how best can you improve?

The author of this inquiry is fully cognizant of the teacher's many difficulties, but difficulties are encountered only to be surmounted. The best teachers are those who are animated by ideals which help to overcome these difficulties, particularly before persistent, unrelenting attack. The difficulties constitute your problem.

The attack upon superstition and ignorance, bigotry, prejudice and indifference is to be a varied one, depending upon conditions. Many pupils are blessed with an inquiring mind to begin with. This requires fostering. Such pupils influence others with less alert minds, thus leavening the whole lump. Procedure and modes of conduct are set up so that desirable habits and skills may be acquired. Ideals may be engendered, and under the fostering influence of the teacher, if he is himself a living example of the ideal they have set before them, the personality and character of his pupils begin to develop.

The author of this inquiry did not order teachers to set about the reorganization of their teaching procedures; he was too wise. He could have done that and secured a conformity to

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the letter of the law, but not its spirit. He merely asked for an expression of opinion as to how best to secure the adoption of better teaching methods, attached to the ideals of citizenship, loyalty and service to the State, and the teachers responded with methods and devices many of which are used by all, but some are new and furnish fertile suggestions.

Just as the presence and participation of a few good students will raise the tone and level of a class, so the ideals and procedures of a few excellent teachers will raise the teaching level in a given department and eventually spread to other schools as well. This inquiry merely hastens the process.

The method used in this inquiry causes the very difficulties to disappear, or at least to be minimized, for the report shows that many teachers in all schools are doing excellent work and one is faced by the inescapable conclusion that if they can do it, why not we? So here we are! A suggestion is conveyed in such subtle fashion that resentment and antagonism is avoided and a picture is presented to the mind of the ideals and procedures employed by the most alert and successful teachers, and without criticism of our own procedures, we are induced to select the best in the procedures of others and incorporate them into our own work.

As a corollary to the inquiry, "What are you doing to stimulate the inquiring mind," comes the thought, hadn't we better forego cynicism and begin ourselves to acquire an inquiring mind? Do we not need to be more on the alert to recognize and help train the future leaders of this country by a continuous search for those among our pupils who are blessed with inquiring minds?

All teachers agree to the desirability of attaining this state of mind but disagree as to the means to be employed in its attainment. One teacher thinks that *concentration* is the best method for its attainment, another, topical essays requiring broad reading; careful organization of laboratory demonstration and recitation is the program of a third; a fostering attitude on the part of a teacher who has won the respect of his pupils is the method of another. Directed study and observation along the lines of newspapers and periodicals; daily observation as the student goes to and from school, science clubs, exhibitions, lives of the great scientists, the functioning of science in our daily lives—these are other methods in attaining mental alertness. Another excellent teacher depends upon frank and free discussion in which he induces his class to take part as a whole and so obtains various shades and meanings, often straying somewhat far afield but in the end attaining an answer to which the class assents as a reasonable conclusion. This method furnishes a new method of attack on the problem, excellent motivation, and interest is aroused, real interest at that, in the necessity for a solution to the problem which has risen through the belief or disbelief of the members of the class. This class discussion makes for mass thinking along science lines, employing the language of chemistry in the discussion, learning to use these tools of the trade accurately, learning to check theory with facts which may be obtained from observation and experiment.

From the above, the ideal teacher would seem to be a well equipped teacher, enthusiastic and wide awake, sympathetic in his understanding of his pupils, with a broad attack upon a problem which will bring in an ever-widening field, adducing not only individual facts but others to which they have a relationship, resulting in frank and free discussion founded upon observation and experiment in the solution of real problems that seem worth while to the pupil.

H. O. SMITH.
Newtown High School.

Enrollment in Foreign Languages in New York City High Schools for the Past Seventeen Years (Greek and Hebrew Omitted)

		FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	LATIN	SPANISH
1917	March 15	14,714	23,898	103	17,409	13,362
	October 15	14,970	17,511	74	15,665	16,375
1918	March 15	17,343	12,956	56	16,478	21,771
	October 15	19,065	6,216	63	13,686	22,161
1919	March 15	20,920	3,287	66	15,234	25,729
	October 15	19,993	909	65	14,218	25,536
1920	March 15	20,336	532	125	14,845	28,801
	October 15	19,084	60	144	14,522	28,339
1921	March 15	22,206	881	213	15,801	31,350
	October 15	21,247	1,586	372	17,158	31,517
1922	March 15	23,500	2,752	399	19,402	33,228
	October 15	25,011	3,638	592	20,340	30,532
1923	March 15	27,085	4,696	620	22,305	30,880
	October 15	27,176	5,147	766	21,427	27,351
1924	March 15	28,576	5,285	902	24,969	28,007
	October 15	30,654	5,530	950	25,590	27,882
1925	March 15	33,743	5,911	1,147	26,715	29,363
	October 15	35,740	5,916	1,127	27,715	29,209
1926	March 15	38,653	6,255	1,434	28,521	32,415
	October 15	39,991	5,835	1,434	26,375	30,969

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		French	German	Italian	Latin	Spanish
1927						
	March 15	42,709	6,438	1,593	27,289	32,224
	October 15	43,964	6,602	1,606	27,399	30,411
1928						
	March 15	47,200	7,388	1,743	28,077	31,251
	October 15	48,009	7,944	1,833	27,035	29,998
1929						
	March 15	50,310	9,091	1,986	28,555	30,685
	October 15	50,171	9,716	2,042	24,273	29,285
1930						
	March 15	52,585	11,443	2,298	27,164	31,132
	October 15	55,016	12,467	2,394	26,374	31,509
1931						
	March 15	59,493	14,548	2,695	26,479	33,791
	October 15	61,694	16,081	2,853	24,357	35,107
1932						
	March 15	65,707	18,262	3,163	22,782	37,092
	October 15	68,339	19,366	3,367	23,236	36,436
1933						
	March 15	69,731	21,275	3,873	21,486	37,170
	October 15	70,347	21,878	4,299	22,817	35,745

REVIEWS

Historical Biographies for Junior and Senior High Schools, Universities and Colleges

A bibliography by Normal Olin Ireland, McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, 1933.

The compiler of this bibliography holds that one of the best methods of arousing the young student's interest in history is to introduce him to historical biography. Her chief justification is that it is largely through biography that history gains in reality. She quotes Gamaliel Bradford to the effect that "the human being is the center of the world," and that "perhaps no better key can be chosen to help human beings to understand the world. The human being is all of history. He makes it and is in turn made by it. To understand the great movements of history you cannot have a richer clue than personalities, as they intertwine with each other to make events." Such generalizations have often been made, and can be readily accepted with reservations. Although it is true that human beings make history, it is also true that even if all history were written from the point of view of its leading personalities, much of it would be irrelevant to the history of the individuals, and much of what we might consider essential to an explanation of the lives of the individuals would have no bearing on the events in which they participated. Thus the post-war history of our country would be incomplete indeed were it to center entirely around the biographies of Harding, Coolidge, Hoover and others. This is not said in disparagement of the use of historical biography in the schools, but only to point to the danger of over-emphasizing one form of historical literature in preference to others.

The bibliography in question has been compiled to suit all ages, and covers the entire field of European History arranged in the customary division of ancient, medieval, renaissance, modern and American history. A critical analysis of as many as eight hundred titles ranging over such and so many varied fields as political, economic, social and cultural history would not be in place here, nor could this reviewer undertake it if it were. But one or more points might be made in passing. Inasmuch as the compiler has set herself the task of supplying a bibliography not only for high school students, but also for college and graduate students, she must be criticized for serious omissions in her lists. In her ancient history list, for example, we find mention of A. E. Taylor's book on Plato, but none for Aristotle. A. E. Taylor, incidentally, has written one covering the life and works of Aristotle. Certainly, such an excellent source book for the lives of Greek philosophers as that of Diogenes Laertes should not have been omitted. It is available in a good translation.

In her section on medieval history, she failed to make use of Paetow's "Guide to the Study of Medieval History." It is true that not as many biographies are available for that period as for later times. Still, her list would have been more complete had she made use of the above mentioned source. To cite a few important omissions: "The Calamities of Abelard" and his letters to Heloise translated by Scott-Moncrieff, Joseph McCabe's "Abelard," which Paetow characterizes as the most stimulating biography, "Life of St. Dominic" by Bede Jarrett, "Life and Times of Hildebrand" by A. H. Mathew, "Byzantine Portraits" by Charles Diehl.

Her American history list Miss Ireland admits is incomplete, since F. & H. Wilson have prepared a more complete bibliography for secondary schools, dealing with American history only. No doubt the titles included are sufficient to supply the needs of junior and senior high school pupils. Nevertheless, the omission of biographies for such men as J. J. Hill, E. H. Harriman, H. C. Frick, Jay Cooke, J. D. Rockefeller, Vanderbilt, Gould, Russel Sage, J. P. Altgeld, Eugene Debs, T. V. Powderly—not to mention men influential in cultural life of the nation, such as Mark Twain, Chas. W. Eliot, and others—detracts from the usefulness of this guide to the various groups to whom it is designed to appeal.

Despite these omissions, however, it still remains a valuable guide to historical biography, and teachers of history can and will make judicious use of it.

PHILIP SHORR.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

Social Laws: A Study of the Validity of Sociological Generalizations

By Kyung Durk Har, 256 pages. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1930.

Of what value is the study of the social sciences? Among many replies

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we find it said that we study the social sciences for the same reason that we study the natural sciences, namely, to gain greater control over our environment. The natural sciences seek to discover the laws which govern the operations of nature and an essential by-product of this study is control over nature. In the same way, it is said, we can learn the laws governing the social environment and thus gain a control which will benefit mankind.

Many historians, sociologists, economists, anthropologists and other social scientists have as a result of their studies pointed out what they regard as the laws of social science. The present author has raised the following questions: Do any of the generalizations, termed by their authors "social laws," merit that description? Are scientific laws possible in the field of social science? How must we proceed in order to find scientific social laws? In the interim what procedures should statesmen adopt in solving social problems?

The author has followed a strictly scientific method. He first defines a scientific law as "a description of an invariable association (of facts), which can be explained by means of some generally accepted theory." Such a law is Boyle's Law of Gases. It is clear that the present writer regards mathematical precision and predictability as essential elements of a scientific law. It may be questioned whether in establishing such a criterion the writer is not setting up a straw man. The data of the social sciences differ so greatly from those of the natural sciences that we can hardly expect to discover in social laws "invariable associations." The chemist may experiment with the same data over and over again, but the social scientist is limited by the fact that history can not be made to repeat itself.

The author then proceeds to gather, classify and discuss one hundred and sixty-eight social laws. The classification is four-fold:

1. *Apriorisms and methodological presuppositions.* An excellent instance is Giddings' statement: "Individual minds respond similarly to the same or like stimuli." The method of criticism here is to cite Spencer: "In Society, as elsewhere, a single cause produces a number of unlike effects." The general acceptance of apriorisms depends largely upon the literary style of their authors. The author points out that while apriorisms are not social laws, their use as methodological presuppositions may lead to the discovery of social laws. This evaluation is obviously true of any generalization which can be used as a working hypothesis.

2. *Teleological Laws.* In this category are placed Cheyney's Law of Democracy and Law of Moral Progress. In criticizing these laws the author keeps in mind the criterion for a scientific law which he has previously established. He reaches the conclusion that these are not laws but generalizations which are the result of wishful thinking. That is not to say, these generalizations are false, but that they are not causal laws.

3. *Statistical Laws.* There are so many difficulties involved in using this method that the results are often invalid. Nevertheless, here we have a tool which may become a source not merely of correlations, but of causal laws. Certainly the work of Raymond Pearl in his studies of population growth indicates that a remarkable degree of precision is possible.

4. *Near-Causal Laws.* Many of these laws are based on inferences from the order of historical sequences. An illustration of this is a statement of E. A. Ross: "Politically, human societies evolve regularly by successive stages which are anarchy, the communal clan, the tribe, at first republican, later aristocratic, then monarchy, at first elective and later hereditary. Finally certain élite peoples repudiate monarchy and return to a régime republican but very unlike that of the primitive tribe." This statement cannot be proved by experimental evidence but rests upon empirical observation. Consequently mathematical precision is missing. Nor are the many exceptions explained by this "law."

Another type of generalization which is a philosophical view of the universe rather than a law in the Hegelian dialectical law of nature. As applied to social phenomena it is described as follows: "that in every historical epoch there are antithetical tendencies, owing to the inherent antithetical tendencies in nature and in man; and that through the consequent striving to transcend these antitheses a synthesis emerges, in which the antitheses are reconciled, and which thereby becomes a new thesis in order to repeat the same process in an infinite series either on the same or on different levels."

The author believes that this can be made into laws only when the dialectical swings are measured and the resulting synthesis is rendered controllable.

The present writer, as a result of these analyses, reaches the conclusion that "so long as there are no social laws of mathematical precision, the social sciences remain a body of empirical generalizations." His criterion for a scientific law made his conclusion inevitable.

Since a social science, as defined by the author is well-nigh impossible, a chapter is devoted to an attempt to give constructive suggestions for the development of a social art. He recommends as bases for a social art the following five arts: (1) The art of transvaluation, (2) The naturalistic art of domination, (3) The art of explosion, (4) The art of separation, and (5) The idealistic art of interpenetration. The author would be the first to admit that these five arts are the age-old arts of state-craft dressed in new names. He quite properly suggests that many of the generalizations of social science, although they do not merit the name of "laws," contain sufficient elements of truth to serve as points of reference in a social art. This implies a greater interest in practical affairs on the part of scholars. Statesmen have not always seen fit to employ professorial brains, but of late academic knowledge has been given an opportunity to translate itself into practical policy.

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The book under review is to be commended chiefly as an excellent compilation of the "laws" of social science.

PHILIP BROWDY.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Our Movie-Made Children

By Henry James Forman, Macmillan.

At the request of the Motion Picture Research Council, Dr. W. W. Charters and his corps of assistants, supported by the Payne Fund, embarked upon an investigation of the effects of the movies on children. The inquiry lasted four years, from 1929 to 1933. It is, thus far, the most thorough-going objective and authoritative study on the subject. For the first time, here are the facts about the movies. Mr. Forman has done a fine job in making a popular summary of the appallingly detailed findings of the separate groups of investigators, so that even those who run may know.

Every week 77,000,000 people go to the movies. More than one-third of these movie goers are adolescents and about 11,000,000 of them are under fourteen years of age. No other form of expression has so wide and varied an audience. No other art form has quite the same profoundly pervasive influence. In the immediacy of its appeal, to the eye and the ear, lies its great power over its audiences. In the lives of 28,000,000 children who see it weekly, it is more potent a force than church, school, and home combined. It thus becomes of supreme importance to those of us who are concerned with welfare of the child to know the effects of the movies.

The facts are not palatable. To the child, at least, the movies are, on the whole, not a salutary influence. Impressionable, incapable of intelligent evaluation, his outlook is warped very early by the distorted visions of reality presented on the screen. Will Hays, the mogul of the movies, finds his flesh creep with moral horror at the mere thought of sullying "that virgin thing, the mind of a child." And, yet eighty per cent of the movies are morbidly preoccupied with crime and sex. This cannot be lightly dismissed, for the children remember more vividly and more fully than adults what they see on the screen. And these memories act as stimuli and patterns for child behavior.

There is nothing of the blue nose fanatic in those who assert that constant exposure to the movies has most pernicious effects on the children. The findings of this study speak soberly and impartially here. Juvenile and sexual delinquency are encouraged and stimulated by the movies. Embryo criminals find their idols on the silver screen. They learn the "tricks of the trade" from those who know. Discipline at home and at school is made increasingly difficult by certain types of movies. The emotions of the young movie-goers are assaulted and debauched at every turn. Normal biological functions like sleep are disturbed for sometimes as long as five nights after the picture has been seen. The emotional reactions of children to the movies are twice as intense as those of adults. Social attitudes are set and fixed by the movies, without any consciousness on the part of the child that he is being affected.

These are only a few of the many conclusions arrived at by the investigators, and they are irrefutably proved and documented. What to do now? Obviously, keeping children away from the movies is no solution. That would merely excite their curiosities unduly. Lecturing on the iniquities of the movies would serve to enhance their allure. The problem must be approached more rationally and circumspectly, with the realization that here is an instrument fraught with immense possibilities for the social good. The movie must be envisioned as a force whose energies must be intelligently directed if it is to function in the interests of society. There is no necessary implication of censorship here in the Nazi or Soviet sense. But producers, parents, and educators must combine their efforts in an attempt to purge the movies of those factors, which make them an actual menace to child life.

In "Our Movie-Made Children," the truth about the movies has been lifted from the realms of metaphysical surmise. Here are the facts, hard, cold, and unyielding. Society owes these indefatigable searchers a lasting debt. They plead no special cause. They do not moralize. Theirs has been the true, scientific endeavor—a self-effacing, relentless pursuit of the truth. Their years of patient grubbing have given us a powerful weapon to wield against those who degrade our morals and deprave the wills and tastes of our children. Their job is done. Ours has just started.

"Our Movie-Made Children" confirms all that our most atrabilious critics of the movies have uttered. We see now that the charges against the movies were more than magniloquent vapor. The record is unequivocal. "Our Movie-Made Children" is a challenge to all who are in any way concerned with the making of the child a happier citizen and a healthier human being. It supplies, at last, the foundation on which we must build to a cinema animated not by box office receipts, but by standards which will make impossible the neurotic, sex-ridden pictures which twenty-eight million children see every day in the year. "Our Movie-Made Children," in its deeper implications, points to the necessity for a saner, balanced, more socially useful cinema.

A. H. LASS.
Manual Training High School.

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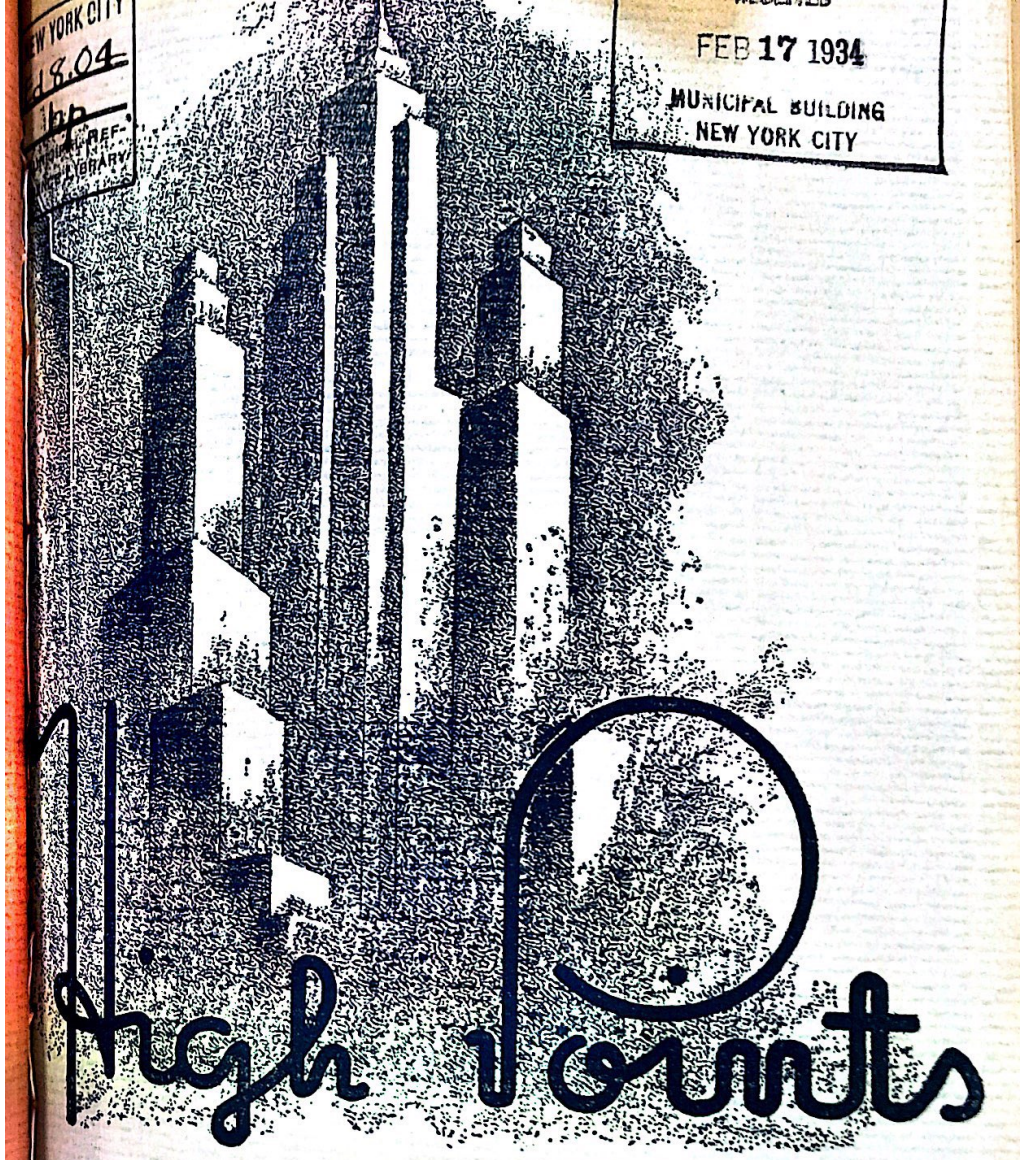

High Points

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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HIGH POINTS

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THERE never was a time in the history of America when education was so vital to us as a nation and so essential to us as citizens. Yet strangely enough the friends of education are finding it necessary to go through the land in order to educate the people on the importance of education. Perhaps we have taken our education too much for granted. Like air and light and water, we have come to assume that it is a natural element; that it will always be with us; that it was ours when we were children for the taking; and that it will be theirs for our children in their turn for their taking.

It is unhappily true that friends of education and believers in democracy must be on the alert as they have never had to be in the past in order to preserve unimpaired this essential tool of democracy. There is an enemy within the gate. It is being urged that we have spent too much money on education; that we are over-educated; that the schools are full of frills and fads and fancies that do our youth more harm than good; that all the education that is necessary for our children is a grounding in the three R's.

Those who thus counsel us would turn back the clock for more than a hundred years. They do not seem to realize that civilization and education go hand in hand; that in fact education is the foundation rock upon which our civilization has been built. Weaken or destroy the foundation and the building erected thereon will totter or fall. It stands to reason that if the universal education that supports and justifies our civilization is undermined, our civilization itself will suffer to a corresponding degree. Retrogression will follow if we allow our educational system to slip back to what some people apparently are willing it should revert to. Such a highly complex civilization as we have built up requires highly trained intelligences for its maintenance and further development. No one would thrust an intricate and highly sensitized machine into the hands of a man just emerging from the jungle and expect him to operate it.

HAROLD L. ICKES
SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR
In his article "Why Modern Education?"
In School Life for December, 1933.

WHAT PART SHALL PUBLIC EDUCATION PLAY IN THE NATIONAL RECOVERY PROGRAM?*

PROBABLY no place is so greatly and immediately affected by economic and social changes throughout the world as is the City of New York. The population of this city composes about one-eighteenth of the entire population of the United States. As this immense mass of people have no direct contact with the soil, as the work of their hands in shop, office, store and factory must find a nation-wide, if not a world-wide market, they are dependent in a marked degree on their fellow-men in other localities, states and nations. The scarcity or abundance of wheat in Minnesota, the quantity and quality of coffee in Brazil, the change of fashions in Paris and London are matters of vital importance to them. Their very existence depends upon the flow of goods, commodities and services to and from their City. Hence it is, that recent world-wide changes in social and economic life have modified and are modifying their occupations, their leisure time and their habits of daily life. Every economic change in the world has a direct or indirect effect upon conditions in the City of New York.

The past 250 years have witnessed in this country two great pioneering eras—the age of geographical pioneering which ended in the '90's, and the age of technological pioneering which is now ending. The first of these stamped upon our people characteristics which are likely to endure for generations and which are, on the whole, admirable. To a far greater degree than any of the peoples of the old world, the American people have been characterized by vigor, hopefulness, self-confidence and generosity. The unprecedented increase in material wealth which has resulted from the second of these great eras still further emphasized these characteristics, particularly our self-confidence.

As a consequence, the danger signals which began to appear some time ago remained unnoticed. It did not begin to occur to us that this terrific pace of technological expansion, this steeply rising curve of production could not continue indefinitely. We failed to notice the ominous persistence of unemployment, the equally ominous decline of farmers' incomes, and the even more ominous disproportion between the increase in productivity and the increase in the purchasing power of the vast majority of our people. We failed, in short, to make governmental, legal, and social changes which the economic trends imperiously demanded. The result was the great depression. It has taken us almost four years of suffering to turn our minds toward the sorely

*An address given before the annual meeting of the New York Academy of Public Education, November 9, 1933.

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needed readjustments. At last, however, we have come to a realization of the problem that confronts us and we are bending our energies towards its solution.

As usual, as has been pointed out by Professor Rugg in his "Culture and Education," the schools have lagged behind. Our big task today is to bring the schools into harmony with the times and a great deal more thought must be given to the large problems awaiting solution if the pupils under our charge are to live happy and useful lives in the new era.

The technological expansion referred to above has gradually and materially reduced society's need of man power. During the period of geographical pioneering, native intelligence and brawn were needed for individual and collective advancement. Today, machines take the place of brawn and the complex civilization which we have developed makes necessary a broader educational foundation than that required by our 18th and 19th century ancestors.

Flashing by danger signals as we were, we neglected to insist that our youth be given a fundamental grounding in the Social Sciences, in Civics, and in Economics, so that they might understand the forces which surround them and which finally engulfed us.

Fortunately we know our mistakes and correct them. The harm that has been done is not irreparable. The wreckage has been cleared away and reconstruction is in progress. When the danger signals are again set we shall heed them.

The practical-mindedness and the indomitable spirit of the American people are such that whenever disaster has occurred, they have always rebuilt a finer and more durable structure than the one existing before. Our great cities of Chicago and San Francisco are evidence of our genius for taking advantage of catastrophe and building anew upon the ruins of a structure that has fallen.

The National Recovery program was formulated to make possible the accomplishment of the largest reconstruction project we have ever undertaken. It is largely psychological and is an attempt to lift ourselves out of the depth of the depression by cooperative effort. To carry out the principles upon which the N. R. A. philosophy is based, we must discard the so-called "rugged individualism" of the past, whose chief characteristic was personal selfishness, and substitute for it an individualism whose talents and abilities will be enlisted in a cooperative effort to help society as a whole.

The conditions which have been brought about by these economic changes should be constantly in the minds of all of us who are training the youth who are to live in this new era.

One of our big mistakes in the past was that we placed insufficient emphasis upon the real values of life. We stressed education as a means for winning financial success. It was the custom to point out how much more earning capacity a college graduate had than a man who had not been to college. Education was regarded somewhat in the nature of a capital asset yielding cash dividends to its possessor. He who accumulated the largest amount received the greatest monetary return. Education was pervaded by the same selfish individualism that pervaded business and industry and the whole social structure. Survival of the fittest was the rule.

The aim today is not to eliminate individualism any more than it is to discourage fitness. The aim is to train individuals with a greater sense of responsibility to the community and a broader understanding of their duty as citizens. General Johnson seeks not to crush Mr. Ford but to persuade him that society, including Mr. Ford himself, will be benefited by a spirit of coöperation rather than by a spirit of non-coöperation.

Individualism we shall continue to exalt, but it must be characterized by devotion to general welfare, rather than to self, or in other words, by good citizenship.

All who have studied the practical working of the National Recovery Program are in agreement that success or failure may depend upon the citizenship training that is given in the public schools.

As a practical matter the "new deal" has assigned to public education almost complete responsibility for the welfare of youth until such time as he may find his place in business or industry as organized under the new order. Indirectly it has raised the school leaving age from seventeen to twenty years.

Public education cheerfully accepts this responsibility and is already at work upon the formulation of a definite program.

In New York City a program committee has been appointed by the Advisory Board on Industrial Education for the purpose of gathering information with a view toward making specific recommendations for the guidance of the school authorities. Educators, health officials and representatives of labor and welfare organizations are members of this committee, so we are assured in advance of a comprehensive and authoritative report.

Thus far a study of the problem has led to the following conclusions:

1. That we may expect further large increases in secondary school registration.
2. That the emphasis in whatever training program we may finally devise for those who will return to school must be upon character development, coöperative citizenship and the necessity for acquiring the habit of work.
3. That until such time as we may foresee where opportunities for employment will open with the revival of business and industry, our vocational training program must be general and must stress the principles that are basic and fundamental in whatever field of endeavor the student may ultimately enter.
4. That a program for apprentice training must be worked out in coöperation with industry, but for

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the time being, at least, with the heaviest part of the burden falling upon the schools.

5. The N.R.A. codes should be revised so as to make more adequate provision for the apprentice training program.
6. That we must establish an even closer alliance with business and industry in order to determine where employment opportunities will exist in the future.

It is, of course, unnecessary to say that our training program must include health education, recreation, and guidance in the matter of the intelligent and beneficial use of leisure time. Whatever this program may encompass, the community must realize that it is going to cost money. We cannot, in effect, increase our school leaving age from seventeen to nineteen or twenty and assume the major portion of the apprentice training work formerly carried on by business and industry without additional expenditures.

Some have suggested that in view of the fact that the problem is partly of Federal creation, the Federal Government should furnish the additional funds necessary for its solution. Actually, we have already called upon the Federal Government for millions of dollars for capital funds to erect new buildings. Whether we should now ask the Federal Government to assist in the matter of funds for non-capital expenditures, such as teachers' salaries, is a question that must have careful consideration.

However we may feel on this question of Federal aid, I think that parents and teachers will agree that we should turn at once to the State and ask that State Aid to Education be restored to the original statutory level, and if possible, increased.

There has been considerable discussion during recent months of the existing system of apportioning State tax receipts among the localities. It has been estimated that the City of New York, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, paid to the State in taxes more than $145,000,000, and received back only about $72,500,000. The point has been made that since the State has many available sources of revenue while the localities have been almost entirely dependent upon the tax on real property, the State should apportion a larger percentage of tax receipts to the localities in which these taxes are paid.

Everyone has agreed that real estate cannot carry any additional tax burden. Increased revenues must come from other sources and in New York most of the other sources are reserved by the State. Accordingly, it is argued that the State must make larger grants to the localities if education is to be maintained at its present standard. The demand for decreased taxes on real estate, the reduction in assessed valuations and the actual amount of real property taxes now in arrears, add to the necessity for larger State grants from the more fruitful sources of revenue now monopolized by the State.

The City of New York at present receives only 5% of the original 2c tax on gasoline and none of the additional cent that has been added for the period of the emergency. This is so despite the fact that more than half of the gasoline used in this State is bought and used in this city. Furthermore, the State has increased the tax on personal incomes, but the city continues to receive only a percentage of one-half of the original tax and will receive none of the additional 1% on gross income. No part of the sales tax is returned to localities where it is paid. In 1933 the Legislature fixed an emergency tax on stock transfers. Although almost all of this tax is collected in the City of New York the State keeps the proceeds. The Comptroller's office reported in July that the excise tax is the only new revenue in which localities will participate.

While the State performs many services which are of benefit to the City and while city taxpayers have the advantage of many governmental functions exercised by the State, it surely seems that some more equitable arrangement than the one now existing might be worked out, and that meanwhile, with the City estopped from augmenting its income by additional taxes on real property, State aid to education should be increased.

Because of the cuts made by the Legislature in 1933, New York City has lost for the school years 1932-1933 and 1933-1934, a total of approximately $7,500,000 in State aid. Instead of receiving larger sums to meet the demands of a larger attendance at school, we have actually received smaller sums. Unless these cuts are restored, we cannot maintain even our existing program, to say nothing of the enlarged program that the "new deal" has made necessary. Certainly the localities are not in a position to make larger appropriations and the only alternative at present is to call upon the State. It is hoped that Governor Lehman's committee will recommend an increase in State aid. You as parents and we who are endeavoring to give boys and girls the training that will enable them to live useful and happy lives in the brighter day that the "new deal" promises, must join in the very practical task of finding the means to finance our program.

So far I have spoken of the material side of the problem. A far more important consideration is that of providing our youth with true appreciation of the real values of life. Our failure in the past to place sufficient emphasis upon real values has been at least in part responsible for the plight in which the world now finds itself. We are in the throes of this depression largely because you and I were never properly trained to understand the economic and social forces which control civilization. Youth in the "new deal" must receive adequate training in Civics and Economics so that they may understand the force controlling the new era better than you and I understood the forces in the old.

Strangely enough, the subjects that are being referred to in some quarters as "fads and frills" are the very sub-

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jects that have been added to our curriculum for the purpose of enriching the lives of our children and enabling them to find delight and contentment in an understanding and appreciation of the things that are of intrinsic worth. I have heard appreciation of Art and Music classified as fads and frills. If these are non-essentials, then every great student of educational values, from Plato's time until the present, has been wrong.

Every great thinker, every great philosopher has emphasized the value of nature study as an educative force and indeed many have urged that all schools be located in the country, but the advocates of economy in New York today are opposing even the inclusion of school gardens in the Board of Education's budget as a fad or a frill.

These very people whose strange notions of political economy, whose materialistic concept of life and whose blindness to intrinsic values caused the collapse and the depression, appear today as advisers on educational policy, saying, in effect, that we must cut from our curriculum all but the teaching of facts.

But what they do not know is that the success of the educative process is measured not by the amount of information a student acquires but by the change that is wrought in him. We are less interested in what our students learn than in what they become. We seek not to load their minds with facts but to enrich their lives intellectually and spiritually. Merely adding to their store of factual knowledge may tend to make their minds encyclopedic, but an encyclopedia is both deadly dull and useless as a guide to successful living. We wish rather to make our youth an admirable companion, thoughtful, sympathetic and understanding.

The aims of our course in art appreciation sometimes referred to as a fad, are in a sense the aims of all education—to engender a love of beauty, to cultivate the habit of thoughtful consideration before making a decision, to enrich life by acquainting youth with the noblest expressions of man, both in thought and deed, throughtout the ages; to afford him an opportunity to create, to assist in developing his talent, whatever it may be, and to teach him to work with thoroughness and delight.

If we, by our united efforts, succeed in carrying out these aims, youth in the "new deal" will find the world a better place in which to live.

HAROLD G. CAMPBELL,
When Deputy and Associate
Superintendent of Schools.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC VALUES IN THE TEACHING OF BOOKKEEPING*

ALMOST a quarter of a century ago I began my career as a teacher of bookkeeping and business law in the secondary schools of New York City. No one then even dreamed of the social values in the teaching of bookkeeping, much less talked or wrote about them. If anyone thought at all of the economic values attached to the teaching of this subject it was at best only in the strictly limited sense of the possibility of earning a living as a result of the mechanical skill or skills acquired which might enable the prospective worker to take care of a set of books. All our teaching was planned with this single aim in view and it was all on a mechanistic basis, much like teaching the apprentice a trade.

The method of teaching was based solely on the educational axiom, "Learn to do by doing." Accordingly, instruction periods were arranged to take two recitation periods as one bookkeeping period lasting 90 or 100 minutes. These were entirely laboratory classes. The pupil had his textbook and his set in which to record his entries. The class was busily engaged in writing—bills, checks, receipts, notes, drafts, and so forth. The teacher sat at his desk with his inevitable and invaluable key. The pupil brought up his work and the checking proceeded. If his form and entries tallied with those in the key, he was permitted to take the next step; if the student's work differed, he went back to his seat to make corrections. With rare exceptions, class discussions were almost unheard of. To test the pupil's tenacity, the sets were made fairly lengthly. This mill ground out bookkeepers. Some went on and became very competent accountants after their additional college and university work. But this gives you the first picture of bookkeeping instruction as it was carried on, in a quiet, peaceful picture.

Gradually a change in the procedure was noticeable. Teachers began to use short sets to furnish drill in particular types of transactions or in the use of special journals, or in the closing of sets. Discussions and questions began to be more evident in bookkeeping classes. Home assignments began to play a more important rôle in the instruction. This meant an increase in explanations. The classroom began to look more alive; there was greater activity on the part of the pupils and the teacher as well. But all questions and explanations still concerned themselves almost entirely with forms and formal record-keeping. They were principally about why this should be a debit and that a

*An address given before the joint meeting of the Lehigh Valley Arts Association and the Pennsylvania State Teachers Association.

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credit; why this should be in the trading section of the Profit and Loss Statement and that in the Administration section rather than in the Selling Expense Group. But we were making better bookkeepers, by dint of more thorough drill, just as one makes a better brick-layer because of more practice and experience. The key to the whole story still lay in the abundant use of the key in the hands of the teacher. So while this gives a more active picture of bookkeeping instruction as the second in the series, it is still totally inadequate if measured in the light of present-day criteria.

The pictures thus far drawn are not based on personal experience and observation. While they were confined largely to New York City, they were not entirely based on local conditions. The writer visited some classes at the Wharton School of Finance (University of Pennsylvania), observed some classes in Westchester County High Schools (New York State), saw some New Jersey classes in the midst of their labors—and always about the same picture was revealed. No one seemed to think the instruction anything but adequate; in fact, every one seemed content in the belief he was doing a mighty fine job!

But change had to come and it did. Gradual at first, the new spirit gained momentum as it progressed. Just how the change came, just who was the father, just where the locale, I suppose no one quite knows. But discoveries in methodology are in the air just as scientific discoveries seem to be, and probably the changes, though gradual, were simultaneous as to locales and originators. Probably many teachers in many perhaps widely separated secondary schools began to sense the need for change and, what is more to the point, began to work along more complete teaching lines. As the bookkeeping and other commercial teaching staff came in greater numbers from the universities, as this group was more and more fully instructed and prepared in psychology and general methodology, the teaching improved. You may recall that in the beginning of our public secondary school commercial work, the teachers were entirely recruited from the private business schools. Naturally they brought their adequate private business school methods over to the public secondary schools. In many instances, the teachers who came to look after the commercial instruction in the public schools came fresh from their positions in business—never having taught anywhere at all, never having thought of teaching, not quite comprehending their responsibility. They were excellent mechanics and they imparted mechanical skill in a thoroughly mechanical way. This is not meant to censure or reprove them, but merely to describe the conditions as they were and to indicate that they could not, in the very nature of things, have been otherwise. Thus present commercial teaching owes much to the pioneer commercial teachers who came directly from business or business schools; but it owes immeasurably more to the gradual infiltration of the university-trained teacher who also

brought a background of practical business experience. Very likely our best bookkeeping and other commercial teachers are those who have a thorough cultural training, adequate knowledge of educational psychology, and a good groundwork in methods of teaching.

Be that as it may, the newer type of teacher also brought another priceless quality to his work—a fresh point of view. He came with an open mind, an inquiring mind. He sensed that he was doing more than just teaching subject matter. Vaguely, at first, he must have realized that he was dealing with personalities, with human beings, with individuals. Gropingly he began to respond to these almost blind instincts and intuitions. Thus the teaching began to improve. We began to move away from the double period of the laboratory kind to the single bookkeeping period instructional in nature, educative in function. Some practice work was still carried on in the classroom, much as it is today. But it was largely for the purpose of demonstration and application. The home assignment was used more and more for further work in application and in larger measure for the much-needed drill and practices. Thus we entered on the third phase,—which we may regard as the third view or picture of bookkeeping instruction.

The recitation period has thus come into its own. Pupils wanted to know and teachers began to see the need for open discussion. When the opening of a set of books was undertaken, there was debate as to the kind of business one wished to begin, with the attendant whys and wherefores, with the comparisons of one type of business as against another or several others. This meant research of a kind; it meant additional topics for home-group conversation, more ways of gently prodding, and perhaps plaguing, the bread-winners at the family table. It made for more interest on the part of the home in the school and its work. It provoked greater, if unsensed or only dimly realized, correlation between one subject and some of the others in the curriculum — notably industrial geography, economics, and the like. There were analyses of forms of organizations, comparisons among them, an unfolding of the backgrounds of business and industry, a view of the relations existing between business and industry on the one hand and finance on the other. The eyes of our young people were gradually opened so that they could more clearly comprehend the busy world with all of its ramifications and so, from their cloistered school-rooms, they were looking out knowingly and appraisingly upon a busy world of affairs, glimpsing the relationships between fields and mines and factories and stores and the homes, understanding the interdependence between the farm and the factory, between the factory and the factor, between the factor and the merchant, between the merchant and the consumer; comprehending, though somewhat dimly, the part that the sugar plantations of Cuba play in the

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happiness of the domestic circle, the need in America of China's rice, India's cotton, England's wool, Japan's toys, Germany's printing presses, Canada's wheat, Brazil's coffee and so on *ad infinitum*.

At this stage, the economic values seem to be coming into their own—inevitably so. While here it takes but the space of a few minutes to relate and thus makes the jump seem sudden and long, it was years in the making. But the conception of economic values inherent in the teaching of bookkeeping and the other business subjects is now an *idée fixe* — with probably no possibility of dislodgment and with everlasting benefit to those taught in this conception of our field of instruction. The boy sees himself part of a busy cosmos, a mere grain in an immense world. But there is developed the sense of responsibility, the feeling that he has an active part to play in a busy world of affairs, that even his small effort may help to enrich the world, be it ever so little. Through discussion and question, a realization comes to the young person of the need for transportation and the part it must play, of the varied forms of transportation, of the advantages and purposes of each form. There is brought out the great diversity of means of communication, with the advantages and purposes of each of these. There is an awareness and a significance in all of these activities. Our student is throbbing to the pulse we quicken in him.

But this is not all. In our teaching of bookkeeping, we also endeavor to teach, incidentally, it is true, something of the materials we discuss or which are mentioned in our transactions. It is not enough to talk about gingham. Should not our boys see some and know what it is, what it is for? Should we not show samples of rayon, tell the ways in which it differs from silk, from cotton, the way it is made, what it is used for? We talk of wool, worsted, buckram, linings; we talk of various kinds of woods, of steel, iron, aluminum, of paints, varnishes, enamels. Should these be just meaningless terms, empty words, devoid of any significance? Would it not be more valuable if our young people could know something of the sources of these and other materials, of their uses? Would it not make for a richer life, a fuller meaning, a more understanding person, a better economic appraisal? The more we understand these ramifications of our active society, the better we appreciate our interconnections, the more intelligent we must become in our appreciation of the sense of oneness that exists perforce between us and all others. The world is but one large family, all the states but one great nation, all peoples but one people. From this feeling, tolerance must grow until it becomes universal. And it is my proper thesis to point out that the study of the economic values of our subject will lead to this all-embracing understanding of the true brotherhood of man.

It must be understood, however, that these values are not merely economic. Intimately bound up with them are the social values, too. As we observe this fourth phase or picture, we become aware of its universality. Everywhere, bookkeeping and the rest of the commercial field of education, is now conceived of as rich in both economic and social values. The literature of our subject teems with discussions of economic and social values. Educational meetings make these phases the dominant notes in their programs. Professors and lecturers cannot say too much, or say that much too emphatically, about economic and social values. This seems to be the universal condition now extant. What a remarkable march forward this is!

But even that is not all, for there are still other social values that we now consciously aim to develop. "Accounting, stenography, and typewriting are no longer merely skill subjects, tool subjects, under our present conception of education for business. The teaching of these subjects is directed toward the development of powers of analysis of business phenomena, of the understanding of relations, of certain fundamental qualities of accuracy, thoroughness, reliability, of carry through, of initiative, of high standards of achievement." So says Dr. John L. Tildsley, one of the district superintendents of our metropolitan city. Dr. Tildsley's chief function is to improve the teaching in our high schools. The quotation given above comes from his 1932 Annual Report entitled, "Professional Aliveness of the High School Teachers of the City of New York," page 10. Four hundred pages later, on the last page in fact, he pays us a very high tribute, in these words, "The teaching of stenography and typewriting and of accounting has been in large part transformed during the past four years by the adoption of just such a procedure. . . . As an outcome of the Commercial Education Survey, the teachers of these subjects accepted as their working ideals the development of certain qualities, habits, and attitudes which the business men had stressed: accuracy, thoroughness, dependability, high standards of achievement, initiative, ability to get on with other people.

"They appointed committees on ways and means of developing each of these traits. They discussed them in department meetings. They made one of them the subject of each annual convention. The result was almost revolutionary, not merely in the improvement in the teaching process, but in the growth of teachers and in the expansion in their conception of the teaching function."

In his article in this month's issue of the *Balance Sheet*, "What's on the Next Page in Social Adjustment in Business Education?" Mr. Irving R. Garbutt, Director of Commercial Education, Cincinnati, Ohio, says, in part: "Through this coördinated form of learning, the pupil is able to develop a comprehension of business as a social factor, while at the same time he acquires a means of entering business life through some specialized avenue.

"I assume, then, this terminology to mean that a curriculum of education

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for business should include education for general efficiency, education for one's specialized field of service, education for social relationships, and education for citizenship."

Some two or three years ago the High School Teachers Association of New York City undertook a very ambitious program of study and investigation, "Determining the Objectives of Secondary Education." This work was done through the medium of a large general committee which was subdivided into a number of smaller ones. In laying out the ground-work, some nine main divisions were agreed upon. It is interesting to note that the fourth of these was "Social Attitudes." The reports of the sub-committees are but just being studied by the faculties of our city secondary schools and the final report should be ready shortly.

In the April issue of *The Journal of Business Education*" appeared "Social Objectives of Business Education," by Leverett S. Lyon of the Brookings Institutions at Washington. In this article he lists five social objectives for business education, saying, "First, it should be an objective of business education to make clear the significance of business in modern society—the rôle which business plays. . . . In our economic world, business has a responsibility for the organization and utilization of those resources which provide us with the goods and services which make up all forms of economic consumption.

"A second social objective of business study should be to lead to an understanding of government. It should be a social objective of business education to make clear that the organization rôle in economic society is played in part by our governments—national, state and local.

"A third social objective for which business education should strive is to furnish society with those organizers who can best play the rôle of business men as that rôle has been suggested above.

"A fourth social objective of business education should be to enlighten students concerning the social and economic problems of the world.

"A final social objective which I should like to state is the desirability of giving to all students a sense of the meaningfulness of every occupation."

You will note that Mr. Lyon really is talking of both social and economic values in his article. These cannot be easily separated. Do we need any more evidence?

In the Spring of 1931 there was organized in New York City the Metropolitan Business Education Conference. The prime movers were Dr. Paul S. Lomax of New York University, Mr. Nathaniel Altholz, Director of Commercial Education in our city, Mr. Alexander S. Massell, Principal of the Central School of Business and Arts, and a number of others, including the present speaker. With this group representing education were associated a number of men representing business and business executives—the banks, insurance companies, public utilities, and so on.

It was our purpose to learn from business people what they want in their employees and it was their purpose to learn from us what we are doing to prepare our young people for business. This conference group, including about 150, meets once annually, to keep on learning and profiting. Were these men concerned much with subject matter? Not at all; they took that for granted. Their main care was what personal qualities we were attempting to develop, how well or ill we were succeeding and what could be done for improving the technique of developing the desirable personal qualities more effectively. They were examining closely into the social values of our commercial curricula and, to develop a means for improving this phase of teaching, the educators were divided into two committees—a stenographic office practice committee and a bookkeeping office practice committee. It was the speaker's good fortune to be the chairman of this latter group.

Both of these committees, though working independently, worked along similar lines previously agreed upon. We selected topics and listed them in one column; in a parallel column we indicated the personal qualities that it was desirable to develop; in a third column, also parallel, we listed the situations for developing these personal qualities. For the best results this plan should be integrated with the regular course of study. This means that the teacher should be constantly aware of the desirable qualities and should be searching out or making the situations in which these personal qualities might best be developed. Would you be interested in knowing what were some of these personal qualities we thought could be appropriately developed in the Bookkeeping Office Practice syllabus? Here are some: judgment, adaptability, initiative, accuracy, intelligence, neatness, dependability, responsibleness, time-economy, industry, thoroughness, tact, appearance, confidence, pleasantness, courtesy, loyalty, willingness, orderliness. This seems a fairly complete list; but it is not intended to be exhaustive, merely suggestive.

In what direction were we working, then? In what direction are we looking now? Call it towards "social and economic values," if you like. I like to think of these forward steps as looking to the development of the full man or woman, the completely integrated individual. I like to think that we teachers are consciously teaching people, rather than subjects; that we are trying to unfold personalities, rather than bodies of knowledge; that we are causing our students to find themselves and their places; that we are awakening in our boys and girls a consciousness of power and a desire to use it for society; that we are helping them sense the rights and privileges that are theirs and the duties and obligations that are no less theirs. In the words of Mr. Thomas R. Cox, member of the New York Stock Exchange, and active worker in the Metropolitan Business Education Conference movement, we should teach "so as to produce an inquisitive

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mind, train for citizenship, character, and social responsibility."

May I not leave with you just one final thought. Professor Lloyd L. Jones of Ohio State University also sounds the call for "education for economic citizenship," and says, in the last convention of the National Education Association, "Education for the consumer is in the making—the problem of education for economic citizenship is on our front door step. The issue cannot be dodged." The subcommittee on Commercial Education, working with and for the Committee on Course of Study of the New York City High School Teachers Association previously referred to — a subcommittee of which this author was the chairman — reported that "All teaching is of and for the development of the individual, bearing in mind that he is to live as a member of Society; that all training is education and that there should be no distinction between commercial education, general education, scientific education, etc." This sub-committee further recommended "that there be added to every secondary school curriculum . . . a course in what we might designate as Basic Business Principles. This course should be given to every secondary school pupil of the first and second terms. In general it will contain topics of universally needed information concerning the intelligent conduct of every day business affairs. . . ." You and I are not so narrow as to wish to reserve a training for social and economic citizenship only for those who study Bookkeeping or even the entire commercial curriculum. Generously, then, we offer this last to all students. Will you not help to spread this gospel?

SIMON J. JASON.

Walton High School.

WHY STUDY MODERN LANGUAGES—NOW?*

IT is an old story that those who are most immersed in a particular kind of work and environment become blind to many things that strike a stranger in the field, at once. You may not see the forest because of the trees. Your daily classroom tasks so crowd in upon you that you have no opportunity to get off somewhere at a distance and from a height see your work as a whole. Now I, perhaps, may not see the trees because of the forest. As principal of a school I am likely to see the school as a whole, and not as an aggregation of many minds, many fields of work, many little individual problems. Of course, we need both points of view—both of us should see both trees and forest. Between us we may arrive at a better understanding.

The first thing we must do is to look at our work dispassionately, objectively. That is one of the hardest things for the human mind to do. I doubt whether it ever does it completely. In fact we might say that education is the process of developing the mind to see the world objectively. A case in point: some years ago schools opened late because of the infantile paralysis epidemic. In New York the time thus lost to teaching was used for Teachers Institutes at which it was hoped teachers would be stimulated to think more deeply about their great professional mission. The topic assigned for discussion was "Developing Right Habits of Thinking and of Work." Elaborate arrangements were made for teacher participation, and the like. The results that I saw were not only laughable, but sad. Teachers could not get away from the subjective phase. They exhibited a lamentable lack of the ability to dissociate personal interest from scientific observation of fact. The discussions degenerated into violent and vociferous rehashes of arguments proving that each speaker's particular subject is the *sine qua non* of education and that such value is so apparent that it need not be questioned. There is no doubt that to each speaker there was no question of the value. The trouble is that each subject in the curriculum proved its claim in the same way.

Let's see if we here, today, cannot lift ourselves above our purely selfish reactions and view our topic objectively.

We hear much of a crisis in education. Some of us are terribly worried about it. Worry is like rust that corrodes a machine. It has no earthly use. We worry either about a great many things that "ain't" or we worry about things that are so constant that they ought to be a sort of habit—something not to be worried about. So it is in this matter of a crisis in education. We forget our history. There has always been a crisis in every field of human endeavor. All life is a change—hence a crisis. I cannot remember when we have not been faced by some serious situation. Politicians, scientists, literary critics, and also educators tell us throughout the ages that a turning point in the history of civilization, and in their specialty in particular, has been reached at the time they deliver themselves of their wise thoughts. So it is nothing unusual that today we are faced with a crisis in education.

It so happens that at this time our educational crisis is accentuated because it occurs simultaneously with a serious financial crisis. When a man finds his pocketbook getting flat, he begins to question his expenditures in every field. When things go well with him he is not so critical about how his money goes. Therefore, at the present time in education the ordinary man who never thought much about educational procedures is beginning to wonder what he is getting for his money. There follows a shaking of the accepted. Is it solid or is it flimsy stuff? There follows a "from Missouri" attitude. Justification is demanded. Naturally, those subjects feel it first that are of most recent introduction, that haven't the weight

*An address delivered before the New York Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, December 9, 1933.

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of tradition behind them, that haven't withstood the attacks of time. Languages are therefore bound to come into the question zone. But, you may argue that languages have been an important part of a school curriculum for ages. Don't forget that while that is true, it is true only as a part of a secondary school curriculum and that such curriculum affected only in the past a small part of our population, a particular social class of our population that went to the private schools; that it is very recently that our people as a mass have become high school and language minded. The ordinary man, therefore, questions their value and his ignorance is used by those who would reduce taxes, who would lighten the burden of taxation on wealth by taxing the spiritual growth of the mass of mankind. It is rather easy to convince the ordinary man that it is a waste of time and energy for the average child to study foreign languages. The rich may travel, they may engage in international business, in the diplomatic service, and so on, but why in the name of common sense foreign language study for the mass, particularly in this country where one language will carry them for thousands of miles? Oh yes, they will admit that in Europe it may be otherwise. There countries speaking a variety of languages are very close to one another. Through the ages even the common man has learnt the value of knowing the language of his neighbors but, says our common man, that has nothing to do with the U. S. A. To the north of us they speak our language; to the south of us they speak Spanish (he generally forgets the Portuguese), and those "spics" down there don't count anyway. Just what can we give as our answer? Well, how have we justified the teaching of foreign languages in the past? First we have emphasized the utilitarian value, but we ourselves, we educators, may well question that value as one that applies to the great mass. How many of the thousands of boys and girls now engaged in the study of a foreign language will ever actually use that language in a practical way? One in a class? I question even that number. After all, even those that may travel can get along fairly well without a school knowledge of the language. We have all seen the little high school miss try to speak her high school French to a Parisian gendarme only to be asked in perfect English, "What is it Mademoiselle wishes to say?" And the man stopped by our graduate with his high school German is, as likely as not, to ask him in English, "You are an American, aren't you?" Furthermore, can we really teach the great mass of pupils so to master the foreign language that it is of practical use? Most of our pupils have two years of a foreign language, studied at the wrong time when they are already too old to begin it. A few study it for three years, a handful for four years. Even the four-year study is not sufficient except for most gifted pupils. What about the utilitarian value within our own country? Aren't there positions for correspondents, clerks in commercial houses doing a foreign business, salesmen in stores having a foreign clientèle? Just let us examine that for a moment. There are more Spaniards in New York City, for example, to whom Spanish is a native tongue and who speak a finished English than there are jobs for Spanish correspondents, salesmen, and the like. The same is true of Italian and German. I am not so sure about French, but even there the difference between supply and demand cannot be very great.

No, the utilitarian value doesn't help for the great mass of our students who are taking up a foreign language. What, then, about the disciplinary value? I think we all admit that the disciplinary value of subject matter is of tremendous importance. I think that to a large extent we can convince even the common man of that value. But, can we convince him that foreign languages must be studied to get that value? He used to be convinced fairly well in terms of Latin. Well, you know what has happened to Latin in recent years. Our own school has more than doubled in size, from 4700 student eight years ago to over 10,000 now. Has our Latin doubled? Not at all; quite to the contrary it is one-half of what it was when we had less than half the number of pupils that we have now. And note please that the major part of this decrease in Latin came before the depression, before there was any financial crisis. Furthermore, let us be honest with ourselves. How many teachers know how to get the disciplinary value out of the study of foreign languages? When assembled in convention, we justify the teaching of our subject by citing its disciplinary values but when we, as individuals, get into the classroom, disciplinary values seem to evaporate. I have observed many lessons in foreign languages. I have yet to find the teacher who made the disciplinary value apparent. We seem to think that the disciplinary value will come as a by-product. It won't. Unless we consciously set these values before us as a goal, unless we make our pupils thoroughly conscious of these values and get them to make them their own goals, we shall arrive nowhere as far as disciplinary values go. Until teachers learn the importance of the step of dissociation and put it into constant practice, disciplinary values have only an academic meaning. We shall have to start in the training schools for foreign language teachers, training them in a new procedure, before we can justify the teaching of foreign languages from the disciplinary standpoint. But, grant the disciplinary values in foreign languages, and grant that our teachers know how to get them out of their students, are we so sure that foreign languages are the best medium for disciplining the mind of the great mass of our students? Personally, I think foreign languages are of very great importance in this direction. Language and thought are so intricately interwoven, language so conditions our thinking that it is of paramount importance as a discipline. Particularly does a foreign language

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adapt itself to this kind of mental training. Our native tongue becomes so habitual to us that we think and speak in clichés. The study of a foreign language compels us to stand above ourselves mentally and to observe our own mental processes in clothing our thoughts in their proper garments. We all admit that reflective thinking is the highest characteristic distinguishing man from the animal world. Thinking is but speaking to ourselves and such speaking is greatly determined by our language ability. Hence the importance of perfecting our mastery over the thinking-language combination and perfecting it in a field that gives us so many opportunities for its practice. All right, you and I are convinced of the disciplinary value. Do you think it will be an easy matter to convince the mass that pays the bills? I doubt it.

Now let us take up the cultural value of the study of a foreign language. Here we have an old friend. What language teacher will not wax enthusiastic over the value of her subject in this direction? Just what do we mean by its cultural value? Judging by what I have heard from most of the language teachers that I know, it means getting to know about foreign customs, architecture, art, music, literature, and so forth, purely a factual proposition. "But," says the ordinary man, "why must I study a foreign language with its 'der, die and das,' its irregular verbs, its case endings, and so on, in order to learn that?" "Nay," says he, "quite to the contrary, I am stopped in my cultural development because I spend my time on language intricacies when I might employ it in reading books in English about Spain, Germany, France, etc.; when I might read the fine translations of ten of a foreign poet's dreams while I am puzzling over the grammatical difficulties of one poem in the original—and then not getting the cultural value because the difficulties have disgusted me with the poet and with what he says. There are the movies to which I can go to get a fairly good idea of the architecture, customs, habits, products, and so forth, of foreign countries. There are the travel books that I may read. There is the foreign music that I may hear, and so on. "Why not," says the ordinary man, "a course on the government, civilization, art, music, etc., of the important foreign countries, rather than a study of the language of one or at most two such countries?" I also ask, "Why not?".

Closely associated with the cultural value comes the avocational value. I know of nothing that so characterizes a man's cultural place as the interest he displays and the joy he gets in fields other than those necessary to his vocation. Today we call the education that is to develop the individual along avocational lines education for leisure. Never has there been a time when education for leisure has been of greater importance. The conditions making for this sort of education have been at work for a long time. The present superabundance of leisure for the masses has simply

emphasized the need for that kind of education. There will be less and less time-consuming and physical-energy-consuming work for the average man to do. The four-hour day and the five-day week are no longer Utopian dreams. They are almost upon us. What value has the study of foreign languages as an instrument in achieving the aims of education for leisure? Theoretically, a very great value. We can all vision the lawyer, the doctor, the dentist, the druggist, the policeman, the bookkeeper, the secretary, the salesgirl at Wanamaker's, the teachers, etc. (they are all high school graduates) rushing home from work eschewing the poker game, the bridge party, the dance, the golf course, etc., to read their favorite foreign language authors. Yes, we can imagine it. In reality, it just isn't so, except for a very small minority. By this time the metropolitan area has graduated hundreds of thousands of high school students who have studied foreign languages. How many book shops are there flourishing on the trade in foreign books (discount the immigrants and their children who learn the foreign language at home)? No, I am afraid as a practical proposition we cannot convince the mass of empty pocketbook-holders that the two to five years spent by the average high school student in foreign language study has produced an acceptable return in leisure value. They see their own sons and daughters and know better.

Please note that I have not denied the values thus far discussed. My contention is that theoretically these values are sound. I go further and say that the finest kind of teaching should bring out all these values and make them practical values. What I do wish to emphasize is that thus far we have not delivered the goods in terms of the great mass and that, therefore, these values are not convincing to them and are bound to be questioned most seriously.

Now I come to what I consider the real justification for the study of foreign languages, a justification that I think we can sell to the general public. It is what *I* consider the cultural value, a value that does not come about from the amassing of factual knowledge of foreign countries, but that consists of the liberalization of the student's mind, a liberalization particularly of importance in a country such as ours that has been and that is apt to continue to be a country with a provincial mind. To me the cultured man is not the man that knows so many things, but the man who has an open mind; who has what I call intellectual curiosity; who has a highly developed receptivity to the other fellow's point of view; who is willing to grant that the other fellow, the stranger, may have something worth while to give; and who is willing to try to understand that other fellow, that stranger. If foreign languages are studied and taught from that point of view, they have a cultural value second to that of no other subject in the curriculum. If I can so teach my pupils through the medium of a foreign langauge that they

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begin to see that our way is not the only way of expressing thought, that the stranger, the "dirty foreigner, spic, dago, frog, heiney," etc., also are expressing worth while thoughts in a very clever way that gives me a deeper insight into the thought because I begin to notice these various phases as exemplified in the various souls of people, then I am beginning to tear the blinders from my eyes and I am beginning to realize the wonders of thought and the wonders of diverse humanity. Then indeed is my mind becoming liberalized and I am becoming a person of culture.

We all know that a year of travel in a foreign land is worth more than two years of high school study. Why? Because we have seen palaces and art museums? We can see those here. Because we have seen people dressed in a different fashion? We can see that here in our movies, on the stage, in picture books, and elsewhere. No; the value comes because we have rubbed shoulders with and observed the Frenchman sitting next to us at the Café de la Paix; it comes because we have mingled with the crowd drinking at Kranzler, Unter den Linden; it comes because we have walked in the Sunday parade in the Prado in Madrid; it comes because we have made merry with other human beings at the Fiesta in Rome. We have captured the meaning of another soul. Language is the crystallization of the soul of a people. I think it was Goethe who said that with the mastery of each additional language man acquires an additional soul. What more liberalizing, what more cultural, what more precious than to grow in soul? This is the great value that I would place upon the study of a foreign language: the acquiring of an insight into the spirit of another civilization, the acquiring of an additional soul for myself.

This is the value that we can sell to our ordinary man. Never more than now do our people realize the importance for us to understand the soul of other peoples. Never more than now do Americans realize the importance of being international-minded. The American public has awakened to the fact that we are not an isolated people, self-sufficient in ourselves — the provincial attitude. More than ever before do we realize that our safety, our well-being, our progress, our happiness depend upon our understanding and coöperation with other peoples to make the world a better place in which to live. That is the kind of international-mindedness to which I refer. You, the teachers of foreign languages, must be in the vanguard in preparing our youth for this liberal, cultured, international-mindedness.

Finally, let me make this point. The greatest justification of any subject, foreign languages or not, is the teacher herself. The greatest defense that you can have for the instrument that you use to carry on the tasks of your vocation, is your own personality. Be sure teachers of boys and girls that no one will bother to question the means you use. All will want to come under your influence; parents will want their children under your influence. No subject matter is greater than its teacher. In yourselves be living examples of that liberalized, cultured international-mindedness that our country needs, that it will be only too happy to find in you.

To sum up:

1. We should begin the study of languages earlier in the life of the child, or make no attempt, except with a limited exceptional group to teach language as a tool subject.
2. We must make ourselves better teachers of children to get more of the values that I have discussed.
3. We must give our support to all the phases of research work in guidance to perfect a procedure that will enable us to classify our pupils into those fit for this or that value of language study so that we may not waste time in attempting the impossible, nor overlook hidden gold mines.
4. The proper study of mankind is Man. Language is his most common and most important means for revealing his soul. Language is the means for revealing man to each succeeding generation of mankind. Language study is the subject for that purpose.

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.
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THE INDUCTIVE FALLACY IN SCIENCE TEACHING

SCIENCE teachers are generally agreed that one of the important aims in science teaching is to develop in the pupil the ability to think "scientifically." A question which would seem to arise immediately is, "What is the scientific method of thinking?" Unfortunately, there is almost perfect unanimity among those science teachers who have attempted to answer this question. The reply almost invariably given is that scientific method is identical with the so-called "inductive method" first enunciated by Francis Bacon, and later made popular by John Stuart Mill.

I say that this general agreement among science teachers, that the inductive method is the method of science, is unfortunate, because it seems to me that this notion is entirely erroneous. In fact, ever since the sixteenth century, when the renaissance of science began, the work of actual scientists has demonstrated the utter naïveté of the Baconian conception of scientific method. As is well known, the attempt of Bacon himself to discover laws, or "forms," as he called them, by means of his inductive tables was farsical.

It is not merely of historical interest to inquiry why the "sage of Verulam" failed to contribute anything of

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value to science in spite of strenuous efforts; such an inquiry will help us to understand the nature of his method. The secret of Bacon's failure lies not with himself, for almost all will recognize his genius, but rather with his method. It might be instructive, therefore, to examine his conception of scientific procedure, a conception which three centuries of scientific achievement has not been able to shake out of the heads of modern "philosophers" of science.

The inductive method, as formulated by Bacon, is simple enough, a fact which may perhaps account for its popularity. In fact, according to Verulam, no thinking is necessary! All that the "scientist" need do is to construct tables classifying all the facts relating to a certain phenomenon, the cause of which we are seeking. In one table he puts all the circumstances which occur concomitantly with the phenomenon. Mill later called this the "Canon of Agreement." In another table he lists all the circumstances which do not occur concomitantly with the phenomenon. This is Mill's "Cannon of Difference." Finally, if measurements can be made, he tabulates those circumstances which vary concomitantly with the given phenomenon. This is equivalent to what modern statisticians call a correlation table. Once these tables have been constructed, all that remains for the investigator to do is to "extract" the law which governs the phenomenon in question. This is an easy thing to do, since according to Bacon and Mill, the law stares him right in the face. In fact, Bacon remarks that any mediocre intellect can become a great scientist with the aid of his method.

Now, a moment's reflection will reveal the absurdity of this conception of scientific method. If all the facts and circumstances connected with a given phenomenon were known, what need would there be of further investigation? In order to construct complete inductive tables, one would have to be omniscient. And if the tables must necessarily be incomplete, as is readily seen, what guarantee is there that we have not left out the one circumstance which is causally related to the phenomenon under investigation?

Anyone who takes the trouble to analyze the actual work of great scientists will observe that they proceed by a method which is as different from the "inductive method" as night is from day. They do not begin an investigation by assembling heterogeneous facts. What starts research is usually some puzzling contradiction either in pure theory or between newly discovered facts and old theory. Alternative hypotheses arise either in the mind of the single scientist or more usually among a small group of workers interested in the problem. The implications of each hypothesis are carefully deduced (with the aid of mathematics, whenever possible), and an attempt is made to discover a realm of the subject matter wherein the implications of any two alternative hypotheses will be mutually contradictory. When such a realm is discovered, a crucial experiment is performed to determine which of the two conflicting sets of implications is compatible with known (or discoverable) relevant facts. If this can be done, and one set of implications is shown to be belied by the actual relationships in nature, then by perfectly rigorous syllogistic reasoning we can conclude that the hypothesis from which these implications were deduced is necessarily false. In this manner each hypothesis can be tested in turn. If one or more hypotheses remain unshaken, they are held as *tentative* explanations of the phenomenon; and if all fall by the axe of verification, new ones must be sought. It goes without saying, that no matter how many times an hypothesis has withstood the test of experiment or observation, it is always open to question whenever new relevent evidence is forthcoming. The prevailing theories and also some of the so-called "facts" of science (which are really propositions purporting to express symbolically actual natural relations) are thus seen to be nothing but hypotheses which have thus far survived all tests.

To return to science teaching, shall we encourage our pupils to use the inductive method which so many of them already employ only too well? For, in the final analysis, it reduces itself to the familiar process of jumping to conclusions. A colleague attempted to justify his determination to teach inductively by giving me an example of how he used the Baconian method in a lesson on "Oxidation". His procedure was very simple. He tried to burn a large piece of coal with a bunsen burner. It failed to kindle. The coal was pulverized, and of course it burned. Then a large piece of wood was kindled with difficulty, but smaller pieces burned readily. A few other similar observations were made. Now this teacher was elated because one of the pupils "discovered" in this series of *carefully chosen* circumstances (a doctored-up Baconian table) the principle that oxygen unites more readily with a substance which is finely divided than with one that exists as a large body. In fact, he looked chagrined when informed that he was encouraging his pupils to commit a very serious logical fallacy. It is important to keep in mind that a conclusion is not necessarily valid merely because the teacher believes it and, by clever manipulation, succeeds in getting one of his pupils to state it.

When science teachers come to realize the great difficulty of the method used by outstanding scientists, they will talk less glibly about teaching every pupil to think scientifically. Those who understand that most students have decidedly limited intellectual powers will feel well repaid for their efforts if they can succeed in developing in their pupils a deep appreciation and respect for genuine science.

In fact, I, for one, would be well satisfied if I could impart to my pupils the insight wherewith to distinguish between science and pseudo-science. Would that I, and possibly some of my colleagues, possessed such insight

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ourselves! It is often difficult to escape the suspicion that, after all, one of the reasons why so little real science is taught in the schools is that so few teachers have ever studied science or even have a clear notion of what it is. There is no royal road to knowledge — not even for high school teachers.

NORMAN LOWENSTEIN.
James Madison High School.

THE DRAMA OF SOCIAL CRITICISM*

IN our two previous discussions, we considered the new American poetry and the new American novel. Tonight let us taken another aspect of literature, namely, the new note of social criticism in the drama.

From 1700 till the closing years of the following century, few plays of exceptional merit came from the pen of English writers. The most successful were the conventional comedies of Goldsmith and Sheridan, and the highly sensational dramas of Bulwer Lytton. Practically all the great poets of the Romantic and Victorian Eras tried their hand at this form of literature, but their poetic and closet dramas are forgotten today.

And why did they fail so completely? The reason is this: immediate problems of the day, social, political, and economic, lives and loves of mythical heroes. This was the essence of Victorianism — to content itself with seeing the world through rose-colored glasses. The material for splendid drama was ever present, the workman was ever absent. Such was the deplorable state of the drama in England from 1700 to the end of the third quarter of the nineteenth century.

Then there came a great change—an awakening that was distinctly for the better—and Hendrik Ibsen, the Norwegian dramatist introduced to the English people about 1875, was the cause of this change, for he wrote dramas of social criticism. And what was this drama of social criticism? Simply a play centred around an important current social problem, like the struggle between capital and labor, or around an evil, like prostitution, and designed to show the futility of existing conditions with the hope of wiping out the evil and thereby improving society. This type of play is to the drama what the humanitarian novel is to fiction.

Before proceeding further with the subject of this talk, I should like briefly to discuss the moral ideas and the practical methods of Ibsen, the man who so greatly influenced the theatre of today. He cared not a whit for the romantic plays which pictured life lovely for the pure and clean of heart and wretched for the miserable sinner. His formula was this: Let us have the Truth at all hazards. In society today there are many vices and forms of hypocrisy, many wrongs that are ferreted away and glossed over by convention. To avoid these, we must first centre the gaze of publicity on them, we must look into the causes of disease (physical as well as mental), examine the methods and motives of fakers; and having exposed the wrong, we must summon all the intelligence, courage, and honesty at our command to correct it. These were the principal moral *ideas* of Ibsen. And what were his practical *methods?* He desired to tear down the system of injustice that gave the rich hypocrite greater privileges than the honest pauper. He preached the doctrine of greater freedom for women. He examined the relationship existing between members of families, and showed that it was too often based on tradition and sentiment rather than on genuine affection. And about each of these theses he constructed a play, often most relentless in its conclusion, yet designed to call the attention of an erring society to the evil with a desire for its correction. A Doll's House" took up the question of the emancipation of women; "The Pillars of Society" cast a spotlight on institutions, hitherto considered respectable; "Ghosts" and "The Wild Duck" mercilessly exposed the evils of hereditary disease, and so on. Plays of this type were loaded with dynamite. The devastating ideas stood out in strong relief against the emptiness, the monotony, and the insignificance of the plays of the preceding two centuries —and the number of playwrights they influenced to write social dramas is legion.

Limited time forces me to confine my discussion of the drama of social criticism in England to two of the leading writers of the day, George Bernard Shaw and the late John Galsworthy. The former's essay on "The Quintessence of Ibsenism" reveals the degree to which the Norwegian dramatist influences him. Shaw expresses his method as a playwright in no uncertain terms when he says: "I spare no labor to find out the right thing to say; and then say it with the most exasperating levity, as if it were the first thing that came into my head. And all the time the real joke is that I am in earnest". Right there we have a striking example of Shaw's wit and paradox. First, last, and always he is the dramatist of revolt—a critic who, as he himself says, with the most exasperating levity pokes fun at what society at large has come to hold most sacred. Therein lies the principal difference between the Norwegian and his Irish pupil; one has no humor; the other, a superabundance of it.

The characters in all Shaw's plays are talking characters—vehicles, as it were, for his ideas. They talk much, simply because their author has much to say—and they talk cleverly. As Shaw himself puts it, "I'm up to my chin in the life of the times". In all, he has written about thirty-five plays in which he has ridiculed almost every conceivable belief and doctrine. I have time to mention but a few.

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* A talk given over Radio Station WNYC, December 2, 1933—the third of a series of five talks on "Trends in Twentieth Century Literature."

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"Pygmalion", a treatise on education, asks the question: What is society going to do with the cockneys and illiterates after they have been provided with half-baked ideas and raised to a station above their present social level? "Man and Superman" pricks the conventional romantic bubble that in matrimony man seeks woman. Shaw holds the opposite view. Nor do even famous historical personages escape his caustic wit and sparkling satire. Napoleon in "The Man of Destiny" is portrayed as a little boor who had greatness thrust upon him. The famed Russian queen in "The Great Catherine" fares little better—nor do Shakespeare, Caesar, and Cleopatra in other plays.

The late John Galsworthy, like Shaw, used the drama as a weapon for social reform, but had recourse to tragedy to gain his ends rather than to satire and ridicule. Let us hear what he says of the drama: "Every grouping of life and character has its inherent moral; and the business of the dramatist is so to pose the group as to bring that moral poignantly to the light of day". And further on, he states that there are three methods open to the playwright. One is "to present to the public, by a distortion of plot and character, the view and prejudices which the public has already accepted. Another is to present to the public those views and codes of life in which the dramatist believes. The third course is to set before the public no cut-and-dried codes, but the phenomena of life and character, selected and combined, but not distorted, by the dramatist's outlook, set down without fear, favor or prejudice, leaving the public to draw such poor moral as nature may afford." This third method requires an unbiassed attitude, a deep knowledge of, and a broad sympathy with, and a curiosity as to, life for its own sake—and it is the method of Galsworthy. Society as it is, he reveals to us with few villains or heroes, but a feeling of sympathy for the downtrodden. In his first play, "The Silver Box", he shows that before the law the rich are judged by standards different from those governing the poor. Here we find Mrs. Jones, a good woman interested solely in the proper upbringing of her family, the innocent victim of a peculiar twist in the law that jails her worthless husband for the theft of a silver box and at the same time frees the son of a member of Parliament who has stolen a purse. In his last play, "Escape", Galsworthy returns to a favorite theme of his—the conflict between an individual and a time-honored social convention. A war hero, in attempting to prevent the arrest of a lady of questionable reputation in Hyde Park, is indirectly the cause of a detective's death. He is sentenced to five years' penal servitude at Dartmoor prison where, driven to distraction by the monotony of prison life, he resolves to escape in the fog—and does. The remainder of the play takes up the various experience he has in his search for freedom, ending in his giving himself up to save a young rector's conscience. The social question that Galsworthy presented in this play

aroused much discussion pro and con—though with his accustomed detachment Galsworthy takes the part of neither side. This is the question: Is the *spirit* of the law backed by the universal feeling of humanity more just than the *letter* of the law? These plays I have mentioned are of course but two examples of his method of presenting a social problem to his audience. As we look over all his dramas, we find him less original and brilliant than Shaw, but more logical in the construction of his plots and more impartial in presenting them.

Although in America the drama of social criticism has not taken such a deep hold, it is aptly represented by two present outstanding dramatists, Eugene O'Neill and Elmer Rice. In "Beyond the Horizon", O'Neill preached the doctrine that happiness consists more in anticipation than in realization. While it may be true that "just around the corner there is a rainbow in the sky", one can be sadly disillusioned when he has turned the corner. In "The Hairy Ape", we have the eternal conflict between the upper and the lower classes of society and the realization that, like oil and water, they'll never mix. Yank, the man who doesn't "belong" to the world of Mildred Douglas has nothing for her and her kind but uncontrolled contempt and, in a spirit of derision for mankind in general, enters a gorilla's cage where he is crushed to death by the animal. In "All God's Chilluns Got Wings", O'Neill has taken up the very difficult subject of miscegenation and has shown that intermarriage of colored and white people is attended with disaster. These three plays I have taken at random from his thirty odd dramas to show you that his outlook is concerned mostly with social misfits. As Anna Christie says in the play of that name: "Don't bawl about it. There ain't nothing to forgive anyway. It ain't your fault and it ain't mine and it ain't his neither. We're all poor nuts. And things happen. And we just get mixed in wrong, that's all". We note with interest the emergency of O'Neill into a new field —the field of comedy—with his play "Ah, Wilderness"! running currently on Broadway. He himself calls it "a comedy of recollection", but Gilbert Gabriel styles it "a comedy of recantation". What do *you* think?

Another writer of plays of social criticism is a Pulitzer Prize winner like O'Neill, for Elmer Rice won that coveted prize in 1929 with "Street Scene". An earlier play, "The Adding Machine" is very definitely a drama of social criticism. It centres about the ever present problem of standardization of thought in this machine age, recounting the tragedy of a poor wage slave who has spent a life of deadly monotony adding figures, and who is finally supplanted by a machine that does the work more cheaply and more efficiently than he ever could. In a fit of desperation, the clerk aptly named Mr. Zero, murders his employer. The last play of Rice is perhaps his most ambitious effort, to date. "We, the People", among many other problems, holds the

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mirror of criticism before our law courts, the capitalistic class, unemployment and strikes, and the political hypocrisy of financiers. Written in episodic form, it gives a cross-sectional view of contemporary civilization with a strong plea for doing unto others as we would have them do unto us.

In closing, let me briefly review the main points of this talk. Ibsen, the Norwegian, gave the drama of social criticism impetus by centering his plays around existing evils, and by carrying these evils to a better, relentless conclusion. His most famous disciple, Shaw, even more prolific in his work, used, in place of the former's tragic blows of irony, lighter shafts of wit and paradox. Galsworthy's contribution was superior plot construction, a thorough appreciation of the spirit as opposed to the letter of the law, and a sense of impartiality and detachment. O'Neill in America has concerned himself with social misfits, men and women who look for the silver lining—but look in vain—and the price they pay for failure is—death. Rice has taken as his thesis the fact that the miseries and sufferings of the underdog are many, and that the only way to correct these evils is for all to meet on the common ground of thoughtfulness and consideration for one another.

Let me add but one word more, and it is this—the popularity of the drama of social criticism is at present on the wane possibly because we have become tired of its sledge-hammer directness. At present, there is a tendency to use straight, even musical comedy and satire in place of tragedy for social criticism. I refer to pieces like "Once in a Lifetime" which ridicules the movie methods in Hollywood, "Of Thee I Sing" and "Let 'Em Eat Cake" which pokes fun at national politics, and "Face the Music" and "Hold Your Horses" which turn certain municipal policies into a hilarious farce. The latest tendency in social criticism is therefore the attempt to laugh men out of their follies. And I am not sure that laughter is not as effective a weapon as tears.

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PROBLEMS IN STUDYING THE EFFECT OF AURAL AND ORAL TRAINING UPON READING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE*

SOME time ago the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education designated me as chairman of a committee to ascertain by experimentation and study the extent and manner in which oral and aural ability is related to silent reading ability. My committee read virtually all the available literature on the subject, studied the conduct and results of several experimentations that had either immediate or remote bearing on the question, examined a number of tests of aural and oral ability, and sought the advice and guidance of eminent educationalists and specialists in the pedagogy of modern languages. Because of certain difficulties that presented themselves, our efforts had to be suspended before we could make any startling discovery of new truths, or even before we could decide with scientific accuracy whether aural or oral training is of assistance to a student who is learning to read a modern foreign language. However, a brief presentation of notes bearing on important phases of our study might prove of value to experimentally-minded teachers who ought to be interested in this important problem.

We are not the only ones to whom this problem has proved difficult of solution. Professor V. A. C. Henmon, psychologist for the Modern Foreign Language Study, was keenly alive to its significance without being able to carry out the extended controlled experimentation necessary. To quote Professor Henmon:

"This problem is of the highest importance for method in the modern foreign languages. . . . The statistical evidence goes to show that 84% of students who take up the study of the modern foreign languages pursue them for two years or less. Furthermore, the evidence from various sources set forth in detail in Professor Coleman's volume goes to show pretty clearly that the four abilities—reading, writing, speaking, and aural comprehension—are not satisfactorily developed in the two-year period under present conditions and with the great majority of students. These facts have led the committee to recommend for consideration the concentration on reading as the primary objective in the first four semesters and consequently a reduction in the amount of oral-aural training, it being expected that the oral-aural ability so important in a mastery of a language be emphasized in the third and fourth years for those who carry the study further. All the

* An address delivered at the Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held in Atlantic City, December 2, 1933.

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evidence we were able to get appeared to justify this recommendation. We were clearly conscious, however, that we did not have conclusive evidence to prove that the time and attention taken from oral-aural training and given to reading would produce a higher grade of reading ability. That oral-aural training will aid in developing reading ability, I think no one would question. That reading ability is the primary objective for the overwhelming majority of American students no one should, I think, question either. The problem then is whether or not reducing the time and attention to oral-aural training and giving more time and attention to reading would not give better results. Only controlled experimentation could decide *and because there are so many variables to consider, the experiment is not easy to carry out in an entirely convincing manner.*"

"Reading ability and the ability to understand the foreign language when spoken are not two distinct aims", we are informed in the New York City Syllabus, "but merely supplementary parts of the same aim. For it is obvious that the knowledge obtained through the understanding of the spoken language will prove of great value in interpreting the language when it appears on the printed page. Conversely, the knowledge obtained through reading, especially when such reading goes hand in hand with a reasonably fluent and accurate pronunciation, will increase the ability to understand the language when spoken".

In a bulletin entitled "The Reading of Modern Foreign Languages", Professor M. V. O'Shea raises two pertinent questions:

1. "Does conversation in a foreign language assist a pupil in acquiring a reading mastery of the language" and

2. "Would it be advisable to require pupils to gain a conversational and a reading mastery of a foreign language at the same time?"

His answer is that since conversation does not require explicit awareness of grammatical detail it would probably not interfere with the acquisition of a reading mastery of a foreign language even if the two should be acquired *pari passu*. It might be better to initiate the pupil into the conversational aspects of a foreign language before attacking reading, so that he could gain some degree of automatic control of the oral form before attempting mastery of the visual form of the language.

Other writers also tell us that language study is best cultivated by utilizing the nervous energy of all four centers, that is, the ear, the eye, the vocal organs, and the hand—multiple sense appeal. Each must support the other, thus heightening the total impression. It has been furthermore accepted that the strength of the sensory impressions upon these centers varies with different individuals. There are those who get stronger impressions by the auditory than by the visual center, and more facile expression by the motor-speech than by the motor-writing center, and vice versa. It has been claimed that Americans are visualizers, and from this it has been argued that the reading method is best for Americans. But it is believed by psychologists that the combined action of the four speech centers is stronger than that of anyone of them, and thus this argument may fall flat. Moreover, it is claimed the visualizer, above all others, needs to have his auditory and other centers developed. Eye-mindedness makes necessary much repetition of an auditory nature. Oral and aural practice increase visual comprehension.

Wundt, in his monumental work entitled "Physiologische Psychologie", argued convincingly that language is acquired through the ear. The inference is that there must be a strong aural appeal.

The champions of the so-called Reform Method used to tell us that reading ability is to be developed by means of oral facility. They argued that the most economical and surest road to the appreciation of the printed page is by way of the spoken language because exercises in hearing and speaking provide for added images of words, hence make greater familiarity with words, and for a fuller apperception of later perceptions. That, however, is only an opinion. Where is the proof?

A considerable degree of skill in oral reading is entirely compatible with very poor proficiency in real reading for content. Similarly, many people think that a good command of a foreign language accent is synonymous with command of the language itself. It does not follow.

Another argument advanced in support of the belief that oral training is necessary to reading ability is the observation that even in reading the vernacular there are incipient or more than incipient movements of the vocal organs. Some move their lips when they read silently. But what does that prove, if true?

These and similar statements are made in various books and articles on the teaching of modern languages tending to prove that oral and aural facility aid reading ability, but only one, so far as I have been able to ascertain, has got down to brass tacks and made experiments to prove whether this is the truth or not.

The only one who has attempted a scientific approach to the problem is Professor Arthur G. Bovée of the University of Chicago. Professor Bovée's investigation was conducted at the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago under the guidance of Professor Morrison, from 1925 to 1927. The results of the first phase were set forth in an article which appeared in the *Modern Language Journal* for December, 1928. The writer summarizes his evidence in the following words:

"What may we conclude from the data here presented? It would seem first of all that if our objective is to teach the pupils to read, then the thing to do is to make them read as much as possible. Yet if we push them ahead too far, and neglect oral practice, we do not do our work solidly, for it does not stay, as is indicated by our experience with the first

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group. Second, the larger ingredient of oral practice seems to have had the effect of so drilling the material that it established the reading adaptation on a firmer basis, with the result that there was a greater permanency to the ability attained."

Although the evidence he presents can be considered only as being suggestive, yet from our own experience I am sure that many of us will be inclined to agree with Professor Bovée's conclusions that the absence of oral practice in a given case results in less substantial progress in reading ability than when oral practice is an important part of the work of the class.

The Modern Foreign Language Study sponsored the construction of several tests for oral and aural work and produced a "Spanish Audition Test" by M. A. Buchanan and a "French Aural Comprehension Test" by Agnes L. Rogers and Frances M. Clarke. Other audition tests on record are (1) "A Spanish Audition Test" by J. P. W. Crawford; (2) "A French Oral Understanding Test for Colleges" by Louise C. Seibert and Ben D. Wood; (3) "A Phonetic Accuracy Test and An Aural Comprehension Test," in French and German, by O. K. Lundberg and J. B. Tharp; (4) "Aural and Oral Tests in French" by W. C. Ferguson; (5) "A French Audition Test" by J. L. Balliff, Jr.; (6) "A Sentence Meaning Test" by A. M. Espinosa and T. L. Kellogg; (7) "An Aural Comprehension Test for German" by Josephine Martin; and (8) "An Understanding Spoken Spanish Test" by O. G. Russell. We might also include the Dictation and Aural-Comprehension Tests that have been given semi-annually by the University of the State of New York as an integral part of the so-called Regents' examinations in all four modern foreign languages.

As far as I know, not one of the audition tests has been satisfactorily standardized. Further experimentation with them is therefore desirable before we can draw valid conclusions and sound pedagogical principles therefrom.

While there are a number of aural comprehension tests, successful attempts to construct tests of oral proficiency are unknown to me. In fact as Professor Henmon declared in his volume on "Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages."

"Tests of oral proficiency that could be widely administered and yield results that would have a semblance of objectivity and comparability seem an impossibility."

Aside from oral and aural tests, what are the techniques of procedures to employ in an experiment to test the effects of oral and aural framing upon reading a foreign language?

In order to secure dependable data bearing upon the matter it will be necessary to conduct a number of experimental "control" classes containing pupils equated with respect to intelligence, formal language knowledge, home influences and learning skill. A pupil who comes from a foreign-speaking home, or a home in which foreign languages are read and

spoken, would have to be excluded from both the experimental and controlled classes. The best way, it seems to me, would be to have these classes begin in the first year of the junior high school, before pupils have had any taste of or contact with a modern foreign language. The same amount of time each day should be given by equally skillful teachers to both the experimental and controlled classes. A part of the time each day, in the experimental classes, should be devoted to aural and oral training, whereas *all* the time in the controlled classes should be devoted to reading. This includes time spent in preparation as well as in recitation. Then, in due course, the same tests, carefully standardized to determine the facility and understanding in the reading of the foreign language, should be given to both classes.

I do not know of any other way to approach the subject than by controlled classes, i.e. by the method of parallel groups. Some of the factors that should be controlled and can be controlled are these:

1. *Selection of pupils for the experiment.* If two groups are to be selected, one to be taught with a minimum of oral-aural training, the other stressing it, the groups must be equalized in native ability by use of an intelligence test score or general scholarship ratings, or both. It would be desirable to select those who had had no other foreign language study, e.g. Latin, and who would be studying during the period of the experiment only one foreign language.

2. *Selection of teachers.* In order to eliminate the most important variable of all, the teacher, it would be desirable in some of the cases at least to have the same teacher teach classes by both methods and compare the results. A careful log should be kept by the teacher of procedure, and in addition he should be open-minded and interested in the experiment as an experiment. In other cases the teacher might choose and use exclusively the method which he favors, to see what results can be obtained when the teaching conditions are most favorable.

3. *Selection of curricula and testing materials.* The securing of test materials that will be equally fair to both groups will be a troublesome matter. The vocabulary and other content of the course stressing oral-aural training will of necessity be different from that of the predominantly reading course, and it would be relatively easy to load the dice in favor of one method or the other. The only escape that I see is the preparation of two sets of graduated test material suitable for each group, and then give both tests to both groups. The standard tests that are now available are likely to be weighted in favor of a reading course, though certainly not intentionally so. It has, however, been pointed out that the American Council tests are not as suitable for courses largely oral as for those emphasizing reading. The same may apply to the other reading or comprehension tests that I have seen. It is for this reason that I think the prep-

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aration of the valid test materials is so important. A carefully prepared syllabus of the courses under the two conditions and test materials based on them are essential.

Another desirable manner of attack is to study two different phases of the problem; one is the problem of the distribution of time in the classroom; the other is the effect of oral-aural work *per se*. I wonder if it might not be desirable to investigate these questions separately. In one case, for instance, you might have parallel classes of equated sections, each of which would devote a definite amount of class time, say fifty per cent to the cultivation of reading ability; the remainder of the class time in one case should be devoted to oral-aural work, in the other case to anything else that did not have a direct bearing on the reading ability. The point of this experiment would be to find out whether the section which had oral work showed greater ability at the end of the experiment than the controlled sections.

For the study of the question of the most effective distribution of class time, one might even consider the possibility of three parallel groups of equated classes: one in which no oral work whatever is done; a second in which oral work and reading fill about half the class time; and a third in which all the class work should be only oral.

It is also feasible to conduct the experiment with four parallel groups: one group being given a definite amount of oral training, another a carefully determined amount of aural training, while a third group has both of these forms of training suitably combined, and a fourth group has no training of these sorts at all. Careful initial tests of general mental ability would have to be given, and the final test in the ability to read the foreign language should be one that has been carefully standardized.

Thus far, I have considered experiments that may require several semesters to complete. An experiment which can be conducted in only one day is the following:

Preliminary Suggestions: Experiment on second year students where reading is the chief objective. Select only those students whose grades are above the median of the class. Divide the students selected into three groups on the basis of the student's predominant type of verbal imagery: visual, auditory, vocal-motor. Submit all groups to the same tests at the same time, but keep results separate. Conduct one experiment on the purely interpretative, or passive phase of reading, and another on the communicative, or active phase.

Details for interpretative reading: Select and mimeograph three simple selections, composed of both description and narration, of approximately equal difficulty.

First Section. The students are told that after a period of fifteen minutes study they will be required to answer in English certain questions based upon the selection to be distributed to them. They are requested to read for content, striving to store up all

details, as the paper will be taken away from them while they are being tested. They are advised to work through the whole selection first trying to fill in the meaning of unknown words by their relation to the context; after this preliminary perusal they are told to read the matter over and over again silently until the period is up. A sufficient number of proctors must be on hand to curtail all vocal movements.

The test questions, covering in English every minute detail of the selection, will now be passed out and a specified time devoted to students' filling in the answers.

Second Selection. The students are told that the test will be of the same nature as for Selection Number 1; the same instructions are given except for the silent reading, the instructor reading aloud while the students look at their own selection. In both cases five minutes might be devoted to comprehension and ten to the respective drills: silent reading in the first case and teacher's reading in the second.

The test is the same as for Selection No. 1.

Third Selection. Same instructions as for Selections 1 and 2, except that the last ten minutes are to be devoted to students' reading aloud in a low voice the selection.

The test as in Selections 1 and 2.

Communicative reading: First, second and third Selections handled just as they were for interpretative reading, but questions and answers in test are now to be in the foreign language.

While the several techniques outlined above are fairly simple *per se*, the big problem of ascertaining the extent of the influence of oral and aural training upon reading ability entails a variety of extremely important and almost unsurmountable difficulties.

The chief difficulty would be the maintenance of the control over the amount of oral and aural training which the student gets. Any experiment of this sort, if valid and reliable results are expected, must be very carefully controlled. This, of course, is vital to the question, and the slightest deviation from the plan of the experiment may materially vitiate the findings.

Another difficulty is that it is almost impossible to get two teachers of equal ability in teaching to read and almost impossible to get the same teacher to treat two methods with equal objectivity. Furthermore, teachers of modern languages have strong convictions and prejudices on the question of method, which attitude may seriously interfere with rendering experimental results conclusively acceptable, unless the numbers could be great enough.

Another difficulty is the length of time the proposed experiment would require. If the experimental results are to be accepted as at all conclusive, I do not believe that satisfactory data can be secured without careful experimentation lasting over a number of school years, at least four semesters. In our complicated cosmopolitan high schools, such as I come from, with

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their numerous annexes and variety of courses, exigencies of programming would render impossible a fairly constant personnel of controlled and experimental classes for a period of two years or more.

Finally, the question of the student's customary type of verbal imagery, the preliminary testing for proper classification, the equating of the students in regard to intelligence and general environmental influences, the preparation of valid test materials, the proper control of the many variable factors, the score analyses and interpretations — all this is a job for a trained educational psychologist and statistician and not for a mere modern language teacher untrained in psychology and scientific testing like myself.

The problems which I have tried to present to you are of the highest importance for methodology in the modern foreign languages—and one of the most difficult to study. If the experiments can be accurately conducted, they will prove to be of inestimable value to all who are concerned in the study or administration of language teaching.

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HIGH POINTS

An Investigation Into the Outside-of-School Interests of First Year High School Students

With the advent of the New Deal, the problem of leisure looms as an increasingly important one for the adult. It is quite plain, however, that preparation for the proper use of leisure time must begin with the child in school. When one stops to consider that the boy or girl spends only about one-fifth of his waking hours in school and that during the rest of the day, his leisure time, the educative process is continuously going on, the magnitude of this problem becomes apparent.

Every act of the individual serves to mould his "personality" whether for better or worse; every circumstance that he finds himself in leaves him a changed person; every institution with which he may come in contact serves to "educate" him. The school is but one of these many institutions. It is the formal institution provided by society for the purpose of education, but, very often, it is one of the non-formal institutions, not specifically set up for the purpose of education, such as the family, or the church, which has the profoundest influence in the development of the personality of the individual, in short, in educating him.

The school cannot carry on its work properly unless there is a tie-up between it and the other educative institutions. The school should take cognizance of the existence of the gang, for instance. There should be teamwork between it and the Boy Scouts organization; it should be closer affiliated with the evening recreation centers, with church social groups and with any and all other institutions which affect the growth of character and personality. Should not the school, too, recognize the fact that the stage, screen, and radio are powerful educative influences?

To discover just what students do outside of school, to see which of our institutions other than the one formally set up for education touch upon their lives and influence their growth, the writer made a study of the diaries kept for one month by approximately two hundred freshman high school students, nearly half of whom were girls.

The results of this investigation are quite interesting, and even, in spots, startling. For example, the writer is convinced that some of the most potent educative forces in this country today are the radio comedians, such as Ed Wynn, Eddie Cantor, and Jack Pearl. More than ninety-five per cent of these students (and there is no reason to doubt but that this group is a fair sampling) listen almost religiously to the goggle-eyed comedian every Sunday night, and from the little fellow who walks around chanting "We want Cantor," to the older student who laughs at his wise-cracks and imbibes his philosophy, Eddie Cantor can do more to educate the youth of the nation than any other single person. Why? The answer is simple. Because they listen to him.

While teachers are beginning more and more to realize the educative possibilities of the radio, there has been little organized attempt to use it in the schools, or to guide students in their use of it outside of school. The diaries disclose the fact that students spend an average of two to two and one-half hours a day turning the dials and in ninety per cent of the cases, they devote this time exclusively to listening to programs which are of an entertainment nature. The favorite radio programs of these students were, for instance, the Eno Crime Club, The Witch's Tale, Sherlock Holmes, Burns and Allen, Myrt and Marge, "The Baron," and others of a similar nature, including, of course, Eddie Cantor. When we consider that it is also possible to listen to Toscanini conducting the Philharmonic, to the President of the United States making history, to Lowell Thomas intelligently discussing the news of the day, to dramatizations of such plays as "The Admirable Crichton", to Einstein, Shaw, Winston Churchill, John Masefield and Lily Pons; and to hundreds of other radio programs that give uplift, breadth, and vision to those who will listen—when we realize all this and find our youth living on a diet of blood-curdling tales, the seriousness of the problem becomes plain. The school attempts to guide the student in his choice of reading material; it should make a systematic attempt to guide him in his choice of radio programs.

The diaries revealed, too, the enormous influence which the cinema wields. Every single one of the students goes to the movies at least once a week; many of them go twice a

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week and a few as often as three times a week. They go to the local theatre, and whatever the picture may be, they see it. Therefore, most of the time they spend valuable hours wallowing in stupidity and vulgarity. "They Had to Get Married," "Shopworn," "Second Hand Wife," "She Done Him Wrong," "The Sin of Madame Blanche" (and the sins of a dozen other mesdames), "Evenings For Sale," "Men Without Women," "The Half-Naked Truth," "Frisco Jennie," "No Other Woman," "Lucky Sailor" —these and hundreds of other trashy films our school children must see because they are the ones exhibited. Too infrequently, it is their good fortune to see such pictures as "Cynara," "A Farewell to Arms," "Berkeley Square," "Cavalcade," "The Sign of the Cross," "Little Women" and a surprisingly small number of other film plays, which, though all of them are not altogether suitable for school children, have at least the virtue of being intelligently produced. The rise of the cinema with its unplumbed possibilities for good and evil, presents a major problem to education. The solution lies in closer, sympathetic coöperation between the educators and the movie men. Producers will give people just the sort of pictures they demand, if their demands are loud enough.

Nearly all boys and girls of high school age belong to some sort of club or other. The diaries attested to this fact; nearly three-quarters of the students are members of an organized group. These groups have, in most cases, no connection with the schools, yet, very often, they influence children, for good or for evil, more than the schools ever can. Should not the teacher try to lure the boys out of the "dug-out" or the cellar and show them that he is interested in their having fun, and willing to take part in it, and help them? There is no active cooperation between the schools and even such organizations as the Boy Scouts—at least in this community.

Among the minor interests of these students, some very interesting facts came to light. For instance, card playing, especially among the girls, is a very popular diversion at which they spend whole afternoons and evenings. The bad example of their elders! Only four of the two hundred mentioned chess — and that quaint old game, checkers, seems to have gone by the boards altogether, along with dominoes and lottoes. It is interesting to note, too, that the cross-word puzzle has been displaced almost entirely by the jig-saw puzzle. Whether that college professor is right in his explanation of the craze when he says it is a manifestation of low-grade intellect trying to reassure itself that it can still put one and one together, the fact remains that boys and girls spend solid hours, often working into the wee hours (so the diaries disclose) putting jig-saw puzzles together.

Nearly all of the boys spend several hours each day playing various games, such as handball, basketball, punch-ball and baseball while the girls spend

a great deal of time dancing and attending parties. At least half the girls indicated in the Saturday night space: "Went to a party."

Apparently the younger generation is getting away from formal religion, for only eleven girls and four boys of the two hundred go to either the synagogue on Saturday or the Church on Sunday. In the great many cases they indicated that they spend Sunday mornings reading the comic sections of the newspapers. Few read newspapers daily, but on Sunday they all make a rush for the colored comic strips.

A phrase that occurred time and again in the diaries was: "Did nothing." Did nothing! Nothing! What material for training in the proper use of leisure time have we here. Did nothing! When there are so many things to do, if one only knows of them! And that, it seems to me, is the teacher's job. Teach the boy or the girl not only the three R's and a lot of stilted, useless stuff, which, in nine cases out of ten, he will never use; teach him how to spend the hours outside of school in a decent, profitable, enjoyable way. That is one of the most important problems of education, and the teacher cannot begin to solve it until he peers behind the screen and finds out what the student does with the other four-fifths of his time, when he is away from the influence of the school.

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A Department Chairman Looks at the Teaching of Unselfishness

I. The necessity of defining unselfishness.

In one sense, all men are selfish. That is, they aim for their own happiness. It is absurd to expect to rout out the fundamental selfishness of all people which makes them demand the means of livelihood and then the opportunity to assert, in some way, their own individuality. However, the search for happiness produces entirely different results in character according to whether one seeks immediate satisfaction in material wealth and self-aggrandisement or recognizes that the greatest happiness is often attained by neglecting one's own immediate reward and throwing one's self into useful work and warm personal contact, with the welfare of others at heart.

II. Self-examination.

The Department Chairman, having defined to himself the meaning of unselfishness, must, if he wishes to see this quality promoted through his department's teaching, examine his own conduct to see how far he does and how far he can, exemplify unselfishness. He will realize that it is not exemplified in the petty imposition of his own will on competent teachers, petty check-ups, basking in the deference that comes from loyal teachers. He will realize that shirking hard work is worse in a chairman than in a regular teacher. He will try to help the teachers in coöperation by spread-

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ing to all the methods and devices worked out by individuals.

III. Reports from English Teachers as to teaching unselfishness.

In an attempt to pool their experience, the English teachers turned in a great variety of reports on the teaching of unselfishness. These fall into three groups:

(1) Class-room activities of pupils which are helpful to others. Examples: Supporting student publications; contributing to the Shakespeare Theatre; being a good audience.

(2) Ideals fostered by good literature. Examples: Studies in social service and in the public service of women today, growing out of reading Ruskin; Macbeth as a study of "rampant individualism."

(3) Ideals fostered through oral and written composition. Examples: Best narrators of stories, chosen to entertain in a hospital; topics discussed, such as "My ideal public servant."

IV. Conclusion.

We must not expect sudden reformations; all people act from somewhat mixed motives.

ROWENA K. KEYES.

Julia Richman High School.

Coöperation in the Classroom and a "Code"

Leaders in the field of education have agreed that we ought to prepare our pupils for the ideal society of the future. What sort of society will this be? Many thinking people are convinced that it will be one in which the spirit of unselfish coöperation will replace the profit motive as the incentive to action. It is true that under a system of individualism with a minimum of social control, we have accomplished much. Yet at the present moment individualism is the target of criticism. An organization of society under which two per cent of our people receive the lion's share of the social income, which thirty per cent receive less than a bare subsistence level, cannot endure. Only under a social organization in which the profit motive has been modified can we ever attain a more equitable distribution of wealth and income.

The need for this has received world-wide recognition. Italy and Germany through Fascism, Russia through Marxian Socialism, and the United States by means of the National Recovery Act are all striving toward the same goal, namely, the elimination of the profit motive. While striving for our ideal society, we must be careful to define closely its exact nature, lest we create a monster which will be worse than our present evils. In the countries mentioned above, self-appointed small groups which deem themselves the most intelligent have seized control. Liberty, as we know it in the United States, does not exist in those countries. Our new society must be built up within the limits of democracy as defined by the American and British systems.

What part will the school play in moulding the new social order? In the words of Kilpatrick, education is society remaking itself. Teachers are the carpenters or builders of the new system. The humble tools of our classrooms have an important destiny. For two centuries the schools have indoctrinated the individualistic philosophy. Now, we must tear down the pillars of the old society and indoctrinate a belief in the spirit of coöperative action, taking care lest the whole edifice crumble about our ears. This is not an easy task, for the foundations of individualism are deeply rooted.

It is easier to reform the world than to reform our own classroom procedure. How shall we carry out here the principles which have just been stated; how instil into the minds of our pupils the new spirit? When I first came to this school, I felt like Alice in Wonderland. Everything was so different from that to which I had been accustomed. I was confronted with a roomful of quite grown-up girls, not all of whom were exactly eager to learn. Each one was an individualist skilled in the ways of non-coöperation. There were barely forty minutes alloted to me in which I had to review the work of the day before, assign the next lesson, and teach the lesson of the day. The girls, animated by the individualistic spirit were anxious to get the most and give the least. I shall mention only a few examples of lack of coöperation which are familiar to all of you.

1. Coming late to class.
2. Talking after period has begun.
3. Arranging note-books after bell rings.
4. Lack of attention to questions.
5. Mumbling answers.
6. Reciting from a slouching or leaning position.
7. Lack of adequate preparation.

All of these items tend to dissipate the precious forty minutes at our disposal. All of these and many others arise from a lack of realization on the part of the pupils of the need for coöperation. The predominance of the individualistic spirit is destructive to the success of the class period.

In any scheme for coöperation in the classroom, the following elements should be included:

1. The plan must be based upon a realization among the pupils of the need for coöperation rather than upon fear of the teacher.
2. The personal and human relationship between pupil and teacher must be retained.
3. The pupils should know exactly what is expected of them. Ignorance of what the teacher expects is the greatest obstacle to smooth classroom coöperation.
4. The plan should capture the imagination of the pupils, thus making them eager to share. Every successful coöperative effort of history has done this; for example, the common effort of the American people during the World War and of the Russians during their Five-Year Plan.

In accordance with the above principles, I have prepared a mimeo-

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graphed sheet which each pupil is required to paste on the inside cover of her note-book. This tells them precisely what is expected of them. This term the N.R.A. helped me to capture the imagination of the pupils. This sheet became our Code of Fair Competition. Any violation of the principles laid down in our Code was anti-social and would incur the displeasure of the group. The object of this is to make each girl feel that only those who are willing to control their conduct as required by group welfare are members in good standing of the group. In order not to make our Code one-sided, the teacher, too, has obligations. He must promise to be fair. The charge of unfairness is the gravest which the adolescent mind can bring against a teacher. He must be deliberate in his judgment. Arbitrary settlement of questions dear to the hearts of our girls but of small moment to us, must be avoided. The teacher must strive to be not merely a task master but a real member of the group.

The following is an example of our Code.

Code of Fair Competition

Coöperation

We are all in school for the same purpose—to help you get the greatest possible benefit from your studies. With this point in mind, let us work together to pull the boat in the same direction.

Your Part

I. *How to work together.*
   A. Come to school every day.
   B. Come to class on time.
   C. Be seated quietly; help to start the class period on time.
   D. Pay attention; time wasted in class can never be recovered.

II. *How to recite.*
   A. Stand up; do not slouch or lean on the desk.
   B. Face the class and address the class; everyone wants to hear you.
   C. Speak loudly enough so that all may hear you.
   D. Do not speak unless you have received permission.

III. *How to do your homework.*
   A. Go over the lesson of the day just past. Anyone in the class may be called upon to summarize the work of the previous day.
   B. Cut assignment sheet into sections; paste these in your note-book.
   C. Answer questions or outline topics in the space below.
   D. Learn to outline the main topics of a paragraph in as few words as possible.
   E. Do your homework every day; do not let it accumulate.
   F. When taking notes in class, jot down only main points; do not copy every word.
   G. Learn to use the index of your text-book.

IV. *How to get high marks.*
   A. Read extra readings which will be assigned from time to time.
   B. Let your recitations show that you have done such readings.
   C. Don't be a sponge; take part in the discussion, ask questions, and contribute your own ideas.

V. Anyone who violates the principles of this Code is a selfish, thoughtless individual. She injures the welfare of our whole group.

My Part

I. I am a real member of your group as well as your teacher.

II. I promise to do my best every day for your improvement.

III. I promise to be fair and impartial in all things.

IV. I promise to be reasonable in my demands in regard to assignments and homework. Complaints about such matters shall receive a fair hearing.

The results of this experiment have been gratifying. At times I feel that I am getting as much coöperation as is consistent with democratic principles. In moments of discouragement, it seems that individualism is a rampant force that can never be harnessed. But these moments are becoming fewer. Each class regards itself as a little collectivist group working for self-improvement. By the use of these principles, I hope to make each class a stone in the coöperative social edifice of the future.

Sidney Weintraub.
Julia Richman High School.

Language Study for Teachers

Theodore Roosevelt High School has two language study groups for teachers, conducted by department chairmen. One group is engaged in the acquisition of idiomatic, contemporary German. Its members are incidentally acquiring something of Dr. Leonard's own passion for watching the operations of Grimm's Law, and for tracking derivatives and cognates to their lairs.

The other group includes all the members of the Latin Department and several trans-Alpine visitors. We have read together Cicero's noble "Dream of Scipio," and we shall go on to the "Tusculan Disputations," after a pleasant interval with Dr. Foster's version of the "Psyche" of Apuleius. Our best approach seems to be through Dr. Foster's thoughtful reading of the Latin, followed by translations made with varying degrees of facility by the members of the group. The real Latinists are very patient with those of us whose skill is small. We Americans, however much we have enjoyed our Greek and Latin in college days, rarely pursue it thereafter, unless the teaching of ancient languages becomes our profession. We need the inspiration of a group and a leader, unlike the elder British statesmen, who, we are credibly informed, carry pocket editions of Greek and Roman classics in the origi-

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nal, to read in railway stations. In this Latin group, one of the most interesting features is the discovery of classical interests in unexpected places.

There is also a group of modern language teachers outside the French Department, who meet twice a week for special study of prose composition and travel vocabulary in French. This class was organized by Mr. Pasner of the Spanish Department, and is conducted in the manner of a round table, where the knowledge of all the members is pooled to the common advantage.

Through these three groups, the teachers of Theodore Roosevelt are making for themselves opportunity for interesting and stimulating language study, without expense or travel time.

E. B. KERR.

Theodore Roosevelt High School.

The Operation of the G.O. Store In the Largest High School In New York City

In September, 1931, I undertook the operation of the General Organization Store of De Witt Clinton High School. Numerous problems confronted me as I entered upon a business venture which would attempt to supply the needs and demands of the students of the largest high school in New York City.

The G. O. Store had been in operation for many years. It was not until May, 1929, when Clinton moved into its beautiful new quarters in the upper part of the Bronx, that the G. O. Store received the space and equipment that it needed for successful operation. A very large room, excellently equipped with closets, shelves, display cases, bulletin boards, and so forth, was set aside for G. O. Store use.

I decided to organize and to operate the store so that it would meet conditions peculiar to G. O. Store operation. These conditions are numerous and I shall attempt to name and discuss some of them.

The faculty manager of the store is primarily and fundamentally a classroom teacher and as such his interests, and the major part of his time and energy, are expended in the classroom. This is a serious limitation, as it means that the operation of the store must be confined to hours before and after school and during free periods, if obtainable. Nevertheless, a considerable amount of business has been conducted despite this handicap.

Another problem which occupied considerable time on my part was that of discovering the type of merchandise which pupils desired. We continually are being offered merchandise of all types, and very often it is with great difficulty that we convince salesmen that the G. O. Store is not a suitable place for the sale of their goods. We are also limited in space for displaying and storing goods. After careful consideration I decided to confine the store business to two general groups of merchandise, stationery and certain types of athletic goods. Different departments in the school are making requests constantly that we stock and sell special merchandise for use by students taking work in their respective departments. Here again I always have great difficulty in explaining that the G. O. Store cannot enter the general merchandising business, but, of necessity, must confine itself to handling a relatively small number of articles.

Another problem was that of getting and organizing an efficient squad of boys to help run the store. It is impossible to do business without such assistance. As a teacher of a first term subject, I have an opportunity to study the younger boys and I accordingly select two or three boys each term in order that they may serve on the store squad during the major part of their school career. I have been very fortunate in obtaining some excellent boys who are receiving some valuable business experience and business training. Choosing several boys each term is also helpful, since it means that there always will be a group of experienced boys remaining when the older boys graduate.

Most of the business comes during the first weeks of school. It is then that we have to equip hundreds of boys with gym uniforms and that we have to supply the stationery which boys need for their classes. We have two doors, one for entrance and one for exit. Both doors are guarded by several strong squad boys. Customers line up outside the entrance door and are sent into the store in groups of ten or twelve. They are measured for uniforms and given their goods over a counter about fifteen feet long. No customers are permitted in the store proper. One boy takes care of the register where all sales are recorded. We have about twelve student salesmen who are very efficient and quick in making their sales. All goods are within easy reach of the squad boys. A few steps, at the most, are necessary to reach the articles asked for.

Certain types of merchandise are kept under lock and key at all times, and sales are made directly by the store manager or a carefully selected and trustworthy boy appointed for that purpose. Customers leave by the exit door. We try to discourage the exchange of goods unless they are defective or wrong in size.

We have a reserve supply of stock which is used to replenish open stock as it is diminished by sales to customers. As we remove goods from our reserve supply, we check a perpetual inventory sheet so that we always know exactly how much stock we have on hand. We carry a considerable stock of merchandise.

All funds are turned over to the G. O. treasurer, and all bills are paid by him on requisition and on presentation of bills. A complete set of books is kept by the store manager, and audited by the G. O. treasurer, who makes up a profit and loss statement each term.

Goods are ordered and bought from numerous wholesale houses. We have been very fortunate in being able to make large purchases. The G. O. has always been very liberal with funds, and the unit cost of each article is therefore considerably lower and we are able to turn over the benefits of

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these savings to the pupils in the form of cheaper prices. We are proud of our prices, which are considerably lower than in most retail stores outside of school.

The G. O. Store is able to render many value services to pupils and to the school in general. For example, we render a valuable service when we equip students for gym work. This is a task almost impossible of accomplishment without the assistance of a G. O. Store. I distinctly recall one term when we equipped over two thousand boys with uniforms.

We received valuable cooperation from others in the school. Through the help of the Art Department, we have been able to obtain some excellent posters and advertising material. The school publications have assisted by advertising our sales and in general by informing the boys about our store.

The greatest benefit derived from the store is the reduction in price offered to the pupils.

I have considered carefully the argument often presented that G. O. Stores are competing with outside merchants, who are taxpayers helping to support our school system. I fail to see where this argument holds true in the case of DeWitt Clinton. We are located so that there is not a single store within a radius of three or four city blocks. Our boys come to us from all corners of the city. Most of the boys arrive on the subway line. On their way from the station to the school doors they pass no stores of any kind. If the G. O. Store ceased to function, our boys would not patronize stores in the immediate neighborhood of the school. The business that we ordinarily get would be divided among hundreds of storekeepers all over the city. If so divided, it would mean a negligible increase in each storekeeper's business. At least it would not be enough to justify the abolition of the G. O. Stores in our school. Certainly the students derive enough benefits to warrant the continuance of so valuable a service.

A summary of our gross sales for the past four terms follows:

Term beginning Sept., 1931....$5,953
Term beginning Feb., 1932....$5,512
Term beginning Sept., 1932....$5,241
Term beginning Feb., 1933....$3,603

LOUIS STRASSBERG.
De Witt Clinton High School.

The Student Patrol at the Thomas Jefferson High School

During the past four years some ten high schools in the city have sent committees consisting sometimes of students and sometimes of teachers to investigate the organization of the student patrol system at the Thomas Jefferson High School. The writer has visited four other schools in the city and knows that the problem of the proper policing of a school is one which plays a large part in the efficient administration of our larger high schools. Dr. Tildsley himself, according to an article in the *World-Telegram* of October 23, 1933, deplored the fact that "The very good pupil squads they used to have in some schools have been abolished, making it necessary for teachers to watch doors and patrol corridors and stairways in high schools at a cost to the city of up to $1,188 a year extra for each teacher so assigned." The following article is an attempt to aid in the solution of this problem by presenting an outline of the plan of organization of the Patrol at the Thomas Jefferson High School with the hope that it may be an aid to some other high schools or that it may arouse some criticism of and corresponding changes in our own system.

In no secondary school with which the writer is familiar is there a sufficient number of teachers to adequately supervise all of the many critical periods and danger zones which abound in our overcrowded schools. Of necessity we must call upon members of the student body to aid us in the performance of these important duties. Fortunate indeed is the school and the faculty of the school where there is an efficient patrol force, for a tremendous amount of direct "police" duty is lifted from the shoulders of the individual teacher.

At Jefferson, student self-government has three main organisms, the judicial, or Arbitration Court, which is really a court of justice rather than a court of Arbitration; the legislative, which is the G. O. Council; and the executive, which is the Student Patrol.

The Student Patrol, with which this article is mainly concerned, is an organism numbering in its ranks about 900 students, approximately one-fifth of the entire school population. Upon it devolves the duty of maintaining discipline and cleanliness in the school yards, the stairways, the corridors, the basement, the elevators, the lunchrooms and elsewhere throughout the school building, as well as the duty of assisting the faculty in enforcing administrative regulations. Incidentally, this organization also takes care of the entry to and the dismissal from school, fire drills, the seating and handling of crowds at school functions, such as basketball games, Student Aid Concerts and assemblies, and the inspection of the passes of some two hundred students who go home at the beginning of each lunch period and return before the next period has begun. The other manifold duties of the organization will appear in the duties of the different squads outlined below.

The Patrol consists of two divisions—a group of 100 officers who make up an Officers' Council, divided into an A.M. Session Council and a P.M. Session Council—and the main body of 800 students who serve as privates or guards. Conspicuous service in the ranks as a guard for one or two terms, combined with good scholarship and satisfactory character ratings, is rewarded by promotion to the position of Lieutenant, carrying with it the command of a squad of privates and membership in the Officers' Council. Lieutenants, after a term of satisfactory service, may become Captains, and after a term's service are eligible for election by the entire Patrol to a position on the Executive Board of the Officers' Council. This Executive Board interviews and selects

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new lieutenants at the end of each term to serve during the succeeding term, and also serves as a Court which hears charges of inefficiency or insubordination which are brought against fellow-officers.

The entire Patrol is under the direct supervision of a member of the faculty, who is not merely a faculty adviser but a Director. The director, who is also Assistant Dean of Boys, is relieved of but one teaching class, and the official or prefect class. The Officers' Council keeps in direct touch with the Director of the Patrol by reading and signing the Student Patrol orders of the day published daily in the room set aside for Patrol activities. These orders, when necessary, are transmitted by the officers to the privates. A typical daily bulletin would read somewhat as follows:

THOMAS JEFFERSON HIGH SCHOOL
Student Patrol, Officers' Council
Bulletin, May 1, 1933

1. Assembly takes place today. All officers must report to assembly posts promptly.
2. Miss Jones reports her building pass as lost. Officers are requested to ask all privates to be on the lookout for this pass.
3. Lunch passes missing:
   No. 18 — Sydney Cohen — 4th period.
   No. 21—Elsie Smith—5th period.

   Anyone found using either of these passes is to be taken to the Dean.
4. There will be a meeting of the Dance Committee immediately after School to discuss plans for the Student Patrol Dance.

The Officers' Council meets weekly. These meetings serve as a clearing house for experiences in patrol work. Problems which have cropped up since the previous meeting are discussed, weak spots are pointed out, suggestions are made for improving the work of the Patrol as a whole or of certain squads in particular. The general spirit prevailing at one of these meetings is that of helpful self-criticism, and it is here that many suggestions are made which, when carried to fruition, make the school a much more pleasant place in which to live.

The great body of Student Patrol privates is divided into some thirty-five different squads, at the head of each of which, there is a Captain and two or three lieutenants. These squads and a brief resume of their duties are listed below.

1. *Yard Squads.* There are four of these squads to cover the boys' and girls' yard during the A.M. and the P.M. sessions. It is their duty to supervise the conduct of students in the school yards before the doors are opened in the morning, and to see that the entry to school is accomplished in orderly fashion. On rainy days the problem is complicated because students must be admitted to the auditorium where proper discipline must be maintained, before being allowed to go up to their official classrooms.

2. *Pre-session Squad.* This squad is composed of officers who are excused from reporting to their official classes. A record of their attendance is kept and transmitted to their respective official class teachers, by the Student Patrol official class secretary. Members of this squad guard the doors and entrances to school from 20 minutes before the late gong rings, during the official period and up to the beginning of the first period. Their duties are to see that all doors are closed when the late gong rings; to see that all late-comers are directed to the Lateness office and to check on students who are out in the hallway without proper passes.
3. *Period Patrol Squads.* There are ten of these squads, one for each period in the day, comprising about 50 privates per squad. Each person on these squads is free five periods a week and devotes them to school service. Patrollers must report to their posts promptly to relieve guards of the previous period. It is a serious breach of duty for a guard to leave his post before he is relieved by the next period guard or excused by his superior officer. These squads are responsible for cleanliness in the corridors and for the preservation of academic calm throughout the school building. They must make sure that students who are passing through the hallways are equipped with the proper authorization and that students who attempt to leave the building have passes properly countersigned. They must prevent loitering in the lavatories and can be generally alert to see that nothing goes amiss in the vicinity of their patrol sector. Period patrol privates are stationed at strategic points throughout the building and provided with desk-chairs.
4. *Lunchroom Squads.* There are ten of these squads, one for each period in the boys' lunchroom and another squad for each period in the girls' lunchroom. It is the duty of each of these squads to see that the lunchroom is kept clean, that the students are rderly and to insure a rapid and orderly dismissal at the end of each lunch period.
5. *Dismissal Squad.* This group is charged with the duty of clearing the halls at the end of the session. The squad inspects all floors to see that no loiterers have lagged behind. It is also charged with the duty of putting out lights in all unoccupied rooms.
6. *Assembly Squad.* This is composed of two units, one for each assembly group. Its duty is to see that entry to the auditorium is accomplished in orderly fashion, to suppress any tendencies toward disorder during the assembly exercises and to insure a speedy and orderly dismissal.
7. *Information Squad.* This squad has a student posted at the Information Desk in the main corridor. Its duty is to conduct all visitors to the office of the administrative assistant for visitors' passes and then to conduct the visitors to their destinations.
8. *Usher Squad.* This squad also has two divisions, a boys' squad and a girls' squad. The boys guard the doors at afternoon and evening func-

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tions; collect tickets and see that the audience is orderly. During the basketball and football seasons, the boy ushers are used at the games to control the crowds. The girls, equipped with distinctive uniforms, act as usherettes, conduct people to their seats, distribute programs and welcome special guests.

9. *Cloakroom Squad.* This organization has facilities for checking the personal belongings of 300 people. It serves at afternoon functions such as dances and the like for the convenience of the student body.

10. *Elevator Squad.* This squad consists of a boy stationed on each elevator each period. It is his duty to see that students desiring to enter the elevator are lined up along the wall, to see that teachers are allowed to enter first, and that all students who enter the elevator display passes properly countersigned.

11. *Chair Squad.* No small part of the work of the Patrol is taking care of the furniture belonging to the organization. This consists of four large desk chairs on each floor, thirteen desk chairs on the main floor, four desk chairs in the basement, and thirteen ordinary chairs at the auditorium doors. Each morning the Chair Squad must see that there is a proper chain at each post so that privates may be able to study when not otherwise occupied. This squad also provides chairs for functions such as dances, installations of Arista and Service Council, and President's Council meetings.

The duties of the Patrol, as may be readily seen, are both multitudinous and multifarious. To prevent Jack and Jill from becoming dull boys and girls through much work and little play, the Patrol engages in social, athletic, and literary activities. Basketball practice takes place weekly; a hike, a dance in the school gymnasium, and a farewell party in honor of graduating officers all take place semi-annually, while the Student Patrol magazine, *The Rambles*, resembles the *Subway Sun* in that it is published now and then. The paper averages three issues per term and each term issues a special graduation number. Each of these functions has a definite purpose in developing the members of the Patrol. Through the hike it is hoped to develop a spirit of fellowship and camraderie—so essential to the smooth functioning of so large an organization. Through the dance and the dancing class which precedes it is hoped to obtain as incidental results, a finer sense of courtesy and social procedure. The paper gives members of the Patrol a chance to express their views on current school problems as well as to keep perspective in the Patrol by passing on the humorous events which crop up in daily patrol work.

A Student Patrol Alumni Association has been formed which admits to membership all Patrol officers who receive their honorable discharge. This organization has served in a patrol capacity at several alumni functions and has established an Alumni Medal which is to be awarded semi-annually to the outstanding senior patrol officer.

An efficient patrol system can indeed contribute much to the general welfare of a school. In many cases it may mean the difference between an orderly school and a disorderly one. With this in mind it is absolutely essential that Patrol Officers be the pick of the most capable students in the school, that the organization have the backing of the Administrative authorities and that it receive the sympathetic coöperation of all members of the faculty.

HYMAN SOROKOFF.

Thomas Jefferson High School.

Father and Son's Dinner

The Parent-Teachers' Association of the Abraham Lincoln High School from its inception has had as its chief ideal the education of parents, so that problems of their adolescent boys and girls may be more easily understood by them. The program of the association, therefore, has provided for regular monthly meetings, when speakers of note have addressed the parents on questions of interest to them as parents. The association now has two discussion groups led by leaders who are concerned with problems of psychology and, in general, study the behavior of their sons and daughters. There is also a discussion group conducted by one of our teachers that is open to fathers only.

The November meeting of the Parent-Teachers' Association was preceded by a Father and Son's Dinner. About 180 parents and their boys gathered round the table to break bread with the principle of the school and a number of teachers who were interested in the welfare work that the faculty is doing. The meeting was featured by an address made by a prominent physician on "Sex Hygiene," an address that was illustrated by a very interesting moving picture. In addition, the prominent philanthropist and social worker, Mr. David Brown, addressed the parents later on the ideal relationship between father and child.

The special dinner was most successful in that it brought the parents and their children together as understanding human beings. It was a thrill, especially for one father who was so deeply moved that in the discussion period which followed the address of the physician, he got up and expressed, in behalf of the fathers present, his gratitude for all the good things that are being done for his son at the school.

The dinner, the first of its kind in the history of the school, showed that there is a need for this kind of gathering. It is hoped that it will become an annual fixture in the life of the school.

DANIEL G. KRANE.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Art Appreciation in the High School Newspaper

It is well known that the high school art and literary semi-annual magazines have a direct and powerful influence on the tastes of the high school pupils. Such a high school project is of great value to those who see the final result and, of course, of

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still greater value to those who participate in its production.

At Eastern District, we have, as in most schools, the big art and literary magazine, and in addition we have a fortnightly newspaper. We find that we can influence the tastes of the large body of readers of this newspaper by bringing to them in every issue some picture with a brief comment. The reproductions recently published in *Gold and White* were of paintings executed by the writer while on his sabbatical leave.

The original painting suitably framed, is shown in the library. We find the students genuinely interested. Appended is a copy of the most recent article to appear in "Gold and White." With Art Appreciation dropped in most schools as a formal study after a year or two, the opportunity to reach nearly all of the pupils in this way is worth thinking about.

MORRIS KLEIN.

Eastern District High School.

EXCERPT FROM *Gold and White*

This is the third in a series of paintings reproduced this term in the *Gold and White*. In represents an old church-tower on Mont Chevalier, at Cannes, on the southern coast of France. It was painted by Mr. Klein on a bright day in January, 1933.

The previous reproductions were of oil paintings; this one is a water-color. The colors are mixed with water and applied quickly on heavy paper. The painting is now on exhibition in our library. You should see it in order to observe the play of color on this ancient bell-tower.

Generally, as in this case, a water-color is framed with a mat. Notice also, that a narrow frame has been used.

Superintendent Campbell's Remarks on the Occasion of "Graduates' Night," a Feature of the Radio Program on Art

We schoolmasters who are present tonight in the studio of WNYC have an intense and unusual pleasure in seeing our product. Although we have been engaged in the largest industry of the country, we are not like others who are able to see their products immediately after their operations are completed, and I think you will agree with me that we have a right to be proud of these graduates of our high schools who have spoken to you tonight.

In listening in to these Art Programs during the last month, I have been greatly impressed with the story of the various courses that have been explained. Our schools are very fortunate in having as Art teachers and as Heads of the Art Departments, men and women who have such keen appreciation of the actual needs of boys and girls and who are inspired to study the various situations before them with such thoroughness, and whose plans for solving their individual problems presented by various types of schools and localities are broad in scope and replete with variety and interest. It is very evident that the sincere desire of these leaders is to give the very best in Art instruction to the boys and girls of New York City. These young folks are to be congratulated upon the opportunities they have before them.

It is well to call the attention of all to the fact that these well planned courses of which you have heard are only a few of those that make up that great program for the advancement of Art education in our city.

It is highly important that we all understand that this program is the outgrowth of much thoughtful planning, much drastic elimination of worn-out ideas and the adoption of up-to-date methods of teaching, all of which are based on years of experience in study, research and teaching by the most earnest educators in this country.

Any interference with any of these highly developed courses would be a great mistake. But in this economic stress some ill-advised people have actually advocated doing away with Art and Physical Education.

I am glad, therefore, to have this chance to join in this Art program at this particular time because it gives me another opportunity to emphasize what I believe regarding the study of Art in our schools. Let me repeat what I have said on several occasions. Those who tell us that we should dispense with our Health Education work, that we should drop our work in Art Appreciation and all of those subjects which are given to the child because with them life is more worth living, certainly cannot be classed as friends of childhood or guardians of the future of this country. Even when normal conditions are re-established, we will have a society whose members will have more leisure than they ever had before.

The bare three R's will certainly not equip for complete living the citizen of tomorrow. You as parents, and we as teachers, must stand united in the defense of childhood.

It is interesting also to hear what the Commissioner of Education of the United States says in regard to this matter:

"I assure you that Art Appreciation is a subject which interests me tremendously. I feel that the period in which we are now is due primarily to a surplusage of human hands and that we shall not get out of the depression entirely until we have cared for those human hands. This means a great reduction in labor hours for the ordinary employee. At the present time I see no better opportunity than to give them training in Art, Music and good literature. I believe it is a mistake to curtail the schools by cutting down on these subjects. As a matter of fact, in these times they should receive more attention."

Reference to the three R's reminds me that in 1930, in the introduction to the Art Appreciation syllabus, I said that educators, because of their greater interest in other subjects, have been unusually slow in giving any consideration to Art as one of the most important fundamental branches of our educational work.

I am sure that you all realized the truth of my statement as you have

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listened to these five able young men and women in this "experience meeting" tonight. And we must all remember that these five who have spoken are speaking for hundreds of graduates from other high schools who have had similar experience.

A Suggested Introduction to Problems in Algebra

While accepting functionality as the central theme of our algebra teaching, properly subordinating to it the graph, formula, and equation, we still permit problem work to remain insulated from the rest of the course. True we correlate with it the fundamental skills and the equation, but the method for problems is unique, often employing a different technique for each type of problem. This situation is largely responsible for the negative attitude of pupils to what may teachers regard as the chief topic in the algebra syllabus.

Fundamentally algebra is the stenography of quantitative relations, and it is as important to be able to translate from algebraic symbols into words as to translate from words to symbols. This two-way translation goes on when we interpret formulas, graphs, and statements of variation, but stops at problems. By beginning with keys and equations and requiring students to build up appropriate sentences it is possible to reverse the usual direction of problem work. In addition to having constantly before them good models of keys and equations, students get a better appreciation of the problem as a statement of relation between numbers. In a one-term trial period I have found students who formerly had an aversion for problem work turning to it with pleasure.

There are several worth-while by-products to introducing problems by building sentences from keys and equations. Students acquire facility in rigor and economy of expression. Some of them color their sentences with personal or local experience, adding considerably to their enjoyment or their work. All students see that problems given them are not intended to be "real."

Below are a few samples of sentences constructed from given keys and equations.

Let x = rent on garage
$8x$ = rent on house
$8x+x = 72$

Mr. Brown lives in an apartment house. The rent he pays for the house is eight times the rent he pays for the garage. Find how much he pays for each when altogether the rent amounts to $72.

Let x = John's present age
$3x$ = William's present age
$t-10$ = John's age 10 yrs. ago
$3x-10$ = William's age 10 yrs. ago
$3x-10 = 5\ (x-10)$

William today is 3 times as old as John. However, 10 years ago William was 5 times as old as John. What is the present age of William and John?

ABRAHAM FEINGOLD.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

The Physics Congress at Bryant

During a Physical Society Meeting one Christmas holiday the idea occurred to me that my students might be interested in a similar proceeding provided, of course, the topics were equal to their understanding. At the next class period I told them about the meeting, the speakers, and the method of procedure. I described how good it felt to be in a stimulating atmosphere where it seemed a matter of life or death whether the atom were smashed in one way or another, whether Maxwell's equations were just as applicable now, in the light of modern theory, as previously. I showed them that such an atmosphere made one rather ashamed for not having as vital an interest in modern science as the others. I told them I wished that some of them were there and could catch the contagious desire for discovery that existed there. Some students then suggested that we have a "Physical Society" meeting of our own.

The class elected a chairman, secretary, and time-keeper.

Topics of their four-minute papers were handed to the chairman by the following week and the papers were to be ready in a month from date. The subjects were limited to Physics, but were not necessarily of a theoretical nature. Students could make a piece of apparatus and explain how it was made and how it worked.

The student chairman and I examined the topics together. If too many students chose the same subject, they were asked to change it. The chairman, secretary, and time-keeper grouped the topics into a related whole and submitted them for my approval. After approval mimeographed copies of the program were made. However, no other student except the committee knew the program until the day of the meeting when each student received one.

The chairman had full charge of the class period during which the meeting took place. The time-keeper gave notice to the Speaker when three minutes had passed so that he could summarize his topic. Ten minutes at the end of the period were set aside for questions and discussion. This was the most interesting part of the meeting. Enthusiasm waxed high, questions were hurled back and forth. In some instances the question was answered by the speaker or other students. In other cases certain students undertook to look up the answer. Only in cases of overt errors did I ask a question which brought the error to view. In many instances the "meeting" was so informative and stimulating that the following class period was devoted to its continuation.

This meeting is now a definite part of my classroom work, especially since atom smashing has become a front page newspaper topic.

LILLIAN E. JACOBSON.

Bryant High School.

Creative Education

In the Fall term of 1927-1928 our General Conferences were concerned with the topic of "Creative Education."

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The opening conference was addressed by Professor Robert B. Raup of Teachers' College. He had promised to "throw dynamite" into the meeting, but the "dynamite" fell harmless, since for ten or fifteen years our school had been practicing what he preached! We thus had reason to believe that Teachers' College was, and is, years behind the Julia Richman High School in its progressive spirit.

Subsequent conferences brought to us addresses on creative work in other schools, values of our extra-curricula activities, and some samples of our own creative work not well known.

The series of conferences were full of inspiration, and gave to our work and dreams an impetus enormously worth while. New vistas were opened, faith and hope were renewed.

Even in these conferences, however, much more so from my experiences with pupils from "progressive" private schools, have I felt that the significance of "Creative Education" is wrongly and narrowly interpreted. There's too prevalent a notion that making a cartoon of a monkey out of a hunk of mud, or doing something useless without rime or reason, and without direction is "Creative Education."

To me "Creative Education" is a method, not a product. It involves:

First: *Attention*—not listening, not concentration, but—capturing the germ of an idea.

Second: *Curiosity*—an aroused inquiry as to the significance of the germ.

Third: *Adventure*—pursuing the germ activity to see whither it leads.

Fourth: *Discovery*—finding the meaning of the developed idea, and glowing inside at our accomplishment.

Fifth: *Expression*—the desire and the ability accurately to transfer the idea (usually by language-English) to others.

Among our teachers I see four groups:

First: *The youngsters*—alive, eager, full of "growing pains." The future rests on their keeping their "growing pains."

Second: *Those with sleeping sickness*—a disease attacking some (thank God, only a few!), sometimes shortly after they obtain their permanent licenses. A deadly illness, but curable, if those afflicted "will" to cure themselves.

Third: *Those apparently dead but not buried*—of these only a very few. Even these can be aroused by contact with "live wires."

Fourth: *The great body of our older teachers*—who have and will always have their "growing pains." Even routine and restrictions can not bind them; these only hinder. Our principal is a great example, full of "growing pains," getting "worse" constantly. Would that we could hang over our doorway: "Here all of us have 'growing pains,' we cultivate them, we innoculate all entries with them. Come in!"

DAVID L. ARNOLD.

Julia Richman High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Resolution Passed by Student Convocation, Teachers College, Columbia University, November 28, 1933

The United States Office of Education figures reveal that the very existence of the American public school system is at stake in a number of areas.

More than two million, two hundred thousand children of school age are already deprived of educational opportunity.

Nearly two thousand rural schools failed to open this fall. Prospects are that eighteen thousand schools will be forced to close for lack of funds before they have completed a six-months' term this year.

Free public high schools are being abandoned in some communities.

In hundreds of counties school terms are being drastically shortened.

One in every three American teachers is now receiving less than seven hundred fifty dollars per year.

Thousands of teachers are receiving no salary at all.

With sharply reduced financial resources the schools of the nation are being called upon to accommodate hundreds of thousands of additional pupils. Abolition of child labor and scarcity of jobs mean that if they are not in school, there is greater danger of serious increase in crime and delinquency. Hundreds of school districts have had to default on their indebtedness. Fifteen million dollars in school funds are frozen in closed banks. Tax delinquencies are huge; in Michigan alone, one hundred million dollars delinquent last year. The U. S. Office of Education reports further that while America's public school system is disintegrating, the school systems in other nations are being maintained at a high level despite the depression. *These are some of the facts as to the breakdown of education in many areas.*

We realize that the Federal Government has already partly recognized this crisis in education by interpreting various emergency acts so that assistance could be rendered to school systems. We commend what has been done and the able leadership which the United States Commissioner of Education George F. Zook has exercised in this connection.

The emergency is so serious, however, that it appears that Federal assistance greatly beyond anything which has as yet been provided will be necessary if educational opportunity is to be restored to millions of children now deprived of this fundamental right and if the American school system is to recover from its present critical condition.

We strongly urge that you take action to develop a program of legislation to be presented at the next session of Congress aimed at the most

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serious of the emergency problems. Emergency loans and grants should be made to the States by the Federal Government in order that the States may more effectively deal with the problems of tax delinquency, frozen school board funds in closed banks, and defaulted bonds, and in order to assist the status in maintaining a reasonable foundation program of education during this crisis.

Congress has already made billions of dollars available to assist business, agriculture, and finance in meeting the problems of the current crisis and in achieving recovery. Education deserves to take rank with these great national interests both in its immediate and future importance to the general welfare. The Federal Government can no longer neglect giving adequate assistance to the States in order that the consequences of the depression will not deprive millions of American children of their educational birthright. The need for immediate help grows greater every day. A carefully drawn program for Federal loans and grants to the schools is urgently needed. As citizens and teachers holding the welfare of the nation's school children at heart, we therefore entreat you to urge Congress at the earliest possible moment to take action which will meet the current crisis in education.

A Proposed Four-Year Unit in Economics

Current high school curricula include a number of courses dealing with economic behavior: Vocations, Economic Geography, Merchandising, Advertising, Statistics, Economic Problems, and Economic Theory are frequently-met examples. It is the unusual and highly specialized school, however, which presents these courses as an integrated unit rather than as a series of scattered courses placed wherever there seems to be room for them. Even the new Commercial course, admirable as it is in some of its forward steps, does not, from the viewpoint of the economist, provide a wholly correlated economics unit extending over the four years of the high school course. It is nevertheless increasingly true that economic principles and practices are a vital part of the layman's experiences, and are more and more the basis for his judgment at the polls. The support of a government communications monopoly, of government subsidies to various industries, of government attempts at price-fixing, of National Recovery Administration control over trade practices, of government monetary policy, of government tariff making, of government control over public utilities—all these, and more, are matters on which the most intelligent voter must still bolster his acumen with sound economic information if he wishes to exercise his franchise to the best interests of the nation. Furthermore, it is still true that the larger percentage of American youths do not complete a college course, while under revised child-labor practices these same young people tend to stay in the high school for a longer period. If, then, the American student is to get an economic background, he must get it in the secondary schools; and if he is to acquire economic training which will be of any real use to him, he should get the fundamentals not only at as early a time in the high school course as possible, but in some logical and well-ordered sequence.

An examination of the high school curriculum indicates that it is entirely practicable to institute a four-year unit in economics that will be progressive and fundamentally complete as to basic economic principles at the end of the third year. Like all other integrated units, this one requires a sympathetic principal, department head, and teaching staff—of all of whom there is, I think, a plentitude. The items which, it is suggested, may properly be included in a four-year economics course are listed below; they should be accompanied, of course, by practical courses in merchandising, advertising, and the like.

Term	Course
I.	Community civics, emphasizing the relation of the citizen to the sources of government revenue, and the items of government expenditures.
II.	Vocations in industry, emphasizing the nature of labor, the problem of fitting the laborer to his job, and the relation of labor to capital, entrepeneur, and consumer.
III.	Economic geography of the United States. Here, and in the next following course, a number of economic principles should be developed. Among them are the plan of diminishing returns; localization of industries; effects of tariffs on international trade; the machinery and methods of international trade; the inter-relations of farmers, manufacturers, bankers, government, and consumers; large scale industry; and principles of consumption.
IV.	Economic geography of foreign countries. See note for Term III.
V.	Elements of statistics, to be taught by the Mathematics department, with emphasis upon, and illustrative material from, the use of interpretation of statistics in business.
VI.	Economic theory, part I. This should include the economic principles not discussed in the Economics Geography courses, with particular emphasis upon distribution and corporate organization, and will, therefore, round out the fundamentals of economics.
VII.	Economic theory, part II. This should present the principles already touched upon in courses prior to term VII in more detail, and provide an integration of the items of economic theory thus far discussed. Economic theory, parts I and II, are thus seen to be a development of the present one-term course in Regents'

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Economics. Pupils desiring Regents' credit should be admitted to the examination at the end of this term.

VIII. Economic problems. This course should provide a detailed survey of a limited field, with emphasis upon such topics as Money, Credit and Banking, and analysis and control of Business Cycles.

Most of the above courses are at present taught in schools granting a commercial diploma. Courses similar or equivalent to all of them have been authorized for various individual schools. The development of an organized sequence of economics courses under the lines proposed, or under alternative ones is the remaining essential, and is a fitting objective for teachers of commercial subjects and of all the social sciences.

VINCENT MCGARRETT.

Bryant High School.

Dean Russell on the "New Deal"

Education alone can prevent the New Deal from degenerating into tyranny and despotism, states Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, in his annual report.

Unless the American people are taught to understand the principles and policies of the Roosevelt administration, there is grave danger that the present dictatorship will destroy all vestiges of democratic liberty, Dean Russell warns. He cites historic instances of the past to show the easy transition between concentration of power and tyranny.

"The first demand by the New Deal," Dean Russell writes, "should be a new kind of education, an education broader than that heretofore offered, one directed to the just assessment of the good and evil found in a society operating under laissez-faire in a fiercely competitive world. Much attention should be paid to the methods suggested in the past and present as to possible reforms of the social and economic order.

"There is little new in the world. 'New Deals' have been made time and time again. The citizen of America should know this; but he should also know full well that this is the first time in history that we have had a Power Age with the economy of plenty consequent upon it.

"This educational task is one of great magnitude. It is impossible to accomplish in the few hours a day, the few weeks a year and the few years of the ordinary school term. It means extended education. Only a substantial Federal subsidy in almost any form can meet the need of the hour; and it is to be hoped that our national leaders will see its importance."

The acts of the New Deal, according to the Teachers College report, constitute the sharpest break with the past in the history of the United States. A government of men, not of laws, has been established, Dean Russell points out, adding:

"Our fathers set up a government with powers divided, between the states and the nation, between the three branches of the Federal Government, between the Senate and the House of Representatives. The New Deal concentrates these powers in the Executive. Truly we are living through a Revolution.

"To defeat the common enemy we have established what amounts to a dictatorship. The interesting feature of the New Deal and the New Day is that the people seem to like it, that there is little protest. If the President can deal the cards, let him deal."

Although despotism can be avoided under ordinary circumstances by limiting the time of dictatorial power, by exercising the power of selection and removal, and by written law, none of these safeguards will be fully effective today, Dean Russell asserts. He contends that the "only hope is education, widespread, thorough, comprehensive, directed to this particular problem."

"Judging by the standard of education," the report states, "there are four kinds of government. There are the ignorant leading the ignorant. This is tyranny. There are the ignorant leading the wise. This is a prelude to revolution. There are the wise leading the ignorant. This is dictatorship, possibly a benevolent autocracy. There are the wise leading the wise, giving liberty, equality and fraternity. This is the ideal of democracy.

"If we review the present situation of the United States in this light, we see that the crisis of 1933 caused the Federal Government to assume power over functions and prerogatives hitherto in private hands; it has forced into public offices men who know; it has compelled experimentation in the public direction of economic processes, sometimes by persuasion and propagandizing, sometimes by psychological or physical coercion.

"The leaders are none too certain of their solutions, but the people know far less. Thus at the moment with us, the wise or semi-wise are leading the ignorant. If this condition continues, it is almost certain to degenerate into tyranny. The problem is obvious.

"If Americans love their liberty, if they hope to make the democratic experiment succeed, if they wish to avoid servitude in the future, it is imperative that the knowledge of the people as soon as possible begin to approximate the knowledge of the leaders; that the people come to know the problems which their leaders are attempting to solve, sufficiently well to enable them to distinguish success from failure, to permit them to coöperate with a will rather than to yield obedience which must be blind and sullen because it is forced."

This is the reason, Dean Russell observes why the New Deal demands a new education. While the basic studies, the three R's, languages, history, science and mathematics are essential, the Dean writes, yet the education required by the New Deal must go far beyond this.

"It must have as its aim," he asserts, "the production of citizens who understand the society in which we have lived, the evil effects of selfishness, the social suicide of cut-throat competition, and the stupidity of narrow nationalism in a world society.

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It must hold as its purpose the production of citizens who will have the background and knowledge sufficient to judge clearly the efforts of our leaders towards economic reconstruction."

In the present crisis, Dean Russell states, so great dictatorial powers have been granted to the Federal Government that they may eventually endanger our liberty. Americans won their liberty at a price of the lives, property and effort of many who have gone before, the Teachers College educator reports, pointing out that "these liberties have been cherished and handed down to us and we should not trifle lightly with this heritage."

"A number of the Acts of Congress, under the New Deal, set a time limit to guard our liberties," he observes. "But the war which the New Deal is fighting is waged against no temporary foe. It has assumed a task which is likely to be perpetual. It seems improbable that a government which assumes to manage industry, agriculture and commerce in times of chaos, can soon quietly step out in order to allow the same events to occur again.

"A second guard against the degeneration of dictatorship into tyranny is the right to selection and removal. The American people elected President Roosevelt, their representatives in Congress conferred power upon him. Whenever we like, as a rule, we can guard against despotism by the power of removal and the power to elect a successor.

"But in the case of the New Deal, there is at least room for doubt as to whether the power of selection and removal will constitute an adequate safeguard. The large powers over business will accrue not only to the individual incumbent, but will attach to the office as well. Of necessity a powerful and large group of subordinates will take over a share of authority. We know the avidity with which bureaucrats lap up power and build themselves into permanent possession of a function, an office, a prerogative or a power.

"Another limitation on dictatorship is the direct circumscription of the powers conferred by written law. This, in a measure, we now have; but laws live by their interpretation as well as by their specific statements; and large powers are delegated by these laws as they stand. If our economic life is so managed as to appeal to the majority of Americans, Congress will hesitate to tamper with governmental procedures which are working well."

The best possible limitation on dictatorship, according to Dean Russell, is an educated people. "When people are basely ignorant, no government is possible other than tyranny," he reports.

REVIEWS

The History of the Novel in England
By Lovett and Hughes. Houghton, Mifflin Company.

In this book two professors have collaborated to produce a short history of the novel in England, beginning with Sir Philip Sidney and ending with James Joyce. The literary highway is broadly traversed, the familiar landmarks are pointed out and the minor figures sketched in with wise and apt comments. There are times when the old accents of the famous Moody and Lovett combination seem to intrude; but they soon die away to be heard no more.

The spacing of material argues an arbitrary sense of values not strictly consistent with scholarly scruples. Within fifty-two pages, for example, the story of the novel up to Richardson is rapidly sketched. Certainly, no outline that is not obviously "popular," can lump together types of fiction, native and borrowed, as the *novelle*, the Greek romance, the Spanish *novela* that sprang into being during the Elizabethan period, without pausing to develop each species. Even a college student would ask for more details. And why is Thomas Deloney the silk-weaver who wrote about everyday people overlooked? In fact, the first third of the book runs too rapidly toward the nineteenth century.

The method is biographical and chronological. The emphasis falls on the writer first, though class-feeling and social background are rightly stressed as determining theme and outlook. The point of view throughout and the arrangement of facts are the accepted judgments and opinions of literary historians phrased with elegance and in mannered jargon.

Toward the end of the survey, the facts are grouped into short studies of authors in succession. The Georgians, too, come in for brief treatment, tentative but praiseworthy.

In the main, the narrative follows the line set down by Professor Cross in his standard and immensely useful handbook on the "Development of the Novel" published about thirty years ago, without the neatly-turned, judicious summaries of the present governor of Connecticut.

In all, considering aim and achievement, the book contains a neat distribution of facts and conclusions that must serve as a handy reference guide to those looking for the usual information about the English novel. A valuable bibliography closes the book.

FELIX SPER.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

Fashion Drawing
By Eliot Hodgkin. E. P. Dutton and Company. New York, 1933.

This book is attractively produced. It contains 115 pages, 11"x8½" and 45 plates.

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The ephemeral character of style makes it difficult to compile a satisfactory book on fashion drawing. Not only do styles of dress change, but types of models go out of vogue and techniques pass the way of style. In two or three years even the most up-to-date, we might say especially the most up-to-date, fashion books will be unsatisfactory on this account.

Despite these drawbacks, this book is still worth considering on account of the important problems in fashion work that are treated.

The subject matter is explicit and helpful. A beginner in fashion illustration can get a broad view of his field and sound instruction and advice from the chapter on "Drawing for the Press Direct." Chapter IX, "The Reproduction of Drawing," is helpful in explaining the relationship between the Artist and the Art Editor or Business Manager, and the final chapter, "At What Age, Where, Doing What, With Whom and By Whom Drawn," is replete with things it is of great advantage to have called to one's attention.

While many of the plates bring out points for emphasis and illustration of the text and while the drawings by "masters" are especially interesting, we feel that, as usual, the plates are the weak part of the book. Perhaps some day a loose-leaf fashion manual will be devised from which out-of-vogue fashion illustrations may be detached.

The fact that this is a British book, having in view working conditions in England, does not particularly lessen its general value. However, its specific value from this viewpoint is not great for us in America.

HELEN S. DALEY.
Washington Irving High School.

The Library in the School: Second Edition

By Lucile F. Fargo, Research Associate, School of Library Service, Columbia University. Chicago, American Library Association, 1933. 479 pages, illustrated.

"Try This on Your Piano" might easily be the suggestion of nationally known educators to any New York City principles and teachers who know that their case is different, or that New York City is a law unto itself. Since we may assume that the latter is true only in degree, not in principle, certainly New York City has a greater responsibility to lead in school-library practice because of its greater resources. How does our city meet this challenge in the light of the standards set forth in this American Library Association publication?

Ill-adjustment of pupils, leftbacks, superannuation are subjects of current discussion in our city's schools. Have you availed yourself of Miss Fargo's idea of using your school library's help on this problem? She says (p. 7), "It took another boy six years to complete the high school curriculum. His teachers reported that he quite regularly slept through his classes. But the librarian knew him as the boy who was 'nuts on astronomy.' By special agreement, each new book and article on that subject was turned over to him, no matter how mathematical or technical. He constructed a telescope—a possible explanation for sleepiness in class. After six years he received a diploma from the school; but he was really graduated from the library. He went on to make a brilliant university record for research work in psychology!"

"Missing books. Pupils have a name for this problem—'swiping.' This is important, for it involves a nice ethical distinction which must be reckoned with in finding the solution." If you will turn to page 71, Miss Fargo will tell you what that solution is. With this, as with other problems, "The Library in the School" is only aiming to survey the present practice among school libraries in the United States. Before the first edition was issued in 1930, mimeographed chapters had already been tried out as a text in library schools and personal visits by the author and careful reviews by many experts were also made, as in the case of all books in this series of *Library curriculum studies*. The American Library Association, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the United States Office of Education, and the University of Chicago have all coöperated in supporting this survey.

How many librarians should your school have to help you—in proportion to its enrollment? "The school librarian and her staff" (chapter II) has some surprises for New Yorkers. The National Education Association standards are quoted (the Certain report), which say that the ideal is a full-time librarian for a school with an enrollment of two hundred pupils. Too small a school is this, you may think, for New York City notice. B. L. Johnson's recent *Secondary school library* (U. S. Office of Education *Monograph* 17, p. 22) says cheerfully, "Since no school with an enrollment of more than 2,000 has a part-time librarian no column for schools of this size is provided." That is speaking more nearly in New York City terms, is it not? 200—2,000. And yet, only this term, when the reviewer had occasion to visit a New York City high school that has long had an enrollment of over 2,000 students, the librarian told her that school had only had a half-time librarian for over a quarter of a century since the one librarian there had to devote half her time to the recording of pupils' marks. How carefully have we all compared practice even in schools of 200 pupils, as described in Miss Fargo's book, with our own school's actual practice?

In order to get good student adjustment, the minimum school library needs, as discovered in practice throughout the nation are given—the educational qualifications of librarians (p. 37), the number of books per pupil needed (p. 180), the percentage of the book fund spent for periodicals (p. 288), the number of square feet that should be allowed for each reader (p. 236),—all burning questions since, as J. C. Duff has aptly said, "the library is to 'become the living-room, the hearthside, of the school. If the

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school has a soul, it will abide in the library'" (p. 230).

The stimulation of the uninterested reader (p. 116)—are you demanding that of your librarian? As a civics teacher, do you know about the Wilson *Vertical file service* (p. 189)? As a biology or an art teacher, do you know of the visual aids mentioned in chapter VIII? As a reader of educational journals, did you read the review of this book's first edition by H. Logasa, published in the *School review* for September, 1930? The chapters remain the same, in this second edition, although their labels have changed to the following: Backgrounds and objectives; the school librarian and her staff; management through social control; reading as a school library project; reference work in the school library; teaching the use of the library; the basic book collection; miscellaneous printed matter, visual aids, and additional book collections; housing and equipping the school library; business practice in the school library; technical and mechanical processes; attendance and circulation; the administrative program—general problems; the administrative program — special problems. The great value of the second over the first edition is the revision of its lists of source material and the quotation of up-to-the-minute statistics as well. Some of the material has also been rewritten to help the excellent format of the book in the graphic presentation of ideas. Also, as the author says, in this second edition it has been possible "to drop out of the book considerable explanatory and interpretative material, and to substitute therefor significant conclusions based on objective data."

Of interest to junior as well as to senior high schools, to elementary school librarians, and to general administrators, principals, and teachers, the range of information in "The Library in the School" is vast. California, Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, Cleveland, Los Angeles, Pittsburgh, says the index of the book. In vain do we look for "New York City." But, on page 278, appears:

EXAMPLES OF EXCELLENT PLANNING . . .

Senior High Schools

New York City: Roosevelt High School (The Bronx).

New York City: De Witt Clinton High School.

Brooklyn, New York: Girls' High School.

Let us hope that by the time the American Library Association brings out another edition of this school-library classic, New York City will have earned space in the national school-library records of achievement more nearly proportionate to that deserved by the greatest city in the world.

MARIE K. PIDGEON.

Curtis High School.

Molders of the American Mind

By Norman Woelfel. Columbia University Press. $3.00, 296 pp.

Thoughtful teachers all over the country, robbed by the present crisis of their illusions of security, have undoubtedly been asking such questions as: How shall democracy be regarded in the face of the collapse of *laissez-faire?* Should collectivism replace individualism? If so, what are the implications for education? Can the interests of the individual be squared with those of society? What about indoctrination? Is it essential in a self-conscious social order? With the decline of formal religion, what is to take its place? Do the masses need a compelling faith? Dare we educate for a new social order? How can teachers free themselves from the fetters of authority and organize for social action? What false gods shall we abandon? What educational leaders shall we turn to for inspiration and guidance? These and many other questions are answered by the author's incisive analysis and daring evaluation of the viewpoints of America's seventeen most influential educators. A veritable arsenal of solid scholarship, using as ammunition the writings of these men, he strikes out, from a position left of center, without mercy or apology. Being a teacher as well as philosopher and critic, he goes further than a Mencken and makes recommendations.

In the first section, Mr. Woelfel paints the contemporary American scene. Society is throbbing with quickened pulse. Christian religious tradition is in a state of disintegration; community life no longer seeks the guidance or supervision of the Christian church. The absurdities of *laissez-faire* capitalism, heightened by a great technology that keeps throwing on the market goods far beyond the capacity of the masses to absorb, are at last obvious to all, and "rugged individualism" is on the run. "Bolshevik" is no longer something to frighten children with and the *New York Times* no longer features rumors of the death of Stalin. A Hoover Commission points to the mounting inequalities in the distribution of national wealth and even dares to imply that this condition is the result of mismanagement of American business. These changes have their equivalents in cultural institutions. Universities cease being theological seminaries; teachers in elementary and high schools, irritated by the rôle of apologists for the *status quo*, are reaching out to do something vital; teachers' and professors' organizations turn to social questions; American college students are no longer the rah rah boys of only yesterday and are investigating labor conditions, discussing pacifism on the campus, and show greater wisdom in the choice of electives. In fine, the beginnings of cultural distinction and independence are easily discernible. Against this background, the author casts the thinking of our leading educators.

H. H. Horne, Morrison, Bagley, Cubberley, Briggs and Finney are placed in the category of educators who, with certain variations, stress values in American historic traditions. According to these worthies, Christianity is the new republic and Jesus Christ symbolizes the ideal man.

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Capitalism and democracy, modified somewhat to remove their present obvious deficiencies, seem to be the destiny of the American people. As for their educational views, the school to this group is a place where the teacher, in the manner of modernized Herbarts, preconceives and predetermines changes in the child so that he may grow up to be a respectable member of the community, fully equipped to pass on the great tradition of his race.

In the second group are these educators who stress the ultimacy of science. They are Judd, Snedden, Thorndike, E. Horn, Charters and Bobbitt. This group has unbounded faith in the power of science to solve all our educational problems. The school is, therefore, a laboratory and the educands so many test tubes. Curricula are determined "objectively" and the general aims of education are divided into hundreds of specific objectives. Effective realization of the aims waits upon the further development of the testing movement. Discussion, demonstration and experimentation are the features in methodology. "The whole child is but an empty verbalism, nowhere actually to be found."

The men whose theorizings are analyzed in the last group, those who stress the implications of modern experimental naturalism, are considered as variants from the philosophy best represented by John Dewey. They are Counts, Kilpatrick, Rugg and Bode. To them tradition and science are mere instruments, not ends, in education. Education can be made to function in such a way as to remove prejudice, stupidity, greed and apathy. Thus will be abolished the profit motive barbarism; and a very much abused science will be made to serve in the making of a better world. Dewey and Kilpatrick hope to achieve this through the problem and project, respectively. Counts suggests indoctrination against indoctrination. Rugg visions a school-centered community in which educators join technologists in engineering society toward a technological, collectivist civilization. In general, this "progressive" or "new" education demands a complete reorganization of curriculum, content and methodology with stress laid on the cultivation of freedom, initiative and independence.

In section III, Dr. Woelfel criticizes the viewpoints of each of the educators classified and analyzed above. For the first group, of which H. H. Horne is the apotheosis, the author has unqualified contempt. Unappreciative of the significance of recent developments in modern psychology, biology, psychiatry and social science, the traditionalists adhere to an education that is dominated by faith and opinion, that is formal and meaningless and that has little value for the individual living in a changing world. The scientific school suffers from fragmentary-mindedness. In their addiction to statistical methods as a panacea, they fail to define aims and purposes of education; they may formulate norms, and that only in a limited range of activities, but they cannot set up qualitative standards.

Furthermore, like the traditionalists, their interest lies in the perpetuation of the *status quo*. It is the educational theories of the progressive group that show most promise. With them, "speculation arises out of the unchartered chaos of modern life. Human experience is viewed as it actually functions in an environment such as never was seen before—an environment which changes almost before it can be known. Is there anything on the horizon by which a course may be laid? The vision appears of a complete passing beyond old values, of a scientific attack upon human problems which is directed by a philosophically criticized scheme of values relevant to the contemporary world. . . . All human institutions are measured against the criterion of social usefulness and of release of individuality."

The book concludes with the author's recommendations which is really the distilled wisdom of the progressive group. He prefaces these with two significant questions: "Can educators attain truer bearings in the days and months of moderation which remain before America also swings to Fascism or some similar stop-gap organization? Are they brave and intelligent enough to search earnestly for new centers around which to build their personal integrity and their professional endeavor?" For the answer to be "Yes," educators must, among many things, analyze contemporary civilization, become more than mere public servants, do a bit of frontier thinking and train pupils in that direction, become active in professional as well as non-professional organizations, overhaul professional organizations so that they may become intelligently militant in their criticism of the social order, promote spiritual solidarity of all classes of intellectuals so as to enlighten and possibly guide future mass movements, organize research bureaus that will serve schools in the solution of actual teaching problems, revise syllabi in the elementary and high schools that will be based on collective ideals and that will emphasize the attainment of economic quality as fundamental to a distinctive democratic American culture, become autonomous, and answerable only to their own professional organizations.

As an analysis and interpretation of America's leading educators, placed conveniently in a single volume, "Molders of the American Mind" satisfies a long felt need. Teachers have permitted themselves to become so enmeshed in the insignificant details of their work, that they have not paused long enough to ask the vital question: Quo Vadis? Surely, the present crisis should have focussed their attention on this question. If it has, Dr. Woelfel supplies an illuminating answer. His appraisal of the various points of view is brilliant. With the possible exception of H. H. Horne, in the treatment of whom the author's animosity carries him beyond the limits of the evidence, his criticism, in the light of present social trends, is just. If the author's recommendations seem somewhat Platonic

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it is because the reviewer has read the history of education and has known professors and teachers. A group whose philosophy of education is, at best, Now-It-Can-Be-Told, does not provide fertile soil for revolutionary doctrine. And that is what Dr. Woelfel wants.

SAMUEL STEINBERG.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

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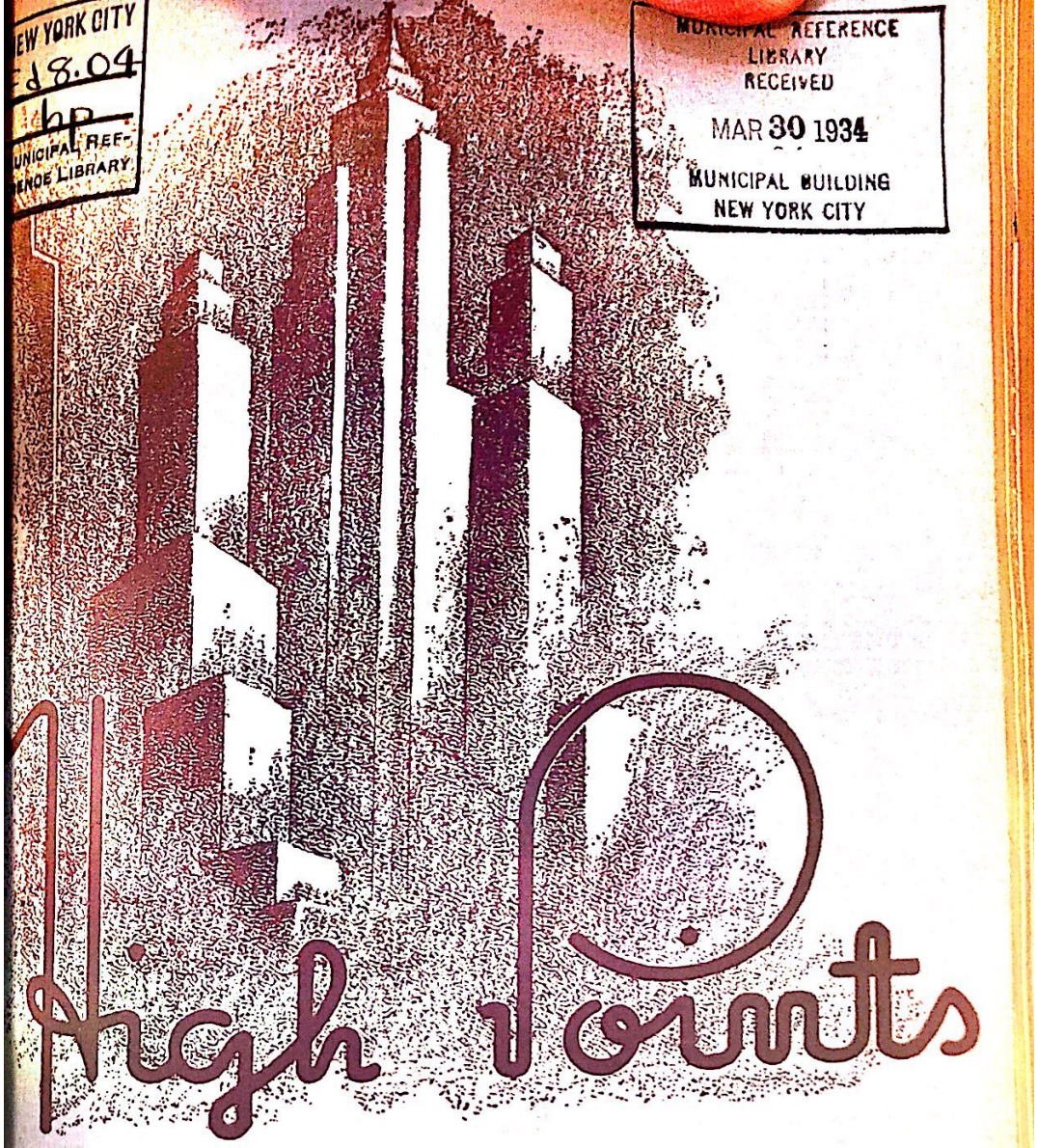

High Points

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MARCH 1934

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HIGH POINTS

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IF THE schools are likely to be moderately successful in bringing about an informed and alert populace, one can easily understand the readiness of the barons of business to seize the opportunity afforded by the present depression to cripple them under the guise of economy. Some educators have argued that the only way to secure the support of the business interests for the schools is to demonstrate that education of the masses is essential to the successful operation of modern industry. Ignorant, illiterate workers cannot operate complicated machines or read alluring advertisements; therefore, they are inefficient producers and poor customers. Apparently our business managers have realized the truth of this claim for on the whole they have been willing to support a system of schools that emphasized only reading, writing, and arithmetic. But when it comes to supporting a system of schools that teaches children not only to read an advertisement but to question the validity of its claims, they draw the line. Probably they could hardly be expected to support that which may eventually lead to their removal as the dictators of American life. **A satisfactory program of education for the masses and the continued domination of industrial, political, and social life by a favored few are decidedly inconsistent.** As soon as we have the first, the second will disappear and the struggle for salvation will seem more hopeful. This would seem to suggest the real motive that lies behind the strenuous efforts of organized groups of selfish interests to disable the most fundamental of our social institutions.

About three hundred years ago the aristocratic governor of Virginia gave thanks that there were neither schools nor printing in his colony and uttered the pious hope that there would be none for a hundred years. He was keen enough to realize that education eventually means the end of the domination of a privileged class. And so today the battle over the maintenance of the public schools is a struggle between a selfish minority that seeks to perpetuate its power and the common people that are striving for a richer, fuller life. In the furore of economic reconstruction there is grave danger that the children of the common people will suffer irreparable losses in their educational heritage.

ROYCE S. PITKIN

Headmaster, New London School, in his article "Can We Rely on Business?" in the Journal of the National Education Association for February, 1934.

INDOCTRINATION: MUCH ADO ABOUT NOTHING

I.

TO THE historian whose knowledge of the past of humanity borders on geology, every age is one of transition and every generation one of change in human relationships and organization. But one who is less philosophical may be pardoned if in contemplating the history of the twentieth century he is dismayed at the rapidity with which old landmarks have faded and old ideals been sadly deflated. Consider the panorama of history since the World War: four old empires destroyed, a score of new nations and mandates born, Communism in Russia, Fascism in Italy, Socialism in Spain, Hitlerism in Germany, dictatorships in Poland, Hungary and Turkey, revolutions and wars in South America, China in chaos, Japan in Manchuria, Gandhi in India, the rise and decline of the League of Nations, reparations and war debts, peace and disarmament conferences, Wilsonian idealism and "normalcy," woman suffrage and prohibition, the new technology, prosperity, depression, unemployment, economic conferences, autarchy and the New Deal.

The educator surveying this scene frantically searches for a work-a-day key to the basic problems. Dismissing politics as only a vulgar manifestation, he simplifies history by overlooking the inextricably interwoven outward strands and concentrates on the core of supposed fundamental factors. Never able to achieve complete detachment because of his human sympathies, the danger of war and the miseries of mankind direct his insight. He is immediately confronted by two great paradoxes. A nation of peace lovers, we spend the greater portion of our regular federal budget in payment of and in preparation for war. A nation of abounding plenty and with infinite possibilities for improvement and work, we are suffering from prolonged starvation and unemployment. His essential philosophy of history is thereby formed, for with these prepossessions he knows the future direction of society. He sees that on the international scene we have come to a point where the civilized nations must abolish war as the instrument of their policy or face the dangers of destruction of civilization in its entirety. It is equally clear that if we are to avoid domestic revolution we must experiment boldly along the lines of a more equitable distribution of wealth.

The educator believing, naturally, in the power and importance of education makes the assumption that the school could, if it would, build a new social order. And there is no time to be lost! He remembers H. G. Wells's figure about the race between education and catastrophe. One must not suspend judgment until the deluge has come; we must not fiddle while so-

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ciety is being destroyed, thinks the realistic pedagogue. We must make our teaching of the social studies immediately "functional." Alas, so great has been the reaction to the classics and the formal discipline theory that the social studies, too, must justify their existence by the utilitarian value of their content. Since society is always changing and bringing with it new problems, history teaching to be really functional must have a vision of future society and must strive consciously to attain it. What method becomes implicit to those who glibly talk of reconstructing society through the schools? What type of pedagogy is most effective and definitely directive in the social studies? The answer given is indoctrination!

II.

Now, what is indoctrination? According to the Oxford Dictionary it means "to imbue with learning" and in its simplest form is only a synonym for teaching. It has come also to mean "to imbue with a doctrine" or "to impose ideas or opinions." The protagonists of indoctrination argue that the teaching of language, tradition, culture, attitudes, and, in fact, all education is to a large extent imposition. A good argument can be made out to show that teaching children to repudiate bunk, to have an open mind on social questions, and to draw conclusions from available facts is also imposition. The indoctrinators therefore draw the conclusions that imposition is inevitable and should be controlled. "The real question," says Professor Counts, "is not whether imposition will take place, but rather from what source it will come."[1] This leads to a stirring challenge. Shall education be imposition for drift and chaos (the present is considered chaos), or shall it be imposition for the evolution of a nobler social order? Shall we as teachers accept the obligations of leadership and give our students correct solutions to social problems or shall we teach them to hold their judgments "in a state of indefinite suspension?"[2]*

The "development school" has no doubt overstressed the ability of the young child to evolve this or that truth out of his own mind.[3] We can agree with John Dewey that "there is no spontaneous germination in mental life." The school must select appropriate stimuli and impose certain skills and experiences. But this is a far cry from directing all learning, forming all the child's conclusions for him, and settling controversial historical issues and points of view. There are degrees of imposition just as there are degrees of partiality, of personal liberty, of free speech, of order. Is saying that our press is limited in its freedom the same as saying that our press is like Italy's, where Il Duce regulates everything that appears in the newspapers down to the size of the type for various items?[4] Even in the teaching of fundamentals to little children there are degrees of indoctrination. Compare our kindergarten with the Soviet nursery school where the tots learn their A, B, C's from posters issued by the Mopr (the Russian organization for the defense of political prisoners). In Russia the youngsters learn that "A" stands for "atheist whom the priests persecuted"; "C" is for the chains that bound "class-war prisoners"; "D" is for death, the "legal-lynching by a New England judge of brave class-war prisoners—Sacco and Vanzetti"; "M" is for Mooney, "still a class-war prisoner in California," and so on.[5]

In history teaching, especially, it is important to bear in mind the question of degree of indoctrination. It is evident that history writing and history teaching necessarily involve selection and arrangement. Since the choice of material and emphasis is made in accordance with some conscious of unconscious social philosophy, this involves an imposition of interpretation. But does the admission of the impossibility of complete impartiality also deny all standards of unbiased objectivity? I would discriminate between the degrees of imposition in history teaching in New York City and in the German government schools. Take, for example, the imposition and falsification involved in the Emperor's edict of 1889 that definitely directed that history "must bring the youth to recognize how Prussia's kings have exerted themselves to better the conditions of the working classes in a continuous development, from the legal reforms of Frederick the Great and from the abolition of serfdom to the present day. Moreover the schools must show by means of statistics how considerably and how constantly in this century the wages and the conditions of the working classes have improved under monarchical protection."[6]

It would not be an exaggeration to say that the above is representative of the historic rôle of indoctrination. It has been used always to maintain a static *status quo*. If indoctrination seems to be a bogy to teachers in a democratic society, it is because it has been the symbol of absolutism which required unquestioned conformity to inflexible laws. Indoctrination as a pedagogic method recalls rigid orthodoxy, unimpeachable dogmas, ruthless liquidation of contrary-minded minorities and opposition to all change. The social reformers who advocate imposition as a pedagogic method forget that Fascists, Communists, professional patriots, and churches wish to use the same method.

The indoctrinators anticipate these objections and therefore assert that they have no body of sacred ideas. They would permit no distortion of facts or suppression of truth. In fact, they are opposed to the "covert foisting of any political panaceas on our students."[7] Thus by the simple de-

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[1] Counts, George S.: "Dare the School Build a New Social Order?" John Day Pamphlet No. 11, p. 27.

[2] *Ibid*, pp. 21, 23, 24, 26.

*The indoctrinators assume that these questions are mutually exclusive.

[3] Dewey, John: "The Child and the Curriculum," p. 22-25.

[4] See *New York World-Telegram*, December 15, 1933, or *The Nation*, December 20, 1933, p. 720.

[5] Ella Winter in the *New York Times*: Magazine Section, December 3, 1933.

[6] Quoted in: Allen, J. W.: "The Place of History in Education," p. 172.

[7] See article by Abraham Geduldig in HIGH POINTS for October, 1933, p. 27.

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vice of selection and dismissal, indoctrination is made to mean the "imposition of vital truths," "guidance in the right direction," or "bringing to the younger generaton a more just and noble vision of future America." What teacher now could have the hardihood to oppose indoctrination?

III.

The indoctrinators are equally indefinite in their answer to the question, what shall we indoctrinate? We are told we must arrive at some Utopia (or collective society), that it is the business of education to facilitate transit, that not to move is practically tantamount to giving support to the forces that hold back society; but neither the method of locomotion nor the immediate direction is specified. One looks in vain for the immediate desiderata to be advocated by teachers of the social studies. Although Professor Counts's challenging thesis is that the school should dare to build a new social order and must indoctrinate the vision of a better society, he concludes that "*this does not mean that we should endeavor to promote particular reforms through the educational system.*" [8] The school must build a new social order but it must not handle the building material of a new social order. Educational theorists escape the opprobrium of being assailed as political agitators by confining their writings to philosophical abstractions and poetic visions. But if education is to be a factor in social uplift and moral progress, it must favor flesh and bone reforms. The school child cannot understand abstract phrases and idealistic incantations.

If indoctrination for a new social order is feasible and practicable, it is not enough to sit in ivy-mantled towers anathematizing *laissez-faire* economics and demanding thorough-going social reconstruction. Indoctrination is not a magic formula. To tell youngsters that society is tending towards collectivism is not in itself complete wisdom. What does the word mean anyway? It is, after all, only "a general label for comprehensive schemes of authoritative control such as socialism, communism, syndicalism and Bolshevism." [9] Collectivism represents a trend away from individualism, but both carried to their logical extremes break down as consistent philosophies of social life. No one can deny that to some extent we are living in a collectivist society even now. But how fast and to what extent industrial organization will socialize American life is a profound controversial question. And so it is with most sociological generalizations. The reactionary and arrogant George F. Baer who as President of the Reading Railroad said that "the rights and interests of the laboring man will be protected and cared for, not by the labor agitators, but by the Christian men to whom God in his infinite wisdom has given the control of the property of this country," [10] and the Communists believe alike in "the proper distribution of wealth." But what is a fair or a proper distribution? How is it to be determined? It is the practical interpretation of this phrase that has given rise to so many political differences and parties.

On what important world problem is there greater unanimity than on the question of international peace. Even the militarists shudder at the thought of the next war. Yet at this very time we are being treated to the tragic spectacle of the scuttling of the one comparatively effective peace agency —the League of Nations. All nations know that it is impossible to benefit by war, but are not certain that their neighbors are equally convinced of that truth. The reciprocal effects of fear and armaments, and armaments and new fears is a dilemma which only dilettantes can resolve. When the question of peace is reduced to the political question of method, even pacifists will fight over it. It is when abstractions are turned into a philosophy of social progress and applied to actual legislation that there ensues bitter controversy. Politics must always answer the question: how or how fast? If educators wish to end social drift and further social justice they must organize militant, well informed minorities. The method is not education; it is politics! [11]

If the schools were to indoctrinate for a new social order they would not only have to envisage clearly this new society, but be ready to step into the arena of political strife. The difficulty of achieving social progress in any direction was lucidly set forth by Walter Lippmann when he said that "the ideal of a conscious pursuit of the common good is at war at a thousand points with the vested interests and special desires of sections of the community. Thus the people desire peace, but every concrete effort to organize it is subjected to the devastating criticism of men who cry out that the country is about to be betrayed. The people desire to work and to sell their goods. Every attempt to open up the channels of commerce is met by the clamor of men who wish to monopolize every market. The people desire a better balanced and a more soundly organized economic life, but every proposal to balance and organize is challenged by the claims of those special interests which throw the economic system out of balance and disorganize it." [12] Reforming society is no Pollyana-happy-ending affair. The road ahead is almost always hazy and tortuous. We are surrounded on all sides by a welter of confused sentiments and pressures. Shall the schools rush in where philosophers fear to tread?

Mr. Geduldig [13] with admitted trepidation and with the understandable desire of the classroom teacher to make indoctrination concrete, mentioned at least one specific problem. Realizing that to permit every teacher to indoctrinate his own pet theory

[8] Counts, G. S.: "Dare the School Build a New Social Order," p. 37.
[9] Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, III, p. 633.
[10] Adams, James Truslow: "The March of Democracy," II, p. 278.
[11] See: Rugg, Harold A.: "The Great Technology," p. 231.
[12] Lippmann, Walter: "A New Social Order," an address delivered on March 23, 1933, at the University of California. A John Day Pamphlet, p. 20.
[13] High Points, October, 1933: "Should We Indoctrinate?", p. 31.

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would lead to educational anarchy, he suggested that teachers of the social studies meet in a vast hall and collectively formulate convictions and procedures. One problem, that of tariff revision, he was quite certain could be settled. Approximately 95% of our economists and the World Economic Conference of 1927 were in favor of downward revision, yet some of our students, he complains, are for higher tariff and some for lower. "Is this successful teaching?" Asks Mr. Geduldig rhetorically. It may or may not be, but the way the students vote on the tariff is not the test of good teaching. For them to be able to answer why they voted for a reduction or an increase is much more important. Arbitrarily to lead the high school student "to walk in the right track" on controversial issues is not the purpose of history teaching.

I recall that at the time of the passage of the Hawley-Smoot Tariff by Congress, some one thousand college teachers asked President Hoover to veto it, but I would strongly question the reliability of the statistics which show that 95% of our economists are in favor of downward revision—then or now. But it makes little difference what some economists think about a revenue and business measure containing thousands of items. Economists may be impartial and as experts it is to their interest to be unselfish, but the American people, divided into sections and classes, is not disinterested. May I remind Mr. Geduldig that although the World Economic Conference of 1927 came out in favor of downward revision, the Democratic party platform of 1928 was revolutionary in that it favored for the first time a protective tariff — one which would "maintain legitimate business and a high standard of wages for American labor."[14] Realistic liberals like Stuart P. Chase and Professor Raymond Moley, former member of the brains-trust, believe that economic self-containment is the present world tendency.[15] While Paul Hutchinson, in reviewing the London Conference of 1933, predicated the thesis that we are to have five economic empires to which the world will belong instead of nationalism or internationalism.[16] And at this writing the proposed reciprocity agreements at Montevideo seem to support Hutchinson's thesis.[17] But need I belabor the point? Our present tariff policy is an abstruse subject, even for authorities. It involves sectional, class, and national interests. It is truly "a controversial social question about which there exists an honest difference of opinion between different members of society." But I do not agree with the indoctrinators that the teacher must necessarily solve this problem and convince the student "that the best solution is the one favored by the teacher."[18] In advocating the taking of sides on controversial

[14] Mead, Nelson P: "The Development of the United States Since 1865," p. 439.
[15] *Scribner's*, September, 1933; Stuart Chase: "Autarchy."
[16] *Scribner's*, October, 1933; Paul Hutchinson: "Five New Empires."
[17] *The Nation*, December 27, 1933, p. 723.
[18] A. Geduldig: HIGH POINTS, October, 1933, p. 26.

questions, the indoctrinators make erroneous assumptions and voice several fallacies. I will briefly discuss some of these.

IV.

First, the assumption that there exists a body of historical laws or generalizations which shows the future course of history. These laws, of course, the indoctrinators presume to know. There may or may not be historical laws. But in the sense that the term "law" is used in science, no one has yet been able to formulate or discover an historical law. Several historians, with assertions of great humility, ventured a guess. Lord Acton, for example, believed that the "constancy of progress, or progress in the direction of organized and assured freedom is the characteristic fact of modern history. . . ."[19] Professor E. P. Cheyney stated among five others the law of democracy, *i.e.*, "a tendency for all government to come under the control of all the people."[20] James A. Froude believed that history showed that only justice, truth, and right prevail. But other historians have mercilessly exposed their fallacies. Successful prediction is the test of a scientific law and prediction is possible only when you have a definite number of known factors. But history is a relationship of ideas, events and individuals each in turn a product of an indeterminate number of variables. Can an historian experiment with a society? Can he use a control group? Can he repeat his experiment? Clio is hardly ready to essay Cassandra's rôle.

Closely allied to the historical-law assumption is the historical analogy exaggeration. Historical analogies are always interesting, but only occasionally useful and most often misleading. The value of any analogy is dependent upon the likenesses in the parallels drawn. Historical analogies must essentially contain many discrepancies and, if nothing else, differences in time, place, and personality. These differences make them almost useless for the purpose of drawing conclusions. Yet moralists and propagandists, by selecting the pertinent and ignoring divergences and contradictions, "prove" many things. It is by this method also that clever *littérateurs* make history repeat itself. Let us take an example by comparing the slavery question of pre-Civil War days with the labor question of today.[21]

LABOR

1. The aim of labor is to free, free (*sic*) labor from wage slavery.
2. The Socialists challenge the right of private property and the whole wage system.
3. The A. F. of L. and liberals would only make restrictions on the capitalist system.
4. The Socialists have split on the question of political or direct action.
5. Labor agitators are badly treated.

[19] Lord Acton: "The Study of History," p. 28.
[20] Cheyney, E. P.: Presidential Address to American Historical Society: *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, vol. 29, pp. 231-248.
[21] Malin, James C.: "An Interpretation of Recent American History," p. 121.

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6. Oswald Garrison Villard, grandson of Garrison, is contributing editor to "The Nation."

SLAVERY

1. The aim of the Abolitionists was to free slave labor from chattel slavery.
2. The Abolitionists refused to recognize the right of private property in slaves.
3. The moderate anti-slavery men would only make restrictions on slaves as property.
4. The slavery opponents split on the subject of political or direct action.
5. Abolitionists were badly treated.
6. William Lloyd Garrison edited the "Liberator."

Shall we conclude on the basis of this superficial analogy that Big Bill Haywood will some day be canonized in America, that "wage" slavery will be abolished and that a sanguinary Civil War will be necessary? If history teaches what we want it to teach, then perhaps Schopenhauer's cynical remark that "the only teaching of history is that we have learned nothing from history" is true.

V.

Secondly, there is a group of fallacies inherent in the statement that the school is able to and must make a choice on controversial issues. The rationale of the indoctrinators could be stated baldly as follows: A highly industrialized society cannot continue on an individualistic-natural rights philosophy. It is to the interest of those who control public opinion at present to perpetuate this antiquated social system. No other institution but the school can effectively combat self-seeking interests, act as a counterpoise to outside propaganda and reconstruct society. Since our children, like our citizenry, are incurable dupes and can therefore be hoodwinked by self-seeking interests, it is the duty of the teacher who, of course, knows the solution, to impose the "good" answer and thereby "like the prophets of old . . . save a collapsing world."[22]

There is no way of definitely measuring the gravity of the present situation, but I am willing to hazard the guess that even though the schools go on in their "apathetic" way, the world will not collapse this year. In fact, it might be pointed out that many peoples, including the Americans, have solved grave problems long before public schools were founded and have since solved many more without much help from the schools. Some thinkers, in fact, are willing to posit the thesis that the press is a far more important formative agent of opinion than the schools. What vital change in world history was ever born or nourished in the classroom of the public schools?

If a question is really controversial, *i.e.*, one over which sincere intelligent men can actually have honest differences of opinion, how can teachers presume to know the correct answer? Have the schools access to superwisdom? Do scientists and scholars reserve their findings only for teachers? Have teachers a monopoly of virtue? Are teachers united in their conception of the eternal verities, or in their definition of the perfect society? Do not teachers—even the fine aggregate of liberal scholars at Columbia—represent many schools of opinion and reflect the powerful interests in society? Does the recently exposed intellectual and moral bankruptcy of some of our so-called business leaders establish our own sufficiency?

The idea of the "good" and the "evil" in history has long gone out of style. Controversial questions by very definition do not present a choice between wisdom and folly, between the plateau of prosperity and the valley of destruction, between the ideas presented by intellectual heroes and "crackpot" villains. Is it likely that public school social studies teachers at a meeting would come to a 90% decision on[23] the solution to controversial questions when President Roosevelt was recently quoted in the *New York Times* as saying that he had in his mind at any time not one, but a dozen possible solutions for any major economic problem of today?[24] Assuming that some of the solutions are better than others, are classroom teachers in the position to choose intelligently? Can the high school teacher or any one give a final answer to such controversial historical questions as those that arraigned Caesar Cantu against Fr. W. Giesebrecht, or John Gustav Droysen against Henry T. Buckle?

Here the objection is entered that life is positive, that only the rare scholar goes through life with an ambivalent attitude, that actually we do choose. You must bow the historical neck before the yoke of practical necessity, is the cry. But is it true that at elections we choose the solutions to controversial questions? And would imposing our personal answers on the child, even if it were permitted, be a sound foundation for the building of a new social order? Can we prepare our students for life in 1950 by indoctrinating them with solutions to problems in 1934? Is it important that we make our students, for the moment, high or low tariff adherents, large or small navy advocates, Democratic, Republican, Socialist or what have you partisans? If we teach our students to be content to let their teachers do their thinking for them now, do we leave them with any other recourse than to fall a prey to more effective propogandists armed with more resounding slogans and catchier catch phrases?[25] Do we want conviction to come as a result of doubting, analysis, judgment and experience—to be like a well plowed field; or do we want conviction to represent the propagandist's *ipse dixit*—to be like the pouring of a liquid into a bottle? "I have truth, kneel here" is a convenient pedagogic doctrine, but is it the proper training for active citizenship in a democracy with a rapidly changing *status quo*?

[22] A. Geduldig: HIGH POINTS, October, 1933, p. 31.

[23] Suggested by A. Geduldig in HIGH POINTS: October, 1933, p. 27.

[24] Quoted by Barnes, H. E., in *World-Telegram* column, December 22, 1933.

[25] Rugg, H. O.: "The Great Technology." On page 202 he advocates that teachers employ the technique of high-powered salesmanship.

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As Charles A. Beard clearly points out, our new life "must be lived amid circumstances which dissolve the habits and loyalties of agrarian and village times. Therefore, the assumption that the schools can indoctrinate the pupils with fixed ideas and give them definite skills good always and everywhere has little warrant in our industrial civilization.[26] . . . No scheme of instruction can vividly portray to pupils all the coming situations of their lives in which they must make fateful decisions. . . . Hence the inevitable necessity for laying emphasis on freedom of opinion and the liberation of intelligence as schemes of thought affection and practise." [27] A recent Social Trends Report states in similar vein that: "Members of a changing society must be prepared to readjust their ideas and their habits of life. They not only must be possessed of certain types of knowledge and skill which were common at the time when they went to school, but they must be trained in such a way as to make them adaptable to new conditions."[28]

The didactic value of history lies less in the conclusions drawn than in the power developed and the skills obtained. The teacher of the social studies, therefore, should emphasize attitudes and intellectual habits, rather than appear as the infallible doctor dispensing social panaceas with the necessary sugar-coating. But has not the teacher some social philosophy, some stream of tendencies, some prejudices; will they not carry over to the classroom? It is not easy to depart mentalize oneself like the actor in the comics who changes his hat to serve a different function. But without delving into metaphysics one can recognize the different between the type of teaching that attempts to remain neutral on current controversial issues, and the type of teaching which attempts to inculcate a definite prediction. If in some things we must show partisanship, would it not be better to be overtly and honestly partisan? Why not say to the high school seniors: "This is the way I feel about it—be on your guard against my loading the dice of evidence?" Is it sedition to suggest that high school teachers might even "learn to say I do not know," on some controversial questions. G. Stanley Hall's true aim of a college education to "break down prejudices . . . and to postpone discipleship to any school or view in every field where there are many held by intelligent and sincere men," can still do service as a goal in the teaching of high school social studies.

And does to be critical mean to be colorless? Teachers, although they may exhibit what Michelet called le *désintéressement des morts*, can with proper motivation educe vigorous and enthusiastic class discussion. The recitation should be, as Dewey described it, "a social clearing house, where experiences and ideas are exchanged and subjected to criticism." [29] But it does not follow that all students must carry away the same opinions. In the discussion of controversial issues the teacher is not an "omniscent authority;" he is only a participator and guide. Indoctrination is not in itself a tonic for pallid pedagogy. A teacher may with oracular wisdom solve daily the problems of society and still make his lesson produce the effect of a sedative and a lullaby.

It is manifestly not the business of the public high schools to be a counterpoise to the propaganda current in a democratic society. As De Tocqueville pointed out over a hundred years ago, if Americans propose "to inculcate some truth or to foster some feeling . . . they form a society." [30] To combat militarism, there is pacifism. To combat nationalism there is internationalism. Our societies — patriotic, fraternal, military, peace, religious, commercial, political, and so on—influence the various organs of public opinion and tend to counterbalance each other. The schools have fought in the past with more or less success to escape their suborning influences. Indoctrinators should think twice before they ask the schools to enter the lists and compete with propagandist agencies.

Because liberals are loyal to the ideals of tolerance, open-mindedness, free speech, free press, and intellectual honesty, because they espouse no particular Utopia, it is unfair to assert, as have the indoctrinators, that the liberals have no abiding loyalties, no personal convictions and shallow social sympathies. Is conviction less worth while when it does not clothe itself with infallibility? To oppose indoctrination for a new society does not mean that one must fatuously embrace optimism and teach "God's in his heaven, all's right with the world." One may be as passionately and as whole-heartedly in favor of curbing the pathological excrescenses of an accepted order of things as in desiring a fundamental change. And one may be also honestly convinced that indoctrination will defeat its own purpose.

VI.

Finally, there is the fundamental fallacy in the thinking of the indoctrinators. They have omitted from their calculations one simple fact about the relationship of the public school and the State. The public school is not, as the indoctrinators seem to assume, an independent, self-sufficient organization. The school is an organ of the democratic state and has been from the beginning a mode of secular preservation of the existing formula for living. Education, whether we like the sound of the words or not, has always been used as the means of teaching the child the necessary truths as society sees them at the time. Education, like other governmental departments, is controlled by the dominant forces in society and is limited by the vision of the leaders of this dominant element. The public school, therefore, does not create, but rather reflects the intellectual climate

[26] Beard, C. A.: "A Charter for the Social Sciences," p. 32.
[27] Beard, C. A.: *Ibid*, p. 116.
[28] "Recent Social Trends;" *New York Times Supplement*, January 2, 1933, p. 5.
[29] Dewey, John: "The School and Society," p. 48.
[30] Pierce, Bessie Louise: Quoting De Tocqueville in "Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth." Foreword, p. ix.

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of the times. It is true that educators in our democratic society have been given comparatively greater freedom in choosing the curriculum and arranging methods of teaching, and as long as they are conservative and circumspect in the use of this power they may retain it. But this does not alter the essential fact that the pedagogues do not control the schools. It is only when ideas have become generally acceptable that they are incorporated into the curriculum. The public school is not an intellectual pioneer; it is a retailer of second-hand ideas.

The teacher, after all, is only an employee—an employee of the State. He must and should follow the policies that his employer dictates. Teachers may justly complain when they are made to suffer for misinterpretation, if their employer's directions be ambiguous. In the public schools the question of academic freedom has hardly ever entered. As Tennessee directs so shall Tennessean teachers teach. If teachers have struggled with authorities, it has usually been for the ordinary rights of citizenship, *i.e.*, the right to agitate on political issues and the right to live an unsupervised social life.

The indoctrinators all claim that they are realists, that they wish to face the facts, and yet in these parlous times we find them delivering eloquent exhortations to the effect that teachers should "throw off completely the slave psychology,"[31] "deliberately reach for power and then make the most of their conquest." It will be sad if some classroom Don Quixote yelds to these blandishments and sets out to create a new order by beating with naked fists against the intrenched walls of privilege. How easily a teacher can be separated from his teaching! Is there any doubt that in some communities a teacher is much more likely to succeed in losing his job than in making his pupils "starvation-in-the-midst-of-riches-conscious," or "futility-of-palliatives-conscious?"[32] Can leadership be really expected of teachers who are less unified and less centralized in organization than are physicians, locomotive engineers, or ladies' garment workers? Can the teaching profession ever develop leaders when in many sections of the United States teachers are not likely to gain promotion if they are so uncoöperative as to voice ideas which are more liberal or less conventional than those of their superiors? A study[33] of teachers' salaries in the United States published in 1911 showed that the median salary for American male teachers (including the high schools) was $489 a year and at the present time we are told that teachers in the United States who have an annual income of as much as $1,200 may count themselves among the plutocrats of the profession."[34] Can one expect teachers who are reduced to the "board-and-room" level to possess courage to indoctrinate for a new social order?

It has been popular of late for teachers' organizations to talk of leading the nation. But really just how advanced are the views adopted by the progressive organizations like the National Education Association. That organization[35] after two years of discussion in committee has definitely come out in favor of economic security, which is to be guaranteed through social insurances. Need I point out that the philosophy behind social insurances dates back to ancient times and that in actual practice most of the civilized countries adopted some forms of social insurance before the beginning of the 20th century. Now that the Federal Government has at last adopted the idea that men should be fed primarily not because they are deserving, but because they are hungry, educators are willing to follow. The objection is not that they should lead, as indoctrinators would vainly have it, but that they follow so slowly. No one need blame teachers nor mock their courage because they didn't agitate in 1895 for a graduated income tax when even a straight 2% tax on incomes was stigmatized by such leaders as Senators J. J. Hill and John Sherman as "paternalism, populism, socialism, communism, devilism."[36] Dare a teacher in the classroom today in San José, California or Princess Anne, Maryland, in the year 1934 A. D. unequivocally denounce so palpable a social crime as lynching? So long as the community which employs the teacher requires acquiescence, so long will the teacher be courting martyrdom if he attempts to lead.

No amount of rhetoric will change the fact that the schools are run by the dominant elements in our communities. Directed indoctrination, if accepted as the ideal in teaching, would serve only to make teaching a more effective instrument for the preservation of the existing order. Talk of indoctrination for a reconstructed society is therefore pure academic debate. It may be entertaining and probably is good mental exercise, but it has no practical value. We do not know what unchallengable truths to indoctrinate for a new and final social order and even if we thought we did, we could not impose them against the wishes of the community.

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[31] Counts, George S.: "Dare the School Build a New Social Order," pp. 30 and 28. John Day Pamphlets No. 11.

[32] Advocated by H. O. Rugg: "The Great Technology," p. 202.

[33] Coffman, Lotus Delta: "The Social Composition of The Teaching Population," p. 37.

[34] Carlson, Avis D.: *Harpers*, November, 1933, p. 711.

[35] *New York Times*, Sunday, November 12, 1933.

[36] Mead, Nelson P.: "The Development of the United States Since 1865, pp. 162-3.

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WHAT PRICE INDOCTRINATION?

DESPITE the lapse of time I feel that I ought to take up Mr. Geduldig's challenge on indoctrination, as set forth by him in his article in HIGH POINTS for last October. I am quite willing to accept his definition, that "indoctrination means the taking of controversial social questions about which there exists an honest difference of opinion, a decision as to which of the several possible answers is the best answer, and the presentation of the subject to the students with the intent that they may be convinced that the best solution is the one favored by the teacher."

I am not convinced that indoctrination is a wise procedure despite the fact that, feeling strongly, I may present my point of view to a class with all possible emphasis. We have had in the course of time indoctrination, conscious and unconscious—to-wit, Shakespeare-worship, the sacrosanctity of the Constitution, hero-worship in history, distortion of facts relative to the War of 1812, and so forth. Now it is perfectly true that his greatness may be challenged, and that today he may be the outmoded expression of a by-gone period. The feeling that the Constitution is sacrosanct has, if anything, stood in the way of much social and legal progress in these United States, and has created the idea that what was true and good in 1788 was still bound to be true and good in 1933. If such things happen with unconscious indoctrination, what will the results be with conscious indoctrination? Mr. Geduldig suggests that the teachers of social science or their delegates decide by a vast majority what the best solutions of crying social problems are, and proceed to indoctrinate accordingly. Unfortunately the results of the Disarmament Conference, of the Economic Conferences, and the general disagreement among economists as to the best monetary policy to be pursued, are not apt to make one hopeful of agreement among teachers. Then too, how can we decide as to the future and lay down a definite policy when the course of events may upset every decision to which a conference may come?

Moreover, how are we, poor fallible human beings, to avoid smug self-righteousness in the matter of indoctrination? What is to prevent us from thinking that what we feel is right must be right? By general agreement of the leaders of the Nazi party and of most of the followers thereof, racial purity is an established fact and is a *sine qua non* of national existence. No scientific facts can controvert the opinion which they are seeking to indoctrinate in the German people. But the Nazis feel that their point of view is correct and are acting accordingly. The French government has indoctrinated the French people with an idea of securlty that to the rest of the world seems absurd and rather more than exigent. We ourselves have seen the "noble experiment" at work. I

can remember as a boy how carefully we were taught the curse of alcohol and the curse of tobacco; it didn't matter that, scientifically, the proof that these two things are an evil was more than dubious; we were indoctrinated just the same. Are we to conclude for this type of indoctrination that it is of value to the world, or even to the country concerned?

All this is utterly aside from the point of view of tolerance or intolerance. We can see the implications in this respect—in Germany and in Russia. Mr. Geduldig assumes that this phase does not imply a "forced shaping of the minds of students along certain channels and that, in the last analysis, the matter of choice rests with the individual student." He says that it means simply "the giving of one additional fact," and that "one of two solutions or attitudes is the better one in the opinion of the vast majority of scholars." Why, may we ask, should this be true? Isn't it possible for a progressive or radically-minded group in the course of time to become conservative and by the weight of its opinion to impose an opinion as universally true and eternal? If I mistake not, Hitler has said somewhere that his ideas would last for 500,000 years, or at any rate for some indefinite series of aeons of time. With such a point of view, tolerance is out of the question; a doctrine becomes a dogma and is to be defended as such.

Mr. Geduldig feels that indoctrination is inevitable either from the point of view of the *status quo* or from the point of view of liberalism. I'm afraid that his thinking is confused. There is considerable difference between a teacher's expression, I'll even say his emphatic expression, of his own point of view and his seeking to impose it as the best of all points of view upon a class. By all means should a teacher have a definite standpoint. By all means should he express that standpoint, and defend it, be it radical or conservative; but his value as a teacher is to be tested by his willingness to listen to and to discuss opinions other than his own. Mr. Geduldig raises the question as to whether there is at present any substantial amount of independent thinking going on in our student body as a whole. I can answer, as he would: No. But this lack of independent thinking is due to low-grade minds, to naught else, and certainly indoctrination will not improve the situation. He also asks what spontaneous courageous thinking would be endangered by indoctrination. One has only to consider the entire course of history. We've had, for example, religious heresy, and no one can challenge the sincerity of the heresy hunters. Certainly, according to their own lights, they were acting in the best interest of the heretics. Today we have political heresies, and we have only to look at Russia, Italy and Germany, to say nothing of these United States to see what that leads to. No indoctrination can ever stop with the mere theory of indoctrination. It is bound sooner or later to result in our regarding the indoctrinated principles

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as general axioms. Mr. Geduldig, moreover, is just a bit apt to regard analogy as logic and reasoning. It's quite easy to compare a fire in the house with the world on fire, but, unfortunately, the first is literal, the second figurative. We know how to act fairly well in a definite situation such as fire or flood, but, be it observed parenthetically, there *are* panics. But when the world is afire, or amiss, or ajar, the causes of the crisis are so various, its nature itself is so uncertain and the remedies so diverse, that we cannot pretend to conceive of the figurative as literal and to act accordingly.

The French draw a distinction between education and instruction. They feel that education is primarily a matter of the home and family, that instruction is the duty of the school. The school presents the facts or what may pass as facts. It is for the pupil to learn how to interpret them. I do not for a moment pretend that the French consistently carry out the principles herein involved. However, the French have managed to attain a high degree of civilization and culture, a fairly compact social organization and despite what we call a low standard of living, a fair degree of happiness, while fiercely maintaining and defending the idea of individuality.

No, if we are to seek a new social order, it cannot be by indoctrination, but by infiltration, by the clash of ideals; by free will, not by determinism.

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THE NEW BIOGRAPHY IN AMERICA*

BIOGRAPHY, like the other artistic forms of literature which we have recently discussed over the radio, poetry, fiction, and the drama, has undergone a great change since the turn of the century. Almost a hundred years ago Carlyle in the opening paragraphs of his essay on Burns quarreled with the former biographers of the Scotch poet because one gave only a mere catalogue of facts, another wrote apologetically of his subject, a third simply gave the main events of Burns' life in chronological sequence. Carlyle believed that biography should show what and how produced was the effect of society on the man and what and how This social aspect of biography we believe to be a long step in the right direction. Macaulay also had an interesting conception of this subject. In his essay on Macchiavelli he writes: "The best portraits are perhaps those in which there is a slight mixture of caricature; and we are not certain that the best histories are not those in which a little of the exaggeration of fictitious narrative is judiciously employed. Something is lost in accuracy, but much is gained in effect." Regarding his subjects of biography, he "shows us over their houses and seats us at their tables." But he and Carlyle were by no means ordinary writers of biography. Both were far in advance of their time.

Before the second decade of the present century, the attitude of the conventional biographer toward his subject had been a respectful, if not a reverent one—a sort of "goody-goody" attitude, if you please. Men of the past were put on a pedestal; their virtuous acts were subjected to microscopic exaggeration; their vices were either entirely overlooked or completely minimized, so that the student of biography could come to but one conclusion regarding the men whose lives he read—they were god-like heroes. Now, as a matter of fact, we know that men are not gods nor have they ever been—so that a turn-about in attitude regarding the subjects of biography was necessary.

Then, too, the main events of a man's life were given in chronological order. The opening sentence stated the subject's birth, as in the case of Forster's standard biography of Dickens which began: "Charles Dickens, the most popular novelist of this century and one of the greatest humorists whom England has produced, was born at Portsea on Friday, 7 February, 1812." Then followed an account of the man's childhood, marriage, struggles and triumphs, influence, and death.

Lytton Strachey in England, André Maurois in France, and Emil Ludwig in Germany seemed to realize that something was faulty with this conception of biography and set about to correct the situation. Let us briefly review the point of view of each of these men and note the part each played in the development of the new biography.

The father of the movement undoubtedly was Lytton Strachey whose "Eminent Victorians," published in 1918, and "Queen Victoria" printed three years later started the ball rolling. In his preface to the former work our author states his idea of the functions of the biographer: "To preserve, for instance, a becoming brevity—a brevity which excludes everything that is redundant and nothing that is significant—that, surely is the first duty of the biographer. The second, no less surely, is to maintain his own freedom of spirit. It is not his business to be complimentary, it is his business to lay bare the facts of the case, as he understands them. That is what I have aimed at in this book—to lay bare the facts of some cases, as I understand them, dispassionately, impartially, and without ulterior intentions. To effect this he has introduced imaginary conversations, assumed the attitude of the novelist which combines fact with fiction, and employed a psychological analysis that reminds us of Freud and Jung; and in each instance he has added his own dry irony and subtle wit. The result is a biography of disenchantment, of iconoclasm; yet above everything

* A talk given over Radio Station WNYC, January 6, 1934—the fourth of a series of five talks on "Trends in Twentieth Century Literature."

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else we have come to look upon all his subjects as real men and women, not as glorified puppets or robots.

As I said a minute ago, André Maurois has shown the way for biographers in France with his "Ariel," "Disraeli," and "Byron." His method differs radically from that of the conventional biographer who made of his subject a hero. Maurois believes in the truth at any cost. "The idea is that if the so-called hero is in reality a mere stuffed shirt, then no harm can come from his unmasking, but if greatness inheres in him, the true picture will reveal his worth." He spurns the use of footnotes, acknowledgments, and bibliographies, in his aim "to build a work of art." The biographer "must not *invent* anything; his art is to *forget*. If he has at his disposal 200 letters and a long diary, he must know how to extract the few sentences that will convey a genuine impression." His books have been best sellers in two countries and in three languages.

The third writer whom I consider a world-famous exponent of the new biography is the German, Emil Ludwig. An incident that recently occurred in New York will show the extent and nature of the influence of his work. Herr Ludwig noticed one day that one of the elevator boys in the hotel was reading his "Life of Napoleon." "So you are reading that book, are you?" remarked the author. "Does it interest you?" "Yes," replied the boy, "it interests me a great deal because in that man's life I find a great many resemblances to my own character." You'll admit that it's a far cry from Napoleon to the elevator boy, yet Ludwig was able to show that we're all brothers under the skin. Regarding the value of biography, he says: "My ideal is to produce a work which shall be strictly accordant with the available documentary evidence, but shall none the less bear the imprint of an imaginative re-creation." His success in realizing this ideal is borne out by the vast number of readers in Europe and America who have appreciated his volumes on Napoleon and Bismark.

And what of the status of Biography in America? To be sure, we have no genius of the stamp of the three writers previously mentioned, yet biography during the past six years has crowded even fiction for popularity. The peak was reached in 1928 when no less than 723 biographies were published. Let us hear what the late Gamaliel Bradford, the father of the new American biography (who, by the way, preferred to call himself a "psychographer") had to say: "As a portrait painter I could present a man at only one moment of his career, and depict his character in only one phase, one situation, one set of conditions and circumstances. Now the aim of psychography is precisely the opposite of this. Out of the perpetual flux of actions and circumstances that constitutes a man's life, it seeks to extract what is essential, what is permanent and so vitally characteristic.—There is no attempt to follow a man from birth to grave."

These principles he has followed in characters as divergent as Louisa May Alcott and Casanova, Shakespeare and Napoleon, Benedict Ariold and Lenin—and done it well

A few minutes ago I stated that Strachey at times assumed the attitude of the novelist which combines fact with fiction. This novelized biography is often resorted to in America. Witness the opening lines of David Loth's "The Browning": "'Gentlemen, a toast—to the Poets of England.' Before the speaker could resume his seat cigars were deposited tenderly on the edge of plates, glasses clinked and there arose the faint, dull, slightly sheepish mutter which indicates that the festive Britisher is pleased." Other American fictional biographies of this type are Hervey Allen's "Israfel" and M. R. Werner's "Barnum."

Not content with introducing a certain amount of fiction in their biographies, some of our writers, in their desire to arrest the attention of the public, resort to a candor more satirical than sincere, a desire to "expose" rather than to explain. As A. C. Ward says in his volume, "American Literature 1880-1930," these men "parboiled Strachey and Freud in the same literary pot." The result was the "debunking" type of biography. In this type of work, so much mud is thrown at certain figures in American life that even their own mothers wouldn't recognize them. Let me quote from Edgar Lee Master's "Lincoln: the Man":

"Lincoln was a cold man. He went about grotesquely dressed carrying a faded umbrella, wearing a ludicrous plug hat. He was mannerless, unkempt, and one wonders if he was not unwashed in those days of the weekly bath in the foot-tub, if a bath was taken at all."

Here Lincoln is made almost a fit subject for Ripley's "Believe It or Not" column, is he not? In much the same manner Washington has been denuded by Rupert Hughes and W. E. Woodward. Certain indications, however, point to the early demise of this type of biography.

When, too, there is a vast number of biographies which I find it impossible to classify. Limited time prevents my mentioning but two of them, both curiously enough, written by English women and published within the past year. The first is "The Book of Talbot" by Violet Clifton, his wife. It recounts the weird adventures of a man who deliberately sacrificed his full inheritance as the eldest son of an immensely wealthy member of Parliament to enjoy Elizabethan fullness of experience as a globe-trotter. The contents, style and printing of the book are unorthodox; they follow no rules, rather do they create them. Surprises appear on every page, from this line on the first page: "Talbot Clifton was born in 1868, and he suckled his mother so fiercely that she had a wound in her breast" to this on the last: "And so the days and nights, instead of being as ashes and as shadows, were like the great wells of oil, in some mountains, that burn perpetually. The tongues

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of flames leaping upward—to God, for Talbot." The other book that defies classification is "Flush: a Biography" by Virginia Woolf. This volume purports to be the life story of Elizabeth Barrett Browning's famous cocker spaniel—one who really had a dog's life. If you don't believe it, listen to this excerpt:

"There came the day when Flush could control his irritation no longer, when he let his teeth, so long set on edge by the very sight of the well-tailored, muscular Mr. Browning, at last sink sharply, completely into the stuff of his trousers! There came the even darker moment when Miss Barrett boxed his ears for such behavior and told him she would never love him more." This strained state of affairs, however, as you can well imagine, did not last very long, for Flush very wisely resigned himself to his fate.

In closing, ladies and gentlemen of the radio audience, let me briefly review the points covered in this little talk on biography. Beginning with Lytton Strachey's volume "Eminent Victorians" in 1918, there has been a sharp breaking away from the conventional matter and manner of writing of the lives of men, which in the past had adhered to the strict chronological order, and had assumed a saccharine attitude toward the subject. Strachey in England played the part of the detached observer, laying bare the facts of some cases; in others, combining fact and fiction. Maurois in France has held that to build up a work of art a genuine impression must be created not by the *quantity* of material selected but rather by the *quality*. Ludwig in Germany differs from Maurois by stressing the ethical, didactic purposes of biography. To him every subject is a symbol mirroring the universal characteristics of all mankind. In America, the father of the new biography, Gamaliel Bradford, has employed what he chooses to call *psychography*, or the art of careful selection, to establish a complete, unbiassed impression of his subject. Exponents of the "debunking" biography are Edgar Lee Masters and Rupert Hughes who have established for themselves the reputation of being champion soot-throwers. Their creed is to pluck dead lions by the beard.

And now—just one word more. Biography at this very moment seems to suffer the defect of its qualities. Its extreme popularity has caused the exhuming of so many folk heroes, social freaks, and politicians whose memories might better have been "interred with their bones" that the industry has become almost a racket. The result is that so gifted a writer as Emil Ludwig has become disgusted with the work and has turned to the writing of history. I feel, however, that his fears for the future of biography are ungrounded. The true biographer writes of life, and brings to his subject literary skill, devotion to his job, and tact. Wherever there is a sky above him, he finds his material, and will write of it conscientiously and well as he has done since the days of Plutarch. And biography, like its parent, literature, will continue to "purify itself in two ways — the mud will sink to the bottom, the scum will rise to the top, and the clear stream, purified of its dross" will flow on complacently till the end of time.

GEORGE J. CRANE,
Chairman, Department of English.
Boys High School.

THE IMPORTANCE OF A BETTER MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF PAN AMERICA*

NOT only do I feel it an honor to have been asked to address this gathering on the eve of the 103rd anniversary of Bolivar's death, but I consider it a most happy honor to have been asked to come here by friends who, in spite of my limitations, seem to feel that I have a message. It gives me great pleasure to see once more Mr. Merril, your presiding officer, who so kindly came to address our Pan American Assembly at James Monroe, giving generously of his time out of a very busy day, and, of course, I am delighted to see again Mr. Hochstein, faculty adviser and inspiring genius of the first Pan American Club, the one established at James Monroe.

I fear I may offend some of our language teachers when I say that to me the Pan American Club should stand for far more than an extra-curricular activity of a Spanish Language Department. To me the Pan American Club has only as one of its minor possibilities the development of an interest in the Spanish language. To begin with, Pan American includes peoples speaking English, Spanish, Portuguese, Danish, French, Dutch, and innumerable Indian dialects. To me the primal purpose of a Pan American Club should be the spread of a political and economic ideal. If that will lead to arousing a greater interest in the languages of Pan America, so much the better; that would be a highly desirable by-product, and if the right political and economic ideals take hold, such by-product will come as a natural result.

I realize that I am not an authority either in international affairs or in economics, but I have read much and I have travelled considerably. What I give you then is not an authoritative prophesy, but merely the result of really deep reflection on my actual and vicarious experiences.

I am absolutely convinced of the decline of the importance of Europe, a political and industrial, even a cultural decline. I think that we will all admit that the whole world has become industrialized. There was a time when Europe was the factory for the world, selling its goods to all the other continents and buying with the proceeds its food and raw material, and making enough profit on the ex-

*An address delivered at the fifth city-wide convention of the Pan American Student League, December 16, 1933.

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change to build up its cultural centres. What is the condition today? The whole world is becoming industrialized. More and more are the former customers of Europe supplying their own needs. The lack of skilled workmen in which Europe formerly had the monopoly, is greatly being overcome by the rest of the world. What is bound to happen? Europe's population must decline, and it will decline by warfare, the result of the desperation of nations in an attempt to maintain themselves, by declining birth rates, and by mass emigration. All this means now and is going to continue to mean a tremendous political and a tremendous economic upheaval. We have been too long the slavish followers of Europe. Our future security and our future danger are to the south and on the Pacific. I am not speaking of the next five or ten years; I am thinking in terms of the next generations. And just as we are the inheritors of the generations preceding us, so must we consider ourselves the makers of wills for those to succeed us. Our schools have practically neglected the countries and their peoples to the south of us. Examine the courses of study in history and in geography. Every child must know about Robespierre and Danton, about Bismarck and Frederick the Great, Catherine of Russia and Garibaldi. How many know anything about Simón Bolívar and San Martín? Every child is supposed to know about the mountains of Italy, the products of Denmark, the windmills of Holland. Go over your geographic textbooks and your geographic readers and see how much they are supposed to know about Central America and South America and their peoples, and yet our interests are even now, and will be more and more, bound up with those people. For political and economic reasons it is most important that we understand our neighbors to the south and north; that we understand the environment in which they live and which helps to shape their thinking and their ideals; that we understand their Art, their Music, their Literature, their political aspirations; that we attempt to understand them, not with an air of superiority, thinking of them as "poor spics," "rough canucks," or "dirty greasers," but rather as members of a common family whose happiness and safety lie in friendly competition and coöperation. There are signs, many signs, that the statesmen of the country are beginning to realize the necessity for all this. A modification of the Monroe Doctrine from a unilateral to a multilateral policy is already taking place. Pan American congresses, tours of good will, Roosevelt's unprecedented action in consulting South and Central American states in the matter of action in Cuba—all these are but signs that far-seeing statesmen have a long-distance view; but our people as a whole are still a combination of senseless tradition which makes them slavish followers of Europe in their hearts, no matter what their lips may say, and an absurd provincialism which makes them say kind things about our immediate

neighbors, but with such an air of superiority that it becomes offensive. Isn't it curious that our nearest neighbors should be more closely affiliated with the ideals of Europe than with our own? Pan American clubs have a wonderful mission to fulfill. If they can develop a real understanding of the inter-dependence of Pan America, they will have conferred a benefit not merely upon their individual members, but on the whole nation. Their membership will go out each succeeding year into the world as a leaven that will gradually permeate the entire body politic, helping the far-seeing statesmen to bring about the Pan American ideal, a real League of Nations not based on fear or greed, but based on a community of interests basically founded upon the happiness and well-being of all people. Such clubs, of course, should be established in every country of Pan America. May the Pan American clubs live, flourish, and grow until they flower into an overwhelming movement that will show the world that it may live in peace without tyranny and without enslavement; that will show the world that it is possible to have a "Pan" idea, an "all-inclusive" idea based not on likeness of birth or race or creed or color, but based on a community of ideals evolved into peaceful intercourse, not into distrust, armed camps and war—a real unity in diversity. All power to those with the vision—and you, representatives of Young America, leagued together in Pan American Clubs, can be the torchbearers of a brighter, happier day.

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.
James Monroe High School.

THREE YEARS OF PAN AMERICAN CLUB WORK IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

PRIOR to September, 1930, Pan American Clubs were either entirely unknown in our high schools or had had an ephemeral existence here and there as a result of some Spanish teacher's enthusiasm. In spite of the sincerity of purpose and devoted leadership, those early efforts were shortlived and did not produce any lasting organizations. There wasn't even available a record of what had been done to guide any new attempt in a similar direction. However, at this writing, only a little over three years since the date mentioned above, there are over 40 Pan American Clubs actively functioning in the high schools (main and annex buildings) with an Alumni Chapter for those genuinely interested in carrying on after they have left school. All boroughs of the city have these clubs which constitute the city-wide organization known as *The Pan American Student League of New York*, with headquarters at the De Witt Clinton High School.

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These clubs have not only developed and multiplied rapidly, but also demonstrated a marked vitality. Today it is true in nearly all schools that they are the most popular clubs because the most active in a really constructive way. The energy they have released is evidenced by the richness of their programs and the ambitious scope of their projects. They have gone beyond the limits of their respective schools, not only in the formation and maintenance of the League relationship, but also in establishing contacts and working arrangements with adult organizations outside of the schools, correlating their work in mutual activities.

To such an extent has this extramural phase been developed that the *Herald Tribune* has given editorial recognition to *The Pan American Student League* as an effective supplementary aid to larger and even official bodies in bringing about better inter-American feeling and real understanding. On December 20, 1932, following the Third City-Wide Convention of the League, this important daily felt that the League "fills a much needed gap in our local educational system." Decrying the all too general business attitude toward Latin America, which usually overlooks the human values of the other Americas, the editorial writer went on to say: "There are other close ties, cultural, which bind us so close to Latin America that we can no longer afford to ignore its history or the development of its present. These youths of the city are deserving of the greatest credit for their interest in acquiring an intelligent understanding of those countries. Their usual text-books tell them little, and among those who have completed a course in general history there are a thousand who have heard of Sargon and Sulla to one who could place Bolívar or San Martín, men vastly more important in their influence on the present-day world."

That the League is really developing in the direction of an aid in inter-American friendship becomes even clearer from the high regard frequently expressed for it both by The Pan American Union and the Latin-American diplomatic and consular representatives in this country, whose coöperation and friendship this high school organization is proud of having the right to claim and of being privileged to enjoy. From the Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. Leo S. Rowe, the League has received words like these: "One of the great problems confronting us in our relations with the nations of Latin America is the development of closer cultural ties and I feel certain that a League such as yours can make an important contribution to this great end."

Hon. Alfredo Henriod, now Secretary of the Interior of Peru and formerly Consul-General of his country in this city, declared in a communication to the League: "It is my sincere wish that the splendid work being done by The Pan American Student League at the present may always find complete success so that the younger generation may contribute, in due time, to the goodwill and friendship amongst all American Nations." And so from consul after consul of the Latin-American corps in this city have come and still continue to come expressions of appreciation of the work carried on by the League.

Such laudatory comments have been received even from the legations and embassies in Washington, whose heads have learned, mostly through reports of their consuls and other nationals, of the good work of the League. The then Minister from Nicaragua, now President of his country, Sr. Juan B. Sacasa, wrote as far back as 1931: "Let me congratulate your League upon the high aims it has in view, which will do much toward furthering the cause of international peace through better understanding of the life and ideals of other nations." The Log Book of the League proudly boasts of similar letters from Latin-American statesmen as well known throughout the continent as the present Foreign Ministers of Chile and Mexico, Sr. don Miguel Cruchaga Tocornal and Sr. don José Manuel Puig Casauranc, respectively, who figured so prominently in the recent Pan American Conference in Montevideo. (Both of these noted diplomats were ambassadors to Washington from their respective nations at the time of their communications to the League.)

Similarly, the League has attracted the favorable attention of the press both here and in Latin America and its work has elicited complimentary comments. The *Herald Tribune* regularly gives space to discussion of the League's activities on its Latin-American page in its Sunday edition. The education editor of the *Times* solicited and published an article on the League. At all of its city-wide gatherings these two leading morning dailies of the city have always been represented. At the latest city-wide convention, the *Christian Science Monitor*, noted for its special interest in foreign relations, was represented throughout the whole day of sessions by a staff member, who reported fully on the proceedings.

But even more encouraging than the attention received from the local press, is the rather wide publicity the League has achieved in the Latin-American press, both of the Spanish and Portuguese Americas. This provides a very effective measure of the extent to which such a student activity can exert influence on the improvement of relations between North and Hispanic America. These press comments in Latin America have consisted of both news reports and editorial opinion. As an example of many others, too numerous to cite here, I shall quote from the most recent editorial on the League that appeared in the *Digesto Latinoamericano* (a bilingual weekly review of continental news and opinion published in Panama City) for December 25, 1933:

The Pan American Student League of New York, an organization founded three years ago, deserves special praise as being indicative of that desire to know Latin America which is much in evidence

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among North Americans of the type which most faithfully represents the great ideals on which that nation was founded.

President Roosevelt's Good Neighbor policy was in itself noble, if it stood as the President's policy alone; but it is much more than that; it is the annunciation by the spokesman of the people of the United States of a feeling that is genuinely American. The real greatness of the Good Neighbor policy can be appreciated only when we realize that back of it is not only Roosevelt's true and stout heart but the heart of a large and ever-growing group of his people.

This is the most cheerful sign we can point to this Christmas tide. We sincerely trust that not only will The Pan American Student League grow, but that soon we may count in all the countries of this continent upon bodies of young men imbued with similar sentiments.

In view of the above it is, therefore, proper to review at this time the short history of the League, to examine its procedure and to state its ideology, so that many teachers and school administrators, as yet unfamiliar with its purposes and activities, may become interested in its work. That will undoubtedly be of great value and assistance to the Pan American Clubs in the schools in which they are operating.

I. Aims and Ideals

In a general way the foregoing discussion has served to set forth the goal at which the League is aiming. Inter-American rapprochements for continental peace and coöperation through mutual knowledge is a program to which the American Governments as well as many civic bodies throughout the Americas are devoted. But up to very recent years the error was fairly universally made in the Americas of leaving this work entirely to adults. Pan Americanism, therefore, had to wean people already set in their ideas and attitudes away from many misconceptions about the other Americas and convert them to the view of an all-American solidarity, if only for the purpose of preserving peace in the western world. This explains the slow and painful progress of a movement that should appeal instantaneously to Americans of the North and the South.

It is with this condition in mind and with a view to remedy the situation at least somewhat that the Pan American Club idea was launched over three years ago. However, no attempt was made by the faculty leaders to foist their views on the student membership. The boys and girls were advised, guided and helped to find themselves in this new field of interest and study and to draw their own conclusions. It was very gratifying to note the development of their thinking on Pan American problems. Often at League gatherings the youthful delegates of the clubs would present daring projects for the League, even to the extent of petitioning the Government against its procedures and policies in inter-American relations. Again, the faculty leaders refrained from applying any pressure in any direction, limiting themselves to indicating their opinion of what useful work the League might engage in.

The statement of the ideals of the League, as embodied by the Fourth City-Wide Convention in May, 1933, into the League's Constitution as its Article I is, therefore, of real interest to all who would study the reaction of our young students to such a stimulus to their thinking as is offered by Pan Americanism. The first three sections of this article read as follows:

Section 1: Cultural rapproachement with Latin America is the ideal to which this League dedicates itself.

Section 2: The activities of the League and of its Chapters shall be such as will enlighten its members on the subject of the civilization of Latin America, give them a genuine understanding and appreciation of its culture and ideals and inculcate in them a spirit of friendliness toward the people of Latin America.

Section 3: The League shall endeavor to educate its members to make proper use of their rights as citizens of the United States to maintain the attitude of our country in its relations with the nations of Latin America amicable and just.

The policy of the Good Neighbor and the New Deal in inter-American relations enunciated by President Roosevelt as the standards to be followed hereafter by this country in its dealings with its sister republics of America require just such support from the citizens of our land as the above statement of the League's principles is designed to give by educating the growing generation to its duties and responsibilities in the larger American sociality. That education for this relationship is necessary cannot be doubted. We all know the narrowness of view, the prejudicial ignorance and the misinformation that everywhere nourish international hostilities, racial hatreds and suspicion between people and people, nation and nation. Perhaps the existence of our own democracy, in this period of democracy's widespread decline, is dependent upon a broad-minded liberalism in relations among different racial, religious and linguistic groups that constitute our population. There is at least ample evidence at hand in the case of one recent débâcle of democracy that it goes hand in hand with that type of hatred and barbarian ignorance that the Pan American movement would banish forever from our hemisphere.

If training for citizenship is a proper function of the public school, shouldn't that training extend over the full scope of an enlarged American citizenship as is implied in the policy of the Good Neighbor?

II. Origin: The Monroe Experiment

The League believes in the affirmative answer to the above question. It

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really had its beginning at the James Monroe High School, where the Spanish Department, headed by Mrs. Antoinette L. Herrmann, was of the belief that its subject not only might serve as a vehicle for such an experiment in inter-American education, but that in order to fulfill its true function in the secondary curriculum it was obligated to undertake this Pan American Club activity. If the Spanish Club had a message for North American students, certainly a Pan American Club had one, and a very urgent one at that, if we bear in mind the trend of inter-American relations about the year 1930.

Thus the first club was organized at Monroe in September, 1930. Though its activities were still to be formulated as a result of experience and through a process of selection and elimination, the general idea set forth as the aim of the new club proved to be very appealing to the students, because from the very beginning it enjoyed a large and, what is incomparably more important, an enthusiastic membership. In fact, many of those original members, long since graduated, are still affiliated with the League in a very active capacity.

In addition to its good fortune in attracting a fine student type, the first club enjoyed the advantage of a very propitious setting for its development. Dr. Hein, the principal, had already been following a policy of making his an all-American school, and Mrs. Herrmann, as head of the Spanish Department, gave very loyal support and inspiring leadership. As a result of this happy combination of circumstances, the club's program evolved and took shape so successfully, the members became so genuinely interested and experienced such real pleasure in their association with it that they carried news of their activity to friends attending other high schools. This was the best test of the value the club had for them. To the faculty leader it was the most gratifying reward.

The activities inaugurated by the Monroe club have become features of the programs of all succeeding Pan American Clubs. While they represented no creation *ex nihilo*, there was something genuinely new about them. It was in the spirit of seriousness, in the social significance attached to them, in the high plane on which they were set up as part and parcel of a movement for continental rapprochement that the newness resided. High school clubs have usually been treated as childish affairs, on the play level. The Pan American Club was immediately declared to be no mere after-school pastime, but a cultural center where problems would be discussed, where students would have to be active and make contributions and not expect to be passive spectators at entertainments.

As these activities will be discussed in detail in section V, let it suffice here to state that an attempt was made to arouse an interest in the various problems of inter-American relations, in their historic perspective as well as in their current phase, and to translate that interest into a guided seeking of knowledge on the subject of Latin America and the play of forces between it and North America.

And it worked! Monroe students not only talked about their club to their friends, as mentioned above, but talked so convincingly that those friends went about starting such clubs in their own schools. Thus was born the League idea.

III. The League Idea

To give this student initiative the support it deserved and to promote the organization of clubs in other schools, Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages in the High Schools, issued a circular letter on October 19, 1931, to all high school principals and chairmen of modern language departments, calling their attention to the successful Monroe experiment, which had already been duplicated at De Witt Clinton and one or two other schools, and asking them to act in favor of such clubs in their own schools.

To Mr. Wilkins' letter was appended a full discussion of this club movement, its purposes and prospects. As it has served to arouse interest in this new school activity not only in this city but also in many others, where New York's example has been followed, some of its statements may be recalled at this time. Under the heading: "The High School as a Pan-Americanization Agency" it said:

> Among the intellectual forces of this country organized to promote the ideals of Pan Americanism there is still missing, though it should perhaps be in the vanguard, the high school group. The American school has always rightfully been the country's leading instrumentality for Americanization. If the American school is to keep its merited position in the trend toward a Greater America, it must become the outstanding agency for Pan-Americanization.

The Spanish teacher's special opportunity for social service through his subject was thus expressed:

> Spanish is the language of that part of the world in which our Government claims a traditional and exclusive political interest. Spreading the Pan American gospel falls in line with the best and most urgent interests—economic, political and diplomatic — of this country. We can thus become a most important social instrument if we but will. And there can be no doubt that as teachers it is clearly our duty to do that which we are best equipped to do for the promotion of peace and good-will among the Americas.

The organization of the League and the retention of its most interested members in an Alumni group was outlined as follows:

> A city-wide federation of such Pan American Clubs will be organized as soon as there are several clubs operating. The purpose is to make the movement an intellectual force of far greater reach than the ordinary high school club; to make the boys and girls conscious that

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they are engaging in an activity that reaches out beyond the walls of their several clubs and schools; in fact that they can carry their experience and work right over into the outside and greater world into which they emerge from school. For this purpose the Alumni section is proposed as well as associate membership for adults. If we try, we can succeed in interesting prominent men and women in all walks of life who are enlisted in the Pan American ranks to give our pupils and us, too, the benefit of their broader experience.

Like the call to the Monroe students to join the first club, so this letter to all the schools struck a most responsive chord. Between October 19, the date of its issue, and the following December 19, there came into existence 15 new clubs, making a total of 19. These nineteen organizations met in a city-wide convention on the latter date at International House and set up *The Pan American Student League of New York*, with a staff of student officers representing all the boroughs.

Since then the League has made very rapid progress, both in the number of clubs and members and in the deepening of understanding of its purpose. The sections quoted above from its constitution, setting forth its ideology, were actually the result of student discussion and debate at city-wide meetings. That it has also achieved a certain measure of recognition as a potential force, at least, for better Inter-American relations is clear from the reactions of the press and noted individuals described above.

IV. Inter-Club Activities

Each club is an autonomous body, under the direction of a faculty leader and ruled by its own constitution. As a Chapter of the League it must, of course, abide by the organization's principles and work in behalf of the general program. However, the affiliation with all other clubs in the League makes possible certain activities which cannot be carried on by absolutely unrelated clubs.

1. Foremost among these inter-club activities is the City-Wide Convention, of which there have already been five. The last was held on Saturday, December 16, 1933, at Hotel Hamilton, on West 73rd Street. Its program will fully illustrate the nature of this function held once each term, in December and May respectively, and which is attended by five delegates from each club, faculty leaders and other guests, students and adults.

Programme

A. *Business Session:* 10:15 A. M. to 1:15 P. M.

(1) Address of Welcome..... President David Schor

(2) Greeting to Delegates..... Mr. L. A. Wilkins

(3) Report on Term's Work..... The Faculty Director

(4) Reports from Borough Councils ..... Delegates

(5) Discussion of Reorganization of Borough Councils and adoption of necessary constitutional amendments.

(6) Election of Officers..... Supervised by Mr. David S. Goldberg

B. *Luncheon for Delegates and Guests:* 1:15 to 3 P. M.

(1) In main dining-room of Hotel.

(2) Mr. John L. Merrill, President of The Pan American Society, Toastmaster.

(3) Address: Dr. Henry E. Hein, Principal of James Monroe High School: "The Pan American Club."

(4) Address: Hon. José M. Richling, Acting Minister from Uruguay and Dean of Latin-American Consular Corps in New York: "Secretary Hull's Pan Americanism."

(5) Response: Mr. David Schor, President of the League.

(6) A program of Spanish songs by Sr. Agustín Miquel, a popular radio tenor, accompanied by Miss Libby.

C. *Dance for Delegates and Guests:* 3 to 5 P. M.

These conventions are the only regular forum on Pan Americanism in our city. Their educational value lies in the contacts and matching of minds they provide for a body of students interested in the same ideal and study. These gatherings make the students realize the wide human application their school and club work has.

At the last Convention the following officers were elected: David Schor, of the Alumni Chapter, President of the League; Raphael Gold, of the Clinton Chapter, Borough President of the Bronx; Roy Steyer, of Boys' High Chapter, Borough President of Brooklyn; Joseph Politi, of Commerce Chapter, Borough President of Manhattan; Arthur Cohen, of Curtis Chapter, Borough President af Richmond; and Lillian Tersaga, of Flushing Chapter, Borough President of Queens.

2. In between City-Wide Conventions the League relationship is maintained through Borough Councils, consisting of the representatives of all the clubs within each borough, meeting under the presidency of the borough student executive elected at the Convention. At these sessions exchange of club visits and programs and other matters of mutual interest are discussed. These Councils meet twice each term before the Convention.

Each borough also has a faculty leader who acts as adviser to the Council. The Board of Borough Faculty Leaders is now composed of: *Bronx:* Mrs. R. de Román, of Theodore Roosevelt High School; *Brooklyn:* Mr. David S. Goldberg, of Samuel J. Tilden High School; *Manhattan:* Mrs. Leah W. Kahnheimer, of the High School of Commerce; *Richmond:* Miss Marie Sabater, of Curtis High School; *Queens:* Mr.

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William F. Griffin, of Newtown High School.

3. Every year on or as near April 14 as possible (the date celebrated in all American republics as Pan American Day), the League observes by a special program of dramatics and music this day dedicated to the ideal of solidarity of all the Americas. The various numbers on the program are provided by the members of several of the Pan American Clubs and groups of members from all clubs attend the celebration. (The attendance is usually well over 1,000 pupils.)

This event is held in coöperation with The Pan American Society of this city, which provides a suitable auditorium for the purpose and also participates in the program through its representatives. The last celebration was held in the Grand Ball Room of the Commodore Hotel. The one before that took place at the Waldorf Astoria.

An interesting feature of the program on Pan American Day, 1933, were two addresses by students, one a Latin-American, Federico de Córdova, the then president of the League, and the other a North American, Grace Bonsall, of James Monroe High School. The respective topics were: "What Pan Americanism Means to a Hispanic-American Student" and "What Pan Americanism Means to a North American Student."

4. The League has also established an award, with the generous financial coöperation of The Pan American Society, to be made at the end of each term in each Chapter to that member who has contributed most, in the opinion of the faculty leader, to the advancement of the League's program. This award is known as the Bolivar-San Martín Medal, a shield on which are engraved the coats of arms of the 21 American Republics.

5. The League occasionally conducts city-wide essay contests on Pan-American topics. Usually cash prizes are offered by some of the adult organizations coöperating with the League.

6. For a year the League was able to publish its own monthly bulletin, *The Pan American Student*, carrying news of all activities of the League and its Chapters and also articles on pertinent topics. However, this bulletin has had to be suspended on account of financial difficulties. It is hoped that it may be resumed before very long. The bulletin was edited by a staff of student writers.

7. The League also maintains contact with similar groups outside of New York for exchange of ideas, news and projects. As there are many Pan American Clubs throughout the country and three other leagues of such clubs, the day may yet come when the ideal of a nation-wide youth movement in behalf of all-American friendship may be realized.

V. Club Activities

1. *Members' Meetings:* The active members meet regularly every or every other week to discuss club business and to carry out a Pan American program in which they themselves are the participants. Such meetings are often also addressed by members of the faculty. Discussion of Pan American current events, historical topics or one of the countries and music or dramatic numbers are frequent features of these programs.

2. *Open Meetings:* This is a gala occasion and is held in a large music or lecture room or perhaps the auditorium. Non-members and even visitors from other schools or parents are invited. The program is frequently provided by a guest speaker or artist and may include a presentation of a motion picture on a pertinent topic.

3. *Bulletin Board:* Many of the clubs maintain a special Latin-American Bulletin Board for current news and news pictures, exhibitions of post cards and photographic reproductions of works of art, and the like. A special committee is usually in charge of this.

4. *Pan-American Library:* In some schools the clubs have started special collections of periodicals and books on Pan Americanism. This library is used for reference in preparation of talks, debates, and so forth, and all other students are welcome to use it. The Latin-American consulates and the representatives of Latin-American publishers from time to time contribute newspapers, magazines and books to these libraries.

5. *Pan-American String Ensemble:* A group of guitar and mandolin players, assisted by piano accompaniment, to play Spanish-American popular music has been formed in more than one school, especially where there happen to be Latin-American students.

6. *Scrap-Books:* A scrap-book for each country, containing maps, drawings, clippings of all sorts, post cards, and the like, makes a very profitable as well as interesting activity for a club member. Weekly reports on the new material added to the book may be given at the meetings. A full set of such books make, each succeeding term, a fine addition to the club's Pan American library.

7. *Assembly Programs:* The clubs are usually assigned at least one assembly each term on or near suitable dates in Latin-American history. The Pan American Day assembly has become a regular feature in all schools.

8. *Club Publication:* Some of the clubs are getting out mimeographed magazines once or more often each term, in which they publish the best talks given by members or essays written by them on pertinent topics in addition to news of their activities.

9. *Latin-American Exhibits:* Some of these have been very ambitious projects. There have been industrial, economic, communications, educational and even agricultural displays. A very interesting one was a stamp exhibition at which placards giving brief biographical sketches of the men on the stamps accompanied the stamp exhibits.

10. *Visits to Places of Pan American Interest:* Groups of members are organized to visit art exhibits by Latin-American artists; steamers, museums, Latin-American consulates; the Pan American Union Building in Washington; meetings and affairs of

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Latin-American organizations in the city; theatres, and so on.

VI. Post-Graduate League Affiliation

Whether the high school experience is the terminal period in the student's education or not, its real value is to be measured by what it leaves with the student after his exit from its jurisdiction. In this respect the League may also claim success, for one of its clubs is the Alumni Chapter. It was organized in January, 1932, and since then its members have held regular monthly meetings at the Roerich Museum, Riverside Drive and 103rd Street.

As some of its members are from the original Monroe group, the Alumni Chapter demonstrates the lasting interest that has been created in a number of students. The cohesion of this club is the more remarkable in view of the fact that it is not composed of the alumni of one school, but of many. Attendance at its meeting really signifies interest, because they are not as conveniently reached as those in one's school. Neither is there any faculty leader to keep the home fires burning. They attend to that themselves.

The programs of their meetings correspond to their greater maturity and better knowledge of Pan American problems. They are concerned not only with the news from Latin America but also with such topics as the influence of the thought of José Vasconcelos on educational trends in Mexico and elsewhere. They have committees doing what may properly be termed research work on certain questions which they wish to clarify for themselves.

The result of these studies, discussions and mutual criticism is their own monthly publication: *PanAmericana*. Its preparation presents a very noteworthy procedure for such young folks. Each department of the paper is definitely assigned to a staff member, who gathers the proper material for his column and is ready to report his progress at the weekly meetings of the staff. There everything written thus far is read, criticized and put into final form for publication. Careful attention is also given to the layout of the paper, revealing an esthetic attitude toward their thinking and writing. The entire paper, page by page, is typed on paper before the stencil stage is reached. After this paper copy has met unanimous approval, the stencils are cut and the magazine is mimeographed. Distribution is made at the regular monthly meeting, where it is discussed by the entire membership.

The Alumni Chapter may truthfully be considered a unique training school for future leaders in Pan Americanism—for that stage of the inter-American movement which will be much closer than any other heretofore to the ideal given to the Western World by the immortal Bolívar.

VII. Inter-Departmental Correlation

The Pan American Club is not at all to be regarded as the exclusive domain of the Spanish Department. That would indeed be quite contrary to the very essence of Pan Americanism. The clubs are all conducted in English for the express purpose of making their meetings accessible to all high school students. And in fact in some cases the clubs have faculty leaders from the history department or have both a history and a Spanish teacher to direct its activities. This is as it should be even to a much larger extent than at present.

Today American history as taught in the high schools is quite incomplete as a presentation of the development of civilized life in our hemisphere, because it leaves Latin America out almost entirely. When that serious deficiency is remedied the schools will be doing directly a good part of what the League is endeavoring to accomplish through its clubs and inter-club program. But in the meantime, the history departments can make up a great deal for this lack by coöperating with the Pan American Clubs in their attempt to understand the rest of American history.

Correlation with another department is not limited to that of history. The art department can be of real help by lending its medium to the better understanding of the other Americas. In one school definite plans have already been formulated in that direction. The Spanish Department and its Pan American Club are providing funds for prizes to be awarded in a mural painting contest. The murals, to be set in Spanish classrooms, will depict scenes from Pan American history and present relations.

Many other similar projects could be evolved and worked out very effectively in the direction of the new orientation in inter-American affairs that may mean so much good for our American world.

Joshua Hochstein
De Witt Clinton High School.

HIGH POINTS

Devices in the Shorthand Class

The beginning of the term is always difficult. The pupil and the teacher must become acquainted with each other, and in this adjustment, a great deal of time is lost. The student must accustom himself to the new teacher's voice, vocabulary and method of conducting a recitation.

The homework assignment is very important. It is a constant factor during the entire course of stenography. If the mechanical make-up of homework throughout the department could be made uniform so that each teacher would use the same plan, the adjustment problem at the beginning of the term would be made so much simpler. The teacher need not spend part of each period the first week explaining how homework is to be done.

The method we use at James Madison High School is as follows: Ste-

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nography paper *only* is used for homework. We have been able to purchase a fine quality stenography book which we sell to the students at below the store price so that they are eager to buy it, and thus the entire department uses the same paper. Homework is made up of three elements: (1) Isolated words, (2) connected matter with a transcript, (3) connected matter without a transcript.

1. *Isolated Words:* The paper is divided into four columns. The first column contains the longhand word, the three remaining columns contain three outlines each of the word, making nine shorthand outlines altogether. Anyone checking the paper can see at a glance whether the words have been written the required number of times. This applies also to phrases and short forms.

2. *Connected Matter with a Transcript:* In this case there are copper plates only. The paper is divided into two columns. In the left column the selection is copied exactly as seen, leaving a space between each line of notes. The transcript is made in the right column, from the pupil's own notes, not leaving any line between, as there are about two lines of longhand to one of shorthand. There still remains a blank line between each line of notes. The pupil then goes back and fills in those lines with another copy of the selection in shorthand. He has then written the assignment twice in shorthand and once in longhand.

3. *Connected Matter without a Transcript:* Here the selection is found in the book in both longhand and shorthand, and to recopy the longhand would be a foolish waste of time. Therefore the selection is copied twice in shorthand only.

ANNE M. PATENT.
James Madison High School.

The Project Principle in Laboratory Work

The group method of doing laboratory work in Chemistry used in most schools has many objectionable features. As a rule pupils get too much help from other pupils or from the instructor.

In order that the pupil may receive the maximum amount of training from the laboratory exercise he must do the actual work himself, come in contact with the apparatus, make the necessary observations and draw his own conclusions. If the experiment does not work successfully he must search for the cause of failure and realize that the lack of success is due to failure of the experimenter.

If two or three pupils are working together one usually does most of the work and the brightest pupil answers all of the questions.

There is the problem of discipline which results from the fact that interested pupils are not at all times actively engaged in the work. There is a tendency to converse with neighbors. No individual can be held responsible for breakage or waste of material. If the same experiment is done by the entire section too much apparatus is required. If classes succeed each other, the apparatus cannot be removed and tables are usually left in a disordered condition.

In order to solve many of the objections mentioned, the Physical Science Department in the Eastern District High School has introduced a method of strictly individual laboratory work. In small closets under each laboratory table is a complete set of apparatus for a definite experiment together with the necessary material in labeled bottles. In each closet is also a block to which a direction card is tacked so that it may be placed in a vertical position in front of the experimenter.

On one side of this card are printed definite directions as to procedure. The pupil is told to note results at every step in the experiment. After the experiment has been finished, the apparatus and material are replaced in the closet and the surface of the table is sponged. The pupil then writes on a sheet of paper given to him when he enters the room a short account of the experiment. The questions are given in two groups, required and optional. The required questions must be answered by all and the optional question will be answered by the better pupils. We find that nearly all of the pupils will answer both groups of questions. In a very short time the class may be trained to give answers that will indicate the question asked, thus obviating the copying of questions. Mere "Yes" or "No" answers are not accepted.

At the beginning of the experimental work, at about the middle of the first term, each pupil is given a mimeographed list of experiments with a brief statement of the purpose of each experiment and references to the text-book.

The day before the laboratory work, each pupil is assigned an experiment. He may not have covered the topic in the text-book, but he has the necessary references and usually comes prepared for his particular project for he knows that he cannot depend upon someone else.

Since it is necessary for the pupil to be able to write formulas and equations, the actual laboratory work does not begin till the middle of the first term. In the meantime he has observed and written up several typical demonstrations performed by his teacher. He has been taught the names and uses of the laboratory apparatus and how to put different kinds of material into test tubes and flasks, how to handle the bunsen burner and how to hold and heat test tubes. He becomes familiar with the laboratory technique before he begins his individual laboratory work.

No concentrated acids are used in any of the experiments, and in one or two experiments where carbon disulphide is required the pupil applies to the instructor for the material. Duplicate bottles of all the reagents are kept in a separate closet. When a bottle becomes empty it is quickly replaced by a duplicate.

We have been employing this method for about a year and we believe the following advantages have been gained:

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1. Every piece of apparatus is in use during every laboratory period and each pupil (working alone is held responsible for breakage. Only two or three pieces of the same apparatus, excepting test tubes and burner, are necessary. This plan is more economical than the group plan, wherein the same experiment is worked by all the pupils and many pieces of the same apparatus are required which may not be used again during the term.

2. The problem of discipline is much simplified since each pupil has his own project and there is no time for getting information from neighbors or for copying the work of another pupil or for conversation.

3. The reference sheets distributed at the beginning of the work are in the hands of all pupils. We find that the majority come prepared and many bring text-books to the laboratory and look up references at the end of the experiment. This is valuable training in the use of references.

4. Every pupil must do his own work. This develops self-reliance. It is impossible to copy the work of someone else. The work done is collected at the end of each laboratory period and rated. The grades obtained are read, but the papers are not returned till the end of the term for general review.

5. This method is very flexible. Laboratory work may be quickly shifted to any day of the week. The apparatus and material are always ready. The closets may be unlocked in a few minutes. The class enters and each pupil arranges his apparatus and begins work. In our school, two recitations are held in the laboratory during laboratory days. At the end of each laboratory period, the pupil puts away his apparatus, sponges the table top and the room may be used for a recitation or, as in our case, a lunchroom.

6. The project principle applied in this method we believe entirely compensates for the loss due to lack of correlation of the recitation and laboratory work. A pupil may be assigned to an experiment not yet covered in the class, but the references are definite and we have found that the average pupil can do a fairly good job on an entirely new topic.

There are difficulties in putting into operation this plan of laboratory work. We found it necessary to adapt the experiments to this laboratory plan and to the average ability of the pupils. Several experiments tried have been discontinued and new ones substituted. We have now a series of experiments nearly all of which are done without any help from the instructor.

The following list is representative of a fairly satisfactory laboratory course, but does not include some standard experiments done by the teacher during the first term:

1. Elements, compound and mixtures.
2. Metalic oxides and acids.
3. Non-metalic oxides and acids
4. Water of hydration.

5. Solutions.
6. Hydrolysis.
7. Completed reactions.
8. Carbon dioxide.
9. Baking powder.
10. Iodine.
11. Allotrophic forms of sulphur.
12. Sulphur dioxide.
13. Ammonia and its properties.
14. Gas flames.
15. Cobalt nitrate tests.
16. Hard water and its effect on soap.
17. Electromotive series.
18. Distillation.
19. Flame tests.
20. Negative ion tests.
21. Hydrogen by calcium.
22. Electrolysis.

W. A. KAUFFMAN,
Chairman, Physical Science Department.
Eastern District High School.

The Student and the Library Catalogue

A recent monograph on "The Secondary School Library," reviewed in the November HIGH POINTS, concludes that conditions in the average high school library are deplorable. Although the picture is gloomy and there can be no doubt of the facts set forth, nevertheless present-day conditions show considerable improvement over those of other days. In spite of their deficiencies, the school libraries are being used, and used with increasing intelligence. No more convincing proof of this is needed than a glance at the catalogue, with the smudginess of the cards as a criterion. The cards are dirty and now they become dirtier in a week than they did in a month, a few years ago. If one pulls out the drawer with the A's to find the subject Aeronautics, one does not need to follow the guides—just the grime. In another drawer, the edges of the subject cards for Thomas Edward Lawrence stand out like certain pages in a public library copy of "Leaves of Grass."

This increase in the use of the catalogue is probably due to instruction in the use of the library—library lessons, still regarded by some as mixed blessings. After the catalogue lesson, the librarian less frequently finds herself in the rôle of a traffic policeman, caught in a jam, waving her arms toward various sections of the room and chanting call numbers in answer to the eternal, "Where can I find?", the usual phrase, though here the similarity ceases. The student may want anything from Gallatin's opinion of the Erie Canal to "That poem, all I can remember is a tadpole and slime."

However, the cataloguer's satisfaction at seeing the pupils go directly to the catalogue when they come to the library is not unmixed, for many are the demands that a "little learning" brings. Once a pupil has been told that the catalogue contains title entries, he expects one, no matter how lacking in distinction that title is or how clearly the subject is indicated. A pupil would probably regard as perfect a catalogue with title entries for "An introduction to English literature," "Stories of useful invention," and "A history of England." This insistence upon title entries drives the

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cataloguer to make more title cards than her orthodox library school training approves.

Moreover, library lessons, with their instruction in classification, even though it is elementary, have made the students critical of the librarian's carefully considered decisions. The cataloguer is waiting for the bright pupil who will inquire why H. D. Kitson's "How to use your mind," is in the 150's, the psychology number, and T. H. Pear's "The art of study," is in the 374's, the number for self-education, although under the same heading in the catalogue. She has lately felt in a defensive attitude when assigning class numbers to books, which brings here to her daily prayer for consistency.

James Madison High School.

A Folk Festival in Auvergne

When I was in France this summer, I had the unusual privilege of witnessing a Folk Festival of songs and dances in Auvergne. We happened to be passing on our bicycles through Mende on our way to somewhere else. There was an unusually large gathering of people and a great deal of coming and going in the otherwise quiet town. We inquired the cause and were told of the coming festival, which we determined to wait for, even though we had to sleep out-of-doors for two nights because we were unable to procure rooms.

Auvergne is a most facinating province. It is almost entirely mountainous, bleak, barren, inhospitable and forbidding from one aspect. From another, the very unproductive uplands, their greyness and brownness and dryness, their sadness and poorness have produced a sturdy race, frugal, hard-working, intensely patriotic and mindful of their "pays" no matter where they may wander to better themselves. They are the "Arverni" of Julius Caesar.

The festival was held in the grounds of the "collège." On a raised platform the dancers and singers, each in the costume of his or her district or town, took their places. There was group dancing and singing and there were solos.

It is fortunate for the "Massif Central," that this effort is being made to preserve from extinction the really beautiful folk songs and dances and costumes by the "Artistic Society of Natives of the Massif Central."

The French *littérateurs* have allowed the popular dance and folk music to sink into the discard. That is why most people think that France has no distinctive folk music and dances. The fact is exactly the opposite. Until the seventeenth century Brittany, Provence, Savoy, Auvergne and other provinces were rich in these forms of folk art. A real effort is now being made to revive them.

Naturally their music partakes of the type of country in which it grew up. In Auvergne the songs were of mountains, with clear long drawn echoes to be heard from afar. The music reflected the rude customs and clean naturalness of the people, their freedom from grossness, their simplicity, their straightforward honesty.

Like most folk music in France, its tunes echo the Church music which in its turn may possibly be traced back to antiquity. Undoubtedly some of the tunes reflect some country task or ceremony as the wedding tunes, the songs for spring festivals. Sometimes the tune became the property of the people after some composer, long since dead, had been forgotten and time had so worked over the music as to make it the people's own. One folk tune even reproduced part of the melody of Beethoven's Sixth Symphony.

I have neglected to mention the musical instruments which are called "cabrettes" and which strongly recall the Scotch bagpipes and the Breton "biniou." Two men, marvelous players, were the accompanists and also played and sang solos.

I am sorry not to be able to describe the dance steps of "La Bourrée," which is the characteristic folk dance of Auvergne. Each group from a certain town or district had its own particular variation and the audience was the delighted judge of the competitors.

But I haven't words to express the charm of these songs and dances in the night time from half past eight until midnight in the open air, under the mountain sky of Auvergne—their simplicity, their naturalness, their wit, their playfulness, their homey and their patriotic aspects.

Surely in New York City their are Auvergnats, Bretons, Provençaux who could and would contribute what they know of French Folk Lore to the schools of the city. But French people are naturally reserved and retiring. It would be necessary to seek, them out through the Alliance Francaise, through the Musée de l'Art Français, through the Courier des Etats-Unis, through the Chambre de Commerce Français, through the many (but all too few) real French boarding houses and restaurants in downtown New York.

ANITA N. CUSHNER,
James Monroe High School.

The Elementary Journalism Class in the Abraham Lincoln High School

Because of economy measures, the Elementary Journalism class in the Abraham Lincoln High School is not one solely devoted to the pursuits of journalism, but is a regular English class, too. Students in this class are chosen from the best English students of the fourth and fifth terms, students who have also passed in every other subject. Thus, in addition to doing the work in journalism, the members of this class are responsible for their term's work in fifth or sixth term English.

This is not so difficult, however, since the literature of those terms is not too hard to be mastered by these very bright students almost entirely by themselves. A literature lesson is given in full detail, once a week, unless the same material can be covered in a supplementary reading lesson. In fifth term English, one of the books is a selection from standard biographies. As one of the assignments in supplementary reading is devoted to this subject, and the matter is fully

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discussed then, no additional lessons are needed. Since the class consists of the brightest students, an introductory lesson to every text and well-planned questions suffice in regard to covering the term's literature.

In a class of this sort, training in responsibility is the most important habit to be inculcated in the student. After a week, the class elects its own president, and at the beginning of each period, the president conducts a discussion on any topic he or other members of the class may suggest. Thus, during the course of a week, there may be discussions on the value of propaganda, the Utopian press, a discussion of teaching methods, and so on. The only limitations prescribed are to keep the topic unified and to have it thought-provoking. This method of beginning the class allows for perfect freedom of expression on the part of every student in the class.

Compositions, for the most part, are devoted to the subject of journalism. There are so many different types of news stories, such as feature stories, editorials, interviews, and the like, that this offers a great variety. Of course, the creative imagination type of story, although it may in the does not play such a big part in this feature story, but one of the objects of the course is to train the student to be qualified to write for Lincoln's weekly publication, the *Log*. When the work in formal journalism is completed, magazine writing is taken up, and the students write short stories and essays for Lincoln't Literary-Art publication, *Cargoes*.

Much writing is required of the students and they work hard. But the teacher must do his share, too, and mark each composition religiously, not simply by giving the student a grade, but to comment on the good and poor points of the article. After the first half of the term, various students are required, as part of their training, to comment on the papers of other students before the teacher sees the papers.

Oral work is not neglected in the class. The free discussion at the beginning of every period amply provides for that, but, in addition, every member of the class must prepare a fifteen minute talk on some phase of journalism.

His chief source of material is the newspaper itself, but he consults many books, and often visits newspaper offices and other places to make his talk more interesting. Thus in a speech on crime news, the speaker had visited the neighborhood police station and interviewed the reporter there. This is done constantly. After the talk, suggestions, questions and comments are made by the rest of the class, and the speaker must write a report of his speech, which will include the suggestions made as the result of the discussion.

Supplementary reading is a very important factor in this class. Five types of reading are assigned a term. The first book report is one on fiction. The students are limited to the reading of four novels which may be obtained in the Modern Library edition. This allows for much technical discussion, which ought to be given to these bright students.

The second book report is on modern biography, which is very popular in the reading of today. The third book is also a work of non-fiction. The fourth is any book on journalism which is not a text-book. The fifth report is designed to acquaint the students with magazines. A preliminary lesson on magazines is given. Then the students are directed to a number of essays and short stories in the better magazines. This links up very nicely with the work on magazines which is the study for the latter part of the term.

The course is designed, on the whole, to prepare the student for the world in which he is to live and constantly stresses the social aspect. But, as was mentioned before, it has a more limited characteristic, too, that of securing good material for the Lincoln *Log*. At the end of the term about twelve of the best students are chosen for the staff. The basis of marks is not the only criterion for such choice, however. Instead of allowing the regular *Log* staff to edit the next to last issue of the paper, that edition becomes a project for the Elementary Journalism class. A staff is chosen and they go about the work in the same way as the staff, except that there is likely to be more discussion among the whole group.

Thus it is seen that the work of the term is not very easy. This is as it should be. The brighter students should be given more work, and in this case it is interesting to all of them. There is hardly one who does not do extra work of some sort in this class. Marks at the end of the term are a necessary evil. Although all the students are bright, the normal bell curve works out here, too, as all are facing better competition. However, the instructor disregards the curve, and marks each student at the end of the term as he would had that student been in a normal class.

BERTRAND BURGER.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

A Suggestion for Correlation in American History

Last term we developed in History 5 an idea that we called as the term progressed "The American Symphony." This idea grew spontaneously as a result of oft-repeated emphasis upon the main themes in American History. By such themes we meant the struggle between the States and the Central Government, the Westward Movement, the Growth of Democracy, and so forth. With the aid of some student with musical knowledge the class learned a little about the mechanism of a symphony, i.e. the presence of a main theme, its constant repetition, the interweaving of minor themes played in different tempos and by different instruments; the fact that the main theme sometimes dominates, subsides, almost disappears, then returns stronger than ever; the fact that the minor themes are of different values and serve different purposes—sometimes emphasised strongly, sometimes forgotton. Thus with these points in mind we came to see with

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each lesson that underneath the mere details of dates, names of men, provisions of bills, and the like, there lay some theme or melody which, when interwoven with other themes, formed the Symphony of American History.

Let me illustrate: Take the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, the Hartford Convention, the South Carolina exposition, the Secession Movement. Underneath these stories there is the theme of State versus Nation, a most important theme in early American History—a theme so strong that the brasses played it in the Webster-Hayne Debate and the drums took it up in the Civil War. Then for a time this theme subsides—others take its place, but today the theme is strong again—State versus National Government and again the struggle is over labor. Before the Civil War it was a question of the central Government's control over slave labor. Today it is the question of whether state or nation should take care of such questions as minimum wages, child labor, and so on. Perhaps if the theme of Strong Central Government becomes too great it will obliterate the Federal motif in our symphony. Then there is the theme of the Westward Expansion with its companion theme, the Growth of Democracy. How the first mentioned runs through our history and blazes forth stronger than ever in our new imperialism! How weak the theme of Democracy was in our early history! See how it grew under Jefferson, complemented by the Louisiana Purchase. How it bursts forth, perhaps a bit too blatant, under Jackson with the sub-themes of the spoils system, the widening of the suffrage, new campaign methods—accompanied this time by Manifest Destiny, brought to a temporary conclusion by the Mexican Cession and the Oregon Territory, and loud and clear in a faster tempo we hear it when we reach out beyond the Western seaboard.

These illustrations are only three of the many important themes. What is the main theme of the Symphony? That is a problem for a class to work out. Is it the theme of the "American Dream," as James Truslow Adams puts it? If so, what are the component parts of this theme. Are these parts the interweaving of men or themes, the very warp and woof of all our problems and ambitions? Or is it a super-theme somewhat remote? A star beyond our grasp, a theme that as yet has not been given its proper position in relation to the whole composition. If so, that may account for some of the seeming failures in our history, particularly today; therefore it may be the mission of someone in any of our classes to analyze the theme —give it its due place in our history. What a field of thought, in my opinion, the above suggestions open to the student of American History! Then the study of our history really becomes like music and over and above all there is the striving to hear and find and hold for "ourselves and for posterity" the dominant theme, whatever it may be—to sense, if only dimly, that through the welter of detail "one increasing purpose runs" and then to find that purpose and allow it to sing out loud and clear with all the necessary accompaniments for all the world to hear.

VIOLA L. NEIMAN.

James Madison High School.

The Program of Individual Health Training at the De Witt Clinton High School

In the field of health education, we find a three-fold division:

1. Health instruction;
2. Physical education activities;
3. Health service.

Much has been written about the first two phases of the subject. We are cognizant of aims and objectives therein. The third phase is beginning to emerge from a mist of limitations into a clearer understanding of just what we can and cannot do for the pupil in the way of health service in a large city high school. This latter phase of health education includes the "individual health training" program. Taking part in this program are those boys who deviate from the normal to such an extent that they must take a special program, and those who must take a restricted program, under individual supervision.

How can we make the special program for these students accomplish as nearly as possible the objectives of the regular program of physical education activities? How can we, in addition, prevent the complexes of inferiority and weakness that go hand in hand with abnormal physical and psychophysical developments?

Before answering these questions let us see what the average groups of students in the individual health training program include. At the De Witt Clinton High School, the department of health education, under the chairmanship of Mr. Edwin H. Hastings, Jr., registered boys in its individual health training gymnasium sixteen of the thirty-five periods a week, during the one semester of February to June, 1933. The time devoted to this work was shortened in order that more concentrated efforts could be made in accomplishing the objectives desired. Since that time the individual health training gymnasium has been functioning thirty-two periods per week.

During the sixteen periods that the gymnasium was open for the spring semester of 1933, the following groups of cases were enrolled:

1. Those with gross defects of the feet—flat feet, fallen arches, extreme pain, 141 cases in all.
2. Those with gross defects in posture —extreme kyphosis, scoliosis, lordosis, weak abdominal muscles, 47 cases.
3. Those who were extremely underweight or overweight, 62 cases.

With the limited time at our disposal we were able to care for only the gross defects in the above groups of boys. We believe, too, that the boys having slight defects of the above nature do not need individual health training.

4. Those with slight cardiac trouble, 37 cases.
5. Those with hernia, 2 cases.

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The extreme cases of the above two disorders were not included in the individual health training groups.

6. Those with dilated inguinal rings, 5 cases.
7. Those whose hips were out of line and the accompanying extreme scoliosis, 2 cases.
8. Those who had the condition of brachial paralysis, 3 cases.
9. Other abnormal cases registered, 37 cases, including:
   a. Old poliomyelitis.
   b. Old osteomyelitis.
   c. Artificial limbs.
   d. Transplanted muscles.
   e. Post-operative (including fracture).
   f. Those with extreme lack of coordination in the neuro-muscular system.

Combining the answers to the questions asked above, the carefully tabulated results of the work done in this field, the experience of those in this work and keeping in mind the types enrolled as listed above, the following objectives are found to be within the scope of the program:

1. To teach the students how to correct defects in their physical and psycho-physical systems where correction is possible without operation or mechanical means.

2. To set on the road to correction those whose defects cannot be corrected the educator, by recommending them to the proper sources, and by following up the work as outlined by these sources.

3. To provide a program of restricted activity for those whose defects will not permit participation in the regular program. To make this program approximate the objectives of the regular program, as for example,

   a. To provide for the worthy use of leisure time, during school hours, after school hours, and in after school life.

   b. To provide a program of activity for the optimum development of the neuro-muscular system.

4. To teach the fundamentals in care of the defects in order to prevent their recurrence or their further aggravation. To teach the causes, the effects, and the limitations resulting therefrom.

How can we approximate these objectives? In the foot, posture and nutrition groups, the boys are given mimeographed sheets with their exercises listed on them. These sheets are taken home. Those who have a scoliosis with the hips out of line are referred to their physicians for x-ray and treatment for the hips, while we, under the physician's direction, treat the scoliosis.

The boys in these groups come to the individual health training gymnasium once each week. During part of this period they are taught what exercises to do and how to do them, in order that their defect may be corrected or arrested. Each week two new exercises are assigned on the exercise sheets. These are done at home every day. The burden of correcting his defect is thus thrown on the boy. He is told that in the one period he spends with us he cannot hope to improve his condition, but during this

period he can learn what to do for himself and how to do it. The purpose of assigning the exercises in "doses" of two a week has two sound psychological aims:

1. It keeps the work from becoming boresome.
2. The student will do better work if he has few exercises on which to concentrate.

The nutrition group is checked for diet. This is in addition to the exercises that these boys are given for building up or reducing purposes. The checking of the diet is done by a nutrition expert who works in conjunction with the department of health education. In addition to his conferences with the nutritionist, the boy discusses his diet with the teacher during the period in the individual health training gymnasium.

The boys in the foot and posture groups likewise have individual conferences at which time they discuss with the teacher the various points involved in their defects, how they can be corrected, the causes, the results if neglected and other related points.

Objective measurements are made as follows: At the beginning of the term the weights of the underweight and overweight boys are taken. Pedograph prints are made of the feet of those who have foot defects. Notations are made in cases where the print does not show the nature of the defect, that is, whether there is pain, strained and tired feelings, or any other trouble that cannot be pictured by the machine. Schematographs of those in the posture group are drawn. These records are again made at the end of the term and the results are compared and tabulated.

In addition to the valuable records obtained from the scales, pedograph, and the schematograph, they act to motivate the activities by giving the students the opportunity to watch their progress during the term, and by comparison of records as the semester progresses.

The following is a record of the results obtained in the above groups for the semester of February to June, 1933, at this school:

Total number foot cases enrolled	141	
Number showing marked improvement	101	
Number showing no improvement (*reccommended to doctor*)	19	
Incomplete record	21	
Total number of cases of kyphosis	19	
Number corrected	5	
Number showing marked improvement	10	
Incomplete record	4	
Total number of cases of scoliosis	8	
Number corrected	7	
Incomplete record	1	
Total number of cases of lordosis	13	
Number corrected	7	
Number showing marked improvement	2	
Incomplete record	4	
Total number of cases of weak abdominal muscles	7	
Number corrected	5	
Number showing marked improvement	1	
Incomplete record	1	
Total number of overweight cases	38	
Average loss of weight	4½	lbs.
Greatest weight lost by one boy	10	lbs.
Total number of underweight cases	24	
Average gain in weight	5	lbs.
Greatest weight gained by one boy	12	lbs.

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It is not specifically the exercises that have produced these results. It is in addition the fact that the boys have had the defect called to their attention. They become conscious of the needed correction, and do their best to improve themselves by correcting themselves in front of their mirrors and doing other little things that are taught them. The exercises serve in many cases primarily as an incentive and reminder. It is the fact that a boy, conscious of his defect, maintains a sustained correct position that causes the most outstanding results in this field.

The cardiac, hernia and dilated inguinal ring cases are referred to family physicians and the latter, after examination, are requested to fill out a blank showing just what the boy can do and cannot do. In addition to these three types of cases, there are the abnormal conditions which are listed above. Some of them have special exercises which they do in order to strengthen weakened muscles resulting from transplanting or lack of use due to bone fracture. All others who have no special exercises, and the cardiac, hernia, and dilated inguinal ring cases, having received permission from their physicians, take part in a program of stunts and games. Every week two new stunts are taught these groups and they are told to practice them at home. The stunts and games form a source of material for leisure time activity and also offer a valuable form of neuro-muscular exercise. The stunts are relatively simple and can be done at parties, in the street, on the beach, and elsewhere. They thus give these boys the chance to be leaders in some activities, reducing the feeling of inferiority and weakness that very often goes with incurable defects and deformities.

The games that constitute a part of this restricted program of activity are ping-pong, golf, ballgames calling for little exertion, such as boxball, chinese handball, and others. The boys are taught the fundamentals of these games. Ping-pong is taught and played on a special table set up in our physical examination room. Golf is taught and practiced in a golf net erected in one of our indoor handball courts. Ball games are played in the individual health training gymnasium. All games for these groups are shortened and no boy is called upon to do anything calling for too much exertion. In ping-pong, for example, they play games of eight points each and no boy plays two games in succession. This also holds true for the other point games.

Between games every boy is required to sit down and rest. In this way they are able to indulge in a program of activity and learning without endangering their health, but which, on the contrary, helps to improve it to a marked extent, as the reports from their physicians indicate:

Total number of heart cases enrolled 37

Number discharged because of complete recovery 4

The other cases continue to report progress.

Included in the restricted group are the cases of brachial paralysis. Before-and-after pictures taken of these boys show marked improvement in all movements as a result of the work done in the individual health training program. We have these pictures on file and much interest by medical men has been evinced at the results obtained.

In organizing the boys in this program, they are divided into groups. These are arranged according to defects.

Group A consists of the cardiac, hernia, and those others who are restricted to a light program.

Group B includes those who have deformities which prevent their participation in the regular program.

Group C is made up of the nutrition and posture boys.

Group D consists of the foot group. As he is registered in the class, each boy is given a group assignment and he goes with that group wherever they are assigned. In order to prevent a feeling of isolation, at various times throughout the term group games and tournaments are organized for the entire class.

The procedure in these classes during any average period throughout the term would be as follows:

1. As the boy enters, he looks at the bulletin board and observes the new stunts and exercises for the week.
2. He then chooses a place in the gymnasium and goes to work on these stunts and exercises. As he does them, the teacher passes from boy to boy, thus having opportunity to work with each one as an individual.
3. Attendance is checked.
4. The health talk: Every day a few minutes is devoted to a particular group while the rest of the class "listens in." This talk is in addition to the individual conferences that the boy has at various times throughout the term.
5. Individual and group games occupy this section of the period.
6. After the games are completed, the exercises and stunts are reviewed until dismissal.

At the end of the term every boy is given an individual oral examination. In this examination, the following is expected of the boy:

1. That he know the nature of his defect. What he can do to improve himself or prevent further aggravation of the condition.
2. That he demonstrate at least four of the exercises taught during the term for his particular condition. If he is in a group that does not have an exercise program, he is expected to demonstrate three or four of the stunts taught to his group.
3. That those of groups A and B above know some of the fine points of the games that they were taught; e.g., grips on the golf clubs, methods of swinging, stance, service in ping-pong, cut, slam and others.

HENRY F. SALTMAN,
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De Witt Clinton High School.

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A Unit of Analytic Geometry in the Solid Geometry Course

In view of the present trends in the teaching of Solid Geometry—the decreased stress on the deductive aspect and the reduction of the number of propositions whose proofs are required—an additional unit can be introduced to replace the old material. A unit in solid Analytic Geometry is a topic which I believe will enrich the course and provide an excellent method of comparison of the analytic and deductive approaches to geometry. Whereas there may be some objections to the use of the analytic (i.e. algebraic) approach to Plane Geometry on the ground that the pupil has not as yet made a sufficiently intensive study of graphs (which, at present, is taken up in Intermediate Algebra), this objection cannot be raised in the case of Solid Geometry.

This unit may be taught either as a separate unit at the end of the regular course or, preferably, side by side with the appropriate topics in Solid Geometry. The following topics in Solid Analytics have been included in the Solid Geometry course at Franklin K. Lane High School. Our experience has shown that it is advisable to review—and supplement—the topics of Plane Analytics which were studied in Intermediate Algebra as the analogous topics arise in Solid Analytics.

1. The coördinate system in three dimensions may be begun after the topic of perpendicular planes in Book VI.

2. The projection of a line connecting two points upon the reference planes and axes.

3. The distance between two points.

4. The direction angle and direction cosines of a line.

5. The normal equation of a plane.

6. The intercept equation of a plane (this can be derived very easily by the use of volumes of pyramids).

7. Equations of special planes—parallel to axes, perpendicular to axes, disecting the angles formed by the reference planes.

8. Equations of surfaces of revolution (sphere, cylinder, cone, paraboloid, ellipsoid).

9. Locus problems which employ the above formulas.

The following is a copy of a set of mimeographed sheets which are prepared for the pupils who take this course at our school.

A. Formulas and Facts in Solid Analytics:

1. Distance between two points (x_1, y_1, z_1) and x_2, y_2, z_2). $d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$

Length of radius vector to point (x_1, y_1, z_1) is

$r = \sqrt{x_1^2 + y_1^2 + z_1^2}$

2. Equation of the surface of sphere

$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$ (center at origin)

$(x - x_1)^2 + (y - y_1)^2 + (z - z_1)^2 = r^2$ (center at x_1, y_1, z_1)

3. Projection of a line (length l) upon the axes (where A, B, and C are the direction angles of the line).

l cos A, l cos B, l cos C

Projections of radius vector (r) to point (x, y, z) upon the axes.

$x = r \cos A$, $y = r \cos B$, $z = r \cos C$

Hence: $\cos^2 A + \cos^2 B + \cos^2 C = 1$

4. Projection of a line (length l) upon the 3 reference planes (XY, XZ, YZ)

l sin C, l sin B, l sin A.

5. Normal equation of a plane

$x \cos A + y \cos B + z \cos C = p$

(where p is the length of the perpendicular to the plane from the origin, and A, B, C are direction angles of this perpendicular). Equation of a plane passing through point (x_1, y_1, z_1) and perpendicular to radius vector to this point $xx_1 + yy_1 + zz_1 = p^2$.

6. Intercept equation of a plane

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1$$

7. Equation of Surfaces of Revolution (formed by revolving conic sections in the xz plane about the z-axis)

Sphere: $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$ (rotation of circle $x^2 + z^2 = r^2$)

Cylinder: $x^2 + y^2 = k^2$ (rotation of line $x = k$)

Cone: $x^2 + y^2 = k^2 z^2$ (rotation of line $x = kz$)

Paraboloid: $x^2 + y^2 = kz$ (rotation of parabola $x^2 = kz$)

Ellipsoid: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} + \frac{z^2}{b^2} = 1$ (rotation of ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{z^2}{b^2} = 1$)

Hyperboloid: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{z^2}{b^2} + 1$ (rotation of hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{z^2}{b^2} = 1$

B. Exercises in Solid Analytics:

1. Find the distance from the origin to each of the following points: (a) (3,2,5), (b) (3,0,4); (c) (4,-2, 3), (d) (5,-0,-3), (e) (1,-1,-1), (f) (-3,-2,-1)

2. Find the direction cosines of the radius vector to each of the above points.

3. Find the distance between each of the following pairs of points: (a) (3,1,5) and (4,3,7); (b) (3,0,7) and (5,2,3); (c) (-2,1,3) and (3,-4, -2); (d) and (-7,-3,-2) and (-2,-0,-2); (e) (0,0,4) and (-2,-3,5).

4. Write the equation of a sphere whose: (a) center is at the origin and whose radius is 5; (b) center is at the origin and whose radius is 7; (c) center is at (5,1,2) and whose radius is 3; (d) center is at (-3,1,4) and whose radius is 2.

5. Find the co-ordinates of the midpoints of each line in Question 3.

6. Prove the triangle formed by joining the three points (1,2,3) (2,3,1) and (3,1,2) is equilateral.

7. Starting with the normal equation of a plane, write the equation of a plane (a) perpendicular to the XY plane, (b) perpendicular to the YZ plane, (c) parallel to XY plane, (d) parallel to YZ plane.

8. (a) Write the equation of a plane passing through the point (3,2,4) and perpendicular to the radius vector through this point.

(b) Do the same for the point (5,3,1).

9. Find the intercepts on the axes of each of the following planes:

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(*a*) $3x + 2y + 5z = 30$; (*b*) $2x - y + 7z = 14$; (*c*) $4x - 3y - 2z = 8$; (*d*) $3x + 4y = 12$; (*e*) $x = 5$.

10. Write the equation of the planes which have the following x, y, z intercepts respectively:

(*a*) 4,2, and 3; (*b*) 1,-4, and 3; (*c*) -2,-3, and 5.

11. (*a*) Find the equation of the plane passing through the following 3 points: (4,3,1), (5,0,3), (0,2,3).

(*b*) Do the same for the points: (1,0,4), (0,0,3), (6,-2,-1).

(*c*) Repeat for (1,2,3), (2,4,6), (3,6,9).

12. Write the equation of the plane:

(*a*) parallel to the xy plane and 2 units away from it;

(*b*) parallel to the yz plane and 3 units from it;

(*c*) passing through the line $3x\ 2y = 5$ and perpendicular to the xy plane;

(*d*) bisecting the angle between the xz and xy planes;

(*e*) bisecting the angle between the xz and yz planes.

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Franklin K. Lane High School.

The First Day's Work in Typewriting

Just how much ground to cover in the first typewriting period is sometimes difficult to decide. It will depend, of course, upon the length of the period. Many of our schools shorten all periods the first few days of each term to facilitate the organization of the school for the new term.

All typewriting teachers are agreed, I think, that the operative parts of the machine and the insertion and release of paper should be taught during the first period. If at all possible, I think some actual typing should be done. Generally speaking, elementary typewriting needs little or no motivation. Students like to type and manipulate the machine; the problem is to direct and correct their technique, to give them no opportunity to acquire incorrect habits and yet not dampen their enthusiasm for the subject.

In teaching the operative parts of the machine I find it helpful to divide them into two groups: first, the three devices which move the carriage and, second, all other parts of the carriage. Have the students strike the space bar, using the correct finger from the beginning and ask them to observe what is happening. They will notice that the upper part of the machine moves. Name it for them and point out the fact that the machine has two other devices for moving the carriage. Then teach the operation of the line space lever, calling attention to its dual function of line spacing and carriage return, and the carriage release. Then examine with them and teach the operation of the remaining parts of the carriage. Point out the fact that the name of the device simply describes its function; this will help to associate the name with the operation. The operative parts, of course, will have to be reviewed again and again, but in less detail.

The insertion and release of the paper should now be taught, giving practice in the operation and function of the lateral paper guide, thumb wheels, paper fingers, and paper release. In a shortened period it may be impossible to accomplish any more than this.

When the period is of normal length, or nearly so, it is possible to teach and drill on the reach to the guide row and to do some actual typing. If the Rational method is used this will consist of repetition practice on the index finger keys; if the Smith method is used one can teach "f," "r," "j," "u," and still type one word, "fur," during the first period. The joy the students get out of typing even one word is worth all of the effort necessary to accomplish it. To be sure, their technique is not yet perfect, but if we did no typing at all until their operation of the machine were perfect, we would find their interest flagging.

At a recent meeting of the Commercial Education Association a novel procedure was recommended, that of disengaging the ribbon until the touch is perfected. This seems to me to have many advantages. Anything that will keep the student from giving his attention to the paper is certainly worth a trial. It should help make the student "finger conscious," and should eliminate the distractions attendant upon discovering that a wrong key has been struck. If a check on the work done is desired one can have the students use a sheet of carbon paper, but since correct technique rather than results is our objective in the early stages of the course, this seems unnecessary.

TERESA MARKEY.
James Madison High School.

Evaluating the Mental Hygiene Program in the Julia Richman High School

How does one measure intangibles? How can we gauge increases in, and absolute totals of sympathy, kindliness, affection? How can we determine the extent of the influence which our attitudes and our carefully planned programs have had in the lives of our pupils? And who can estimate the consequences in their happiness and mental health of even our casual friendliness and human interest? And so to evaluate the effects of the mental hygiene program in our school life is difficult. Nevertheless, there are a few things which we can, with all modesty I believe, claim for this program.

In the last three years surely a majority of our general conferences have in whole or in part dealt with the subject of the right adjustment of our girls to the reasonable conditions of school life. We succeeded, I believe, in these conferences, in taking out of the concept of mental hygiene the horrors that some of us had reserved for it. We demonstrated that a knowledge of that which contributed to the healthy outlook and conduct of our children did not particularly consist of the knowledge of a certain

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mental hygiene jargon, nor of a knowledge of the complexities of clinical procedure, nor of a knowledge of the garbled behavior of unfortunate creatures. And we showed (how skillfully our teachers did so!) that we contribute to the mental hygiene of our pupils in all our contacts, in recitation, in section, in extra-curricular activity—always. And so I consider that our mental hygiene program in the school has been a success in that we have perhaps a greater awareness, a greater sympathy, a something which makes us sorry when we have been unkind. Can anybody believe any more that a child is deliberately wicked? This, our awareness, is the most important single factor in the right mental health of the girls.

The mental hygiene program, too, has permeated our school life in general and in very individual ways through the special agencies established by our Principal. There is no time to review here the influences of each: The Heads of Schools, the Grade Advisers, the Personality Committee, the Memorial Fund Administration, the Attendance Officers, the Infirmary, the Bureau of Child Guidance, and so on. They are all concerned with mental hygiene objectives. And may I express for all of us the thoughts I have heard you express individually? We have a deep admiration for those fine people in our corps (whose names we all know) who have exceeded by far in their devotion to our maladjusted girls the mere patter of duty. Several of them, in my opinion, stand with leaders of humanity, and with artists who seek beauty and make beauty out of inanimate vessels.

Now for the aggravated cases of emotional maladjustment (and we have a few with us), the mental hygiene program has succeeded, I think, in directing your attention to that child's needs, in getting her treatment. Here we have progressed only to the extent that the science of mental hygiene has progressed through the facilities afforded under the Bureau of Child Guidance. One must be patient, with a comparatively new movement which works with the most complicated and unpredictable of all phenomena—human conduct.

In conclusion, to evaluate the effects of the mental hygiene progrem on our school life, I might compile elaborate statistics as to (1) total number of pupils handled through our agencies, (2) the numbers of parents who visited, (3) the outside agencies we called in, (4) the number of cases disposed of in one way, (5) the number of cases disposed of in another way, and so on indefinitely, but would this measure by the yardstick prove any change in the life of a human being—in her happiness? May I not rather give you any one of many stories—one brief, fairly typical biography?

Sally B., a Jewish girl, sixteen years of age, was referred to the Bureau of Child Guidance in January, 1933, by the head of the school, because the child was doing poorly in the fifth term and was not interested in school work. Also because there appeared to be some conflict between Sally and her father. He felt that he got no cooperation from the girl.

The study at the Bureau of Child Guidance revealed that although Sally had average intelligence, her grade placement was a year too high.

Her difficulties at school were augmented by the situation at home. The mother, from whom Sally and her two older sisters had received the most attention and affection, had died three months before.

The father was a seclusive man who was abusive to his children, including Sally, refusing them permission to go out with their friends and implying that his daughters were immoral. From our contact with him and from the material submitted by the social agency coöperating on the case, it was believed that the father was mentally ill.

The following recommendations were made at the conclusion of the study: (1) separation of the girls from their father; (2) change in school placement for Sally.

At the present time Sally and her sisters are living away from the father. The girls have their own friends, manage the household under the supervision of the coöperating social agency and Sally is making a very good adjustment in the coöperative course where her work is satisfactory.

MARY DENSON.
Julia Richman High School.

A Study of Elections for First Term Civics

To learn by doing is a principle advocated by John Dewey. In an attempt to carry out this idea and also to make first term Civics more realistic, students in Civics 104 and Civics 1110 of Evander Childs High School registered and voted like their fathers and mothers last November. This was a two-lesson project in Registration and Voting. These lessons were planned for the two school days prior to election. No further motivation was necessary.

The aim of the first lesson was to secure the registration of voters. The class discussed the qualifications required of a person who wishes to vote in New York State. In addition to the other qualifications it was explained that persons desiring to vote had to go through the process of registration at the Board of Election in his election district.

To secure registration, the classes were divided into five election districts according to the rows in which the students sat. A Board of Election of one person was appointed for each district. (Boards equal in number to the regular Boards of Election would prove too cumbersome.)

The members of the Election Boards were instructed to judge as to the qualifications of the respective voters and to record in "Election Books" (pieces of long yellow paper) certain required information.

The paper "Election Books" were divided into fifteen numbered columns. The information desired for

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each column was written on the blackboard to save time. As the first registrant stepped up to his Election Board, the teacher asked the questons and the Election Boards wrote the desired information in the proper column. For the remaining registrants, each Board of Election asked the questions and recorded the answers.

The questions to be asked of the registrants were copied as closely as possible from those asked by real Boards of Election. They were as follows:

Column 1. Number of registrant (begin with number one).

Column 2. Address of registrant.

Column 3. Name of registrant.

Column 4. Number of years of residence in State of New York.

Column 5. Number of months of residence in Bronx county.

Column 6. Number of days of residence in election district. (Seat and row in classroom.)

Column 7. Married or single.

Column 8. Age.

Column 9. Country of birth.

Column 10. Owner or tenant of place in which you live.

Column 11. Year of last registration or vote. (If never voted you are a first voter.)

Column 12. Present occupation.

Column 13. Evidence of literacy of first voters. (Name of Public School from which you graduated.)

Column 14. Signature of registrant.

Column 15. Reserved for signature of voter on Election Day.

The Boards of Election were compelled to refuse several registrations, for example, (a) that of a boy who had been born in Russia and whose parents were not naturalized, and (b) that of a boy not having the proper residence in his election district. A girl claimed the right to vote on her father's citizenship papers as she was a minor when they were obtained. She was allowed to register. The age requirement was the only one waived.

The students caught the spirit of the lesson so well that at sight of the busy Boards of Election and the lines of persons waiting to register, one of them remarked "Why this is just like real registration! This is the way it looks at the schools."

The entire class was registered by the time the bell rang ending the period.

The aims of the second lesson were (a) to instruct first voters in the use of the voting machines, (b) to hear speeches favoring the leading mayoralty candidates, and (c) to have student votes recorded.

With a reprint containing the names of all candidates on the face of the voting machine, the pupils and teacher together discussed the procedure of voting. The points stressed were (a) closing of the curtains when you enter the booth in order to open the machine for the vote, (b) turning down the small levers to indicate the choice of candidate, (c) leaving down the small levers until the opening of the curtains turns them and records the vote automatically, (d) the fact that the vote is secret because

the machine records the total vote for each candidate and there is no indication of each voter's choice.

After the class understood the working of the machine, speeches for each of the most likely candidates for mayor were heard. These speeches had been prepared at home the night before. Due to lack of time, the number delivered was limited to one for each candidate. There were no comments or questions.

While the speeches were being given, a small piece of paper was passed to each voter. After the speeches were over, the voters were told to indicate their choice for mayor and to take their secret ballot to their place of registration. There they signed column fifteen of the "Election Book" and turned the ballot over to their Election Boards.

The votes of several students were refused because of failure to register due to absence.

Each Board of Election counted its votes and made its report when called upon. Votes for both classes were tabulated in an effort to see the election trend. The students were interested in the lessons and were excited to see the outcome of their own elections.

LILLIAN STAHL.
Evander Childs High School.

Improving Habits of Study

The first of our large school projects in Julia Richman High School was that of studying the habits of study of our girls and of helping the girls to improve those habits. There was a committee of eight appointed by Dr. Lucey with Miss Ficks as chairman. The committee worked for one year, 1927-1928, with the splendid coöperation of all teachers and all girls.

The idea of directed study is an interesting one, inasmuch as direction has become in some quarters a rather unpopular term. Yet many of our girls ask for nothing so much as direction, training, like the little girl who said to her teacher, "Must we do again today what we want to do?"

Certainly we felt in 1927 and we still feel that training our pupils in good study habits is one of the greatest things we can do for our girls. Now, as then, our girls must be able to face a problem, recognize its needs, have the techniques for solving the problem well in hand, attack the problem with zest, and solve it with no waste of time or effort. Directed learning becomes learning, self-initiated, one of the great aims of education, leading to that wisdom which, coupled with vision, will make possible the saving of our old world or the creation of a new.

Our year's program in 1927 began with a fairly elaborate questionnaire to children, administered in two section periods under the direction of the section teachers. The questionnaire brought out certain weaknesses that girls had in study habits and trained their attention upon certain points in good study procedure. The teachers were able then to institute a training along the lines of individual needs. The answers were tabulated and the

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tabulation revealed the general needs. It was discovered from the replies to the questionnaire that study is something rather unpopular and unpleasant, that 30 minutes of study is a very long time, that only written work is really considered study, and that work enjoyed is not really study work.

Throughout the year various mimeographed material was given out to teachers and to pupils. These sheets included several sheets of bibliography, notes on the teaching of good study habits during the recitation period, a review of the laws of learning, a summary of the essential quantities of a good assignment, which is one of the most important forms of directed learning, and a list of the essentials of good study procedures.

During the year the committee arranged the six general faculty meetings. At three of these, outside speakers, Professor Tillinghast of Horace Mann, and Professors Maxie, Woodring and Kitson of Teachers College, talked on phases of directed study and training in study habits. At three our own teachers discussed the topic from the stand points of teaching girls how to read, the using of books, the making of outlines as guides and aids in study.

Now as then all this material is valid. The needs in study habits have not changed. They are as vital today as then. More than ever we have seen and classified our aims and have seen that planning in a planless world is the only prophylactic against drifting and ignorance. Our girls still get general and specific training in how to study.

Practically every department in our school now devotes several lessons or several weeks to training the students in problem solving in good procedures of study. Every department has clinics, which were begun in 1927 and have really now become institutions. We now have an unprepared day in major subjects to be used for further directed study. More and more we handle personal cases, and train individuals in how to go about economical and successful study.

The fact that training in study habits has continued and grown shows the validity and the need for such training. Our faculty is impregnated with the idea and is constantly and faithfully training in study habits. We feel that such work is the backbone of education and of the adult ability to see life and to solve its problems. If our school can help girls to real learning through directed learning, it has bestowed upon them a great heritage. We want our girls to be able to penetrate to the center of life, not just to bustle around at the circumference of existence.

Have we done well? We feel that we have, or at least that we have tried and are trying valiantly. Lest we be too confident, let me tell you of a little girl who recently entered a school. She was assigned to work, but did not meet with immediate success. The teacher was talking with her about her school difficulties and said: "Did you study a lot last year?" To this the little girl replied blythely: "Oh, we didn't study. I went to a progressive school."

EDNA FICKS.

Julia Richman High School.

Special History Classes in the James Madison High School

History classes of two distinct types are organized in James Madison High School to provide the gifted child with a constant stimulus to develop his innate ability. "Kings Oaks" sections exist in the second term of European History, and in both terms of American History. Membership in them is based on nomination by the history teacher of the previous term, usually upon the achievement of an average of at least 80%. These groups follow the uniform department term plan, but, because of being classified rather homogeneously, secure a much better mastery of the prescribed topics than would be possible in an average class. Three sections, designated as "Special" (one in European and two in American History) are sufficiently unique to warrant making a brief report concerning them.

SPECIAL CLASSES

Membership: While an average of 80% is desirable, it is by no means a requisite. It has been the experience of the three teachers directing these classes that a conscientious pupil who secures only 70%, but who has an intense interest in the plan followed, will develop into a much more useful member of the group than a 90% "crammer" who spends time worrying about the lack of drill in preparation for Regents' examinations.

Guide Sheets: Students use a manual published by the University of Chicago press, entitled "A New Approach to American (European) History," by D. C. Bailey and E. T. Smith. It divides into units the field to be covered. Each unit contains an overview, an outline of the overview, and finally, a series of problems. Professor Bailey's aim was "to organize history so that it might enlighten the student rather than provide ballast for his memory." To achieve this purpose, the problems are arranged in proper sequence for pupils to form understandings in an orderly way, and they are accompanied by detailed directions for study and a carefully prepared bibliography.

Procedure:

1. Pupils read overview carefully, at home; then they study the outline of the overview in order to fix the topics in proper relation to each other.

2. Four periods of the week are spent in the very well-equipped library where pupils:

   a. Locate available material;

   b. Evaluate the material (take notes on best);

   c. Form judgments where authors differ;

   d. Vie with each other in "discovering" that a book not mentioned in the bibliography is particularly good. ("The pleasing sense of discovery," to which Albert

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Bushnell Hart refers in his "Studies in American Education," Chapter V, is observed almost daily by the teacher of a "Special" history class).

e. Discuss in groups of four, questions which arise in connection with following directions stipulated in the manual.

3. Explanation of two problems presented in coherent, logical, and orderly style constitute the weekly written assignment.

4. One period of the week is spent in the classroom for general discussion of the problems, correction of errors, exchange of views on debatable topics, comparison of authorities used by different members of the class.

Undesirable Features:

1. Classroom period is too short for adequate discussion of two problems. (When an experiment was made with two classroom periods, it was found that time in the library was insufficient.)

2. The discussion of current events must necessarily be relegated to the background—a decided disadvantage in this era of drastic changes in our political and economic attitudes. (This defect, however is somewhat mitigated by the fact that the special course trains pupils to read more intelligently, to postpone forming judgments until both sides of a question have been examined.)

3. Some topics which appear often on Regents' examinations are omitted from the Bailey and Smith manual. (An effort is made to eliminate this deficiency by having members of the special class spend the last month of the year having classroom recitations daily. This may seem to defeat the purpose of the course, but it is necessitated by the fact that many members of special classes hope for scholarships which, in this age of keen competition, are frequently awarded for ability to display a good memory, rather than the power to think.

Benefits which we think justify the hours spent in reading and rating pupils' explanations of problems:

1. Graduates of these "special" classes, now pursuing courses in college, take the trouble to return to school to express appreciation for having had the opportunity to be trained for the research work they are now obliged to do.

2. Pupils acquire ability in classifying material. (It's a pleasure to see improvement in note-taking after experience has shown that carelessly written notes necessitate consulting a reference a second time.)

3. Pupils acquire the habit of suspending judgment until sufficient examination of material has been made. They learn respect for the opinions of others.

4. Pupils secure training in good diction and in applying principles learned in English classes. (Being well aware of the fact that a problem, well-prepared from the standpoint of English, secures a higher rating than an illegible one containing grammatical and orthographical errors, they aim to please.)

5. Pupils develop a coöperative spirit. The majority of them will not take advantage of their privilege to retain a library book three days if they know others need it.

6. Progress of excellent students is not retarded by slower members of the group. Work is very individual.

7. Pupils develop initiative. Self-activity is compulsory since no one is going to place reference books in pupils' hands, or write his theme for him.

8. Diffident pupils often acquire confidence in a "special" class.

9. *Intellect* rather than memory is challenged!

MARION R. HANSBERY.
James Madison High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

A New Venture in International Education

Russian recognition creates an opportune moment for the announcement of a new venture in international education sponsored in Soviet Russia by the People's Commissariat of Education and Voks (the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries); and in the United States by the Institute of International Education, Inc. For the first time since the revolution of 1917, the University of Moscow is offering for foreigners summer courses of pertinent interest to school teachers, social workers and students of the social sciences. The unique feature of the plan is that these courses are taught in English by a faculty of Soviet professors, and are especially designed to meet the summer needs of English and American students and educators.

The program offered, which includes courses in education, economics, psychology, sociology, criminology, art and literature and advanced Russian, is coördinated and executed by the Anglo-American Institute of the First Moscow University. The Institute, which was recently organized, has a two-fold purpose. The first is to provide foreign visitors to the Soviet Union with the academic facilities and programs necessary for serious research and study. The second is to publish material on Soviet educational, social and cultural movements for the information and use of educators and students in all English speaking countries. These two functions of the Institute are inter-related, since it plans to publish the results of research and study by its students. The extensive program to be offered by the Anglo-American Institute at the First Moscow University during the summer of 1934 will no doubt serve as a means of furthering cultural contacts between American, English, and Russian students and teachers.

The plan offered by the Institute involves four weeks of resident study

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at the University of Moscow and two weeks of supervised travel field work through the Soviet Union. University credit is certified by the University of Moscow. The summer session begins in Moscow on July 15. Rates for attendance, including travel and full maintenance, have been materially reduced for students, teachers and social workers only. The Institute of International Education, at 2 West 45th Street, New York, will supply full information on request.

—*Release of the Institute of International Education.*

Who Speaks Spanish?

Abolition of New Mexico's 20-year-old bilingual practice of printing its laws both in English and Spanish was discussed recently in the State as an economy measure, but it was decided to continue the double language standard because there are still thousands of citizens who read and speak only Spanish. The decision emphasizes the geographical extent and nature of the figurative Spanish-language empire.

An important question put by United States census-takers in 1930 was "Do you speak Spanish?"

"Sí, señor!" chorused voices all over the Union, faintest in New England, loudest in the Southwest. The answer echoed beyond our borders, south across the Rio Grande down to Patagonia, through Mexico, six States in Central America, nine in South America, east across the Caribbean, past Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Dominican Republic, to Spain, the mother country; westward to the Philippines.

Nineteen Spanish-Speaking Republics

Today, nearly a hundred million people in 19 republics, and in two island areas flying the Stars and Stripes, speak the musical tongue of Cervantes.

Millions of our American neighbors to the south and east speak Spanish. A third of our diplomatic posts, and a fourth each of our consular and Department of Commerce foreign posts are in Spanish-language countries. Our foreign trade with them and our investments there run to impressive money totals. Our interest in their history and culture, tastes and standards, is keen. Knowledge of their language has become for many business men in the United States an everyday need since telephones and radios have linked all the countries of the Western Hemisphere.

The New World began to speak Spanish when Columbus colonized Hispaniola (the Island of Haiti). Long before the time of Jamestown and Plymouth, Spaniards were not only exploring and adventuring in this hemisphere, but diffusing their language and culture by planting permanent settlements, setting up printing presses, and founding universities. Spanish was a dominant language in our own Southwest less than a hundred years ago.

Large Mexican Population in Los Angeles

Even today, in many Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona communities near the Mexican border, Spanish is almost as necessary as English. Almost as many people of Mexican blood live in the states on the American side of our southern border as live in the Mexican States on the other side of it. Los Angeles is one of the largest Mexican cities in the world, with a Spanish-speaking element larger than the entire population of Schenectady. It publishes a Spanish daily with a circulation of over 14,000. San Antonio's Mexican population would make a city as large as Berkeley, California; it issues a Spanish daily of more than 11,000 circulation.

In New Mexico the lower branch of the legislature, courts, and, in many towns, church services are conducted in the two tongues. On street, range, and farm, Spanish is on a par with English.

Around New York's Fifth Avenue and 110th Street lives a colony of Spanish-speaking people from Spain, Cuba, South America, Mexico, and the West Indies. It runs a Spanish theater, with vaudeville and motion pictures in Spanish. Many of its shops and cafés bear signs in Spanish. New York is also one of the country's largest publishing centers for newspapers and magazines in Spanish.

Mexican Spanish is heard in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, steel plants, and in the West's orchards, cotton and beet fields, and among the men of its mine crews and railroad construction gangs.

Spanish Words Color English Speech

The Spanish era left the United States a heritage of words which became "naturalized" and passed into current speech. These words live on in certain State names, some 2,000 town names, numerous mountain, river, and plant names, and in a host of other familiar terms. *Adobe* and *adiós* and *arroyo*, *bonanza* and *burro*, *canyon* and *calaboose*, *mesa*, *mañana*, and *mustang*, *plaza* and *patio*, whatever their present spelling, are as Spanish in origin as the Conquistadores.

The West borrowed the cattle business from below the Rio Grande, together with the cowboy's clothes and horse equipment, his methods of riding, roping, rounding up, and branding. It also imported much of his language—*bronco* and *quirt* and *lasso*, '*chaps*,' *lariat*, *rodeo* and *rancho*, and other terms.

Indian words with first a Spanish, then an English twist in spelling also are part of our speech heritage from Spain. *Potato* and *tomato*, *tobacco*, *mesquite*, *chocolate*, *quinine*, *henequin*, *maize*, *cannibal*, *canoe*—these and other native terms the Spaniards took from Mexico, Peru, the Caribbean islands and elsewhere, then passed them on to us.

The war with Spain and the opening of the Panama Canal quickened our interest in all things Spanish, which Prescott, Irving, Longfellow,

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and others had aroused. Today, many of the leading high schools and colleges teach Spanish language, history, and literature, and a growing number of American students attend summer courses in schools of Mexico, Puerto Rico, Guatemala, and Madrid. Pan-American conferences and concerts, radio programs, sound pictures, tours, special libraries, special museums and other exhibits; books of travel and description, history, arts, architecture, economics and politics; interpretative comment in newspapers and magazines —all testify to the attention which, today more than ever, the United States pays the Hispanic World.

—*Release of the National Geographic Society.*

The Program for Federal Aid

In keeping with its historic policy, the National Education Association has been working intensively for some months to obtain federal relief for schools in the present crisis. Primary responsibility for the development of this program has rested with the Legislative Commission of the NEA, under the able leadership of its chairman, Sidney B. Hall, state superitendent of public instruction, Virginia. The Legislative Commission has worked in close coöperation with the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education whose chairman is John K. Norton, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The final program for federal aid which is to be presented to the administration and Congress, has been worked out jointly with a broadly representative Advisory Committee on Emergency Aid in Education called by United States Commissioner of Education George F. Zook, and presided over by James N. Rule, state superintendent of public instruction, Pennsylvania.

Every member of the National Education Association is called to the support of this program:

(1) The emergency problem of keeping elementary and secondary schools open on as nearly normal a basis as possible during the school year 1933-34 should be met by a federal appropriation of $50,000,000 to be allocated according to emergency needs in the several states. This sum may be provided in one of two ways:

(a) by a special provision in the relief act, or less preferably

(b) by a separate federal appropriation. In either case such appropriation shall be administered preferably by a Board of which the U. S. Commissioner of Education shall be chairman and executive officer.

(2) In view of the fact that the inability of many communities adequately to maintain schools is certain to continue during the fiscal year 1934-35 a federal emergency appropriation or allocation of not less than $100,000,000 should be made available beginning July 1, 1934; this appropriation or allocation to be distributed in an objective manner, determined by a Board of which the U. S. Commissioner of Education shall be chairman and executive officer, and based upon reasonable evidence of needs and resources.

(3) The instability of educational support even in the abler states and communities, due to the shrinkage of local ability to support schools during the depression, constitutes an aspect of the present emergency of such proportion as to endanger the effectiveness of the schools throughout the nation. The fundamental relief which is necessary in order that public educational institutions may be adequately supported can be secured only through the adoption of measures for the federal emergency aid to education during 1934-35. The situation is so critical in education that the people are justified in using federal funds to insure the normal operation of schools. Accordingly, it is recommended that a substantial sum be distributed from the federal treasury to the various states to assist them in meeting this phase of the emergency.

The method of distribution should provide first, that a flat sum objectively determined be distributed to all states; second, that a supplemental sum objectively determined but weighted to meet the needs of the poorer states be included in the distribution; and third, that the method of distribution be stated in the statutes, provided that a contingent fund not to exceed 10 per cent of the amount so provided for 1934-35 be reserved for distribution to states and local units to meet exceptional and unforeseen needs under the direction of a Board of which the U. S. Commissioner of Education shall be chairman.

(4) Local funds should be released for school maintenance by

(a) refinancing school district indebtedness or such municipal or county indebtedness as may have been incurred in behalf of the schools.

(b) providing federal loans to school districts or to municipal or county corporations, where (in the case of the latter) the loan is to be used for educational purposes; *provided* that in both instances the loan shall rest on the security of delinquent taxes, frozen assets in closed banks, or other acceptable securities.

(5) Out of any new appropriations made for Public Works not less than 10 per cent should be allocated for buildings for schools, colleges, and other educational enterprises. Such grants shall be available provided that an approved survey has been made, and that the survey shows the need for the buildings. In cases where such surveys have not already been made these surveys shall be made under the direction of the Office of Education through a decentralized regional organization. The cost of these surveys shall be charged to the Public Works appropriation for school plants. We recommend that the grants for such projects be made on a 100 per cent basis. In administering this fund major attention should be given to the needs of the rural schools.

(6) A federal appropriation or allocation of $30,000,000 should be provided to assist students to attend institutions of higher education for the period ending July 1, 1935, by

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(a) special provision in existing acts, or

(b) a separate federal appropriation.

This fund should be administered by the U. S. Office of Education.

The following suggestions for immediate action are offered for members of the profession everywhere:

(1) Write at once to your Congressmen and to the President of the United States vigorously urging the need of relief for public education.

(2) Coöperate with consultants of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education and other friends of the schools in your state in creating public sentiment favorable to federal emergency relief.

(3) Urge organizations of which you are an officer or member to present to Congressmen and to administrative officials in Washington petitions for immediate federal emergency relief.

(4) Report to the chairman of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., what you have done and are planning to do.

(5) Act today—the degree of success depends upon how quickly and forcibly the organized teachers of the nation take steps to accomplish the desired results.

—*From the Journal of the National Education Association for February, 1934.*

Linguistic Expectation in Regents' Examinations

The subject of testing has caused a great deal of controversy among the foremost educators of the country. We are still in the experimental stage. True, we have progressed to some extent, as witness the Standard Test of the Coöperative Test Service under the auspices of Dr. Ben Wood of Teachers College, Columbia University. If only we could adopt these tests instead of the regular stereotyped Regents' examinations, we should make much more progress.

We should expect a test to include most of the aims of Modern Foreign Language teaching, namely:

1. Ability to read and write the language.
2. Ability to understand the language.
3. Knowledge of history, geography and culture of the people whose language we are teaching.

Although both the Regents' and the Coöperative Tests cover all these points, I prefer the method used in the latter. The Coöperative Language Tests are divided into three main headings—(1) Reading, (2) Vocabulary, (3) Grammar.

The reading part of the examination consists of a series of 80 short sentences which test the capacity of the student to grasp the meaning of the written word. The student must fill in a number corresponding to a word which completes the sense of the sentence.

A typical sentence is—

En las casas que tienen más de un piso, hay una escalera por la cual se puede subir

1 a la calle, 2 al sótano, 3 al piso inferior, 4 a los pisos superiores, 5 por la chimenea.

In a house having more than one floor there is a staircase by means of which one can ascend, 1 to the street, 2 to the basement, 3 to the lower floor, 4 to the upper floors, 5 through the chimney.

If the student can comprehend this sentence, he will have no difficulty in placing 4 in the space required. He will then answer the remaining questions. After completing from 80 to 100 similar sentences, the teacher can gauge accurately the student's proficiency in this particular phase of language work.

In contrast to this form of testing, we have the Regents' Comprehension question, given a valuation of either 10 or 15 points, depending on the grade of the student. Since comprehension is such an important factor in language work, surely it merits more consideration than 10 or 15 points imply.

Aside from this, however, this question consists of a short anecdote or conversation, read to the student by an examiner, who may or may not be the student's teacher. If he is so fortunate as to have his own teacher, with whose voice and pronunciation he is familiar, he will do nicely with this part of the examination. If, however, he is not among the fortunate, and must listen to a strange, unfamiliar voice, he will not fare so well. The mental strain at the time of an important examination is more than enough to unstring the student. Therefore, since we are compelled, as we are in large schools, to impose upon him a person with whom he has never studied or spoken before, and whose enunciation and pronunciation are somewhat different from that to which he is accustomed, we can readily understand why he will not do as well as the more fortunate student.

Besides this, we should consider the question itself. After the examiner has read the anecdote twice, he reads five questions in the foreign language, based on the anecdote, for the student to answer in the foreign language. For the student who is aural-minded, this is a fine exercise. But most students are visual-minded. How do they fare with this type of question? We must admit, of course, that they have been trained for this type of work, since it is our duty to prepare them for the Regents' examination. But there are many who cannot comprehend. These students could answer this question perfectly if they could see it in print. No doubt this is true of most people. Our education begins and ends with the printed page. Why not, then, give this question in the manner used in the Coöperative Test? It would be fairer to both types of students. Then, too, a short anecdote or paragraph as given in the Regents' examination cannot serve the same purpose as well. A wider range, say from 75 to 100 sentences, would be a better test of the student's proficiency. It gives the pupil a better opportunity to demonstrate his ability. It gives the examiner a better idea of the student's capacity.

I trust I am not inconsistent when I say that I do believe in dictation, as such. This applies also to English as

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well as to modern foreign languages. In business boys and girls are required as stenographers to take dictation. Alas how many incompetent stenographers there are! This is not because they haven't a knowledge of stenography, but because they do not hear well, or are incapable of translating the spoken word into the correct written symbol. They know little of spelling. This is the fundamental reason for giving dictation, I believe, and I should like to see it continued. Of course, it also trains the student to be accurate, and prepares him for later life. Since it is of such great value, I think it should be stressed in all classes in the high school course.

The second part of the Coöperative Test, that dealing with vocabulary, is again divided into 100 separate words, beside which are placed five words of similar or related meaning. The pupils must choose the word that most nearly resembles the original, and write the number of that word in the correct space.

This, in my opinion, is a better way of determining the range of vocabulary each student has actually assimilated than the method used in the Regents' examination question, which will be described later. We should analyze this question more closely. Each word is given as a single unit, distinct and apart from any text. The words from which a choice must be made are arranged beside it. Two decisions are required of the student: significance of the word, and judgment in choosing the one most suitable to convey that meaning. This capacity to discriminate is a fine quality for the student to develop and possess.

The Regents' examination question corresponding to the above consists of from 20 to 25 lines of connected prose to be translated into good English. Since this is a language test, why should they be required to use English? Why not have the passage transposed into simpler French or Spanish? I do not approve of the English translation because most students are incapable of writing good English. Perhaps that is why the revised Syllabus of Modern Foreign Language counsels us to minimize translation into the vernacular. If the syllabus requires a negligible amount of English translation, why should the Regents' examination favor it with 25 per cent?

The Coöperative Test eliminates translation entirely. Yet it accomplishes equivalent results, because it tests the student's capacity to comprehend the written word, and also gauges his vocabulary. Another point in its favor is the fact that it is much easier to rate a paper of this type. The numbers in the spaces are definitely either right or wrong. There is absolutely no possibility of misinterpretation. When marking Regents' examination papers, there are many cases where two or three interpretations are given. The teacher marking the question then asks: "How does this sound to you?" "Am I to accept this?" Such questions would be entirely unnecessary if the examination were constructed along other lines.

When we consider the grammar part, or really the main part of the test, there are various phases of grammar that must be considered. The new theory requires less grammar, i.e., formal grammar, with all its concomitant features, such as irregular verbs, adjectives, comparisons, prepositions, pronouns, conjugations, subjunctions, and so on.

The Coöperative Test treats these matters in another way. There are groups, of five words each, from which some are chosen to complete certain sentences. For example:

(*el tuyo, tuyo, tu, su, suyo*)

Louise, here is *your* orange.

My watch is better than *yours*.

Luisa, aquí tienes — naranja.

Mi reloj vale más que —.

This method of testing grammatical knowledge is simpler and more direct than the regular Regents' examination question, which consists of connected prose involving varied grammatical constructions as well as vocabulary with which the student's familiarity may be doubtful. In other words, the Regents' examination question poses too many questions simultaneously, and, therefore, defeats its own purpose. It is best to test one thing at a time. It is less confusing, clearer and fairer to the student. The paper is more easily rated by the teacher.

The verb question, which generally asks for various forms of certain verbs, should be included, but in a different manner. Personally, I prefer: "I am coming," to "Write the 1st person singular of *venir*." Short phrases containing the required verb forms are, I think, more thought-stimulating.

May I suggest that more cultural and informative material be included, especially since we are now stressing this phase of our work? In conformity with the revised syllabus for Modern Foreign Languages, we are stressing geography, history, literature, customs, politics, and the like. Would it not be more pertinent to include such a question?

The final question, "Composition," on a Regents' examination could be eliminated entirely. I take this seemingly radical stand because I have sensed the fact that students totally lack knowledge of the rudiments of sentence structure. If the English Department has not been successful in teaching students to put their thoughts into a coherent form, why delude ourselves into thinking that we can teach this in Spanish or French? Of course, we try very hard to train them along these lines, but the results are not entirely satisfactory. Then, again, it is rather difficult to rate this type of question satisfactorily because of the many elements involved: vocabulary, content and general thought, grammatical errors, and so on.

The student would lose nothing by the omission of this question. His capacity and knowledge would be obvious before he reaches the final question. The other parts of the examination, if planned according to some of the suggestions I have made, would adequately test the student's knowledge of the language. Surely

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my suggestions are not too radical and merit further consideration. They conform to the syllabus. Why not make the examination conform, and, thereby achieve consistent rationalization?

MILDRED C. PROZAN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Is the Inductive Method Defensible in a Demonstration Lesson?

Every Science teacher who faces a syllabus with its appalling amount of ideas to be conveyed or conjured by means of demonstrations attempts the use of short cuts in his teaching. Legal and religious holidays take their toll of days sorely needed for prescribed class work. Nor is a session of forty or forty-five minutes adequate for most laboratory lessons. It is no wonder, then, that the harassed science teacher casts about for methods designed to produce results with a minimum of time consumed.

There is no doubt in anyone's mind that short cuts are used. We use the motion picture projector, lantern slides, other types of projectors, lectures, demonstrations, homework—in fact, nothing escapes the fertile brain of the science teacher. The fly in the ointment, however, is the question of the legitimacy of the methods used. In our efforts to "cover the work" are we sacrificing the development of the scientific attitudes in our students? This question is particularly pertinent to our problem. Unless we develop such an attitude we might as well remove science courses from the curriculum.

The problem as stated here arose in a discussion at a departmental meeting recently. I was roundly scored for having perpetrated an "inductive fallacy" upon my students. Their quick arrival at generalizations was forced and unscientific since they "jumped to conclusions" upon insufficient evidence. In this way, said one colleague, I failed dismally in my attempt to inculcate the scientific attitude in my pupils. I wonder!

Dr. Morris Meister, chairman of the physical science department of Haaren High School, is himself an ardent advocate of the frequent use of such demonstrations as pierce the heart of a problem in the shortest space of time. At his suggestion, I subjected two of my first term General Science classes last term to a shotgun charge of demonstrations lasting just one period. The children already had seen oxygen prepared. They knew it was an invisible gas which caused a glowing splint to burst into flame; that it existed in the air in a diluted state; and that the other chief gas, nitrogen, was inert. The few repeaters were segregated and warned to keep their eyes open and mouths shut all period. On the table were many substances carefully selected. They were to be used for a series of sixteen tiny demonstrations designed to develop the ideas that (1) oxygen is needed in combustion, (2) fuel is also needed for ordinary combustion, (3) finely divided fuels burn better than the same fuels undivided, and (4) different fuels burn more readily than others at the same temperature.

My purpose was to see if this type of demonstration, done in the interests of time economy, was also able to inculcate a little bit of the scientific attitude. I asked the students to observe carefully and then tell me what conclusions they came to when I completed each set of demonstrations. No one was to talk unless invited to do so. The array of materials had the effect of inducing perfect discipline. The first series showed:

1. A lighted match plunged into water.
2. A lighted match put into a beaker which was then covered.
3. A lighted match allowed to burn to the end.
4. A Bunsen flame with the vents closed.
5. A Bunsen flame with the vents open. The response was immediate. "You need oxygen to burn things." The second series showed:
6. A strip of steel in the Bunsen flame.
7. A wooden splint in the flame.
8. A sheet of paper in the flame.
9. A marble chip in the flame. Here, too, the response was quick, though they didn't use the word fuel. Their apperception, however, was sufficient to allow them to see the point. The third series showed:
10. A compact wad of absorbent cotton thrust into the Bunsen flame.
11. The same wad fluffed up and thrust into the flame.
12. A wooden stick thrust into the flame.
13. The same stick, the end whittled, thrust into the flame.
14. A lump of coal held in the flame.
15. The same piece of coal powdered in a mortar and then sprinkled over the flame.
16. A lighted match applied to a little gasoline in a watch glass.
17. Gasoline sprayed on a candle flame. Again the response was immediate. It was very exhilarating to see generalizations pop up in a class not especially noted for its brilliance.

The fourth series showed the usual set up. On a sheet of copper were placed a lump of sulphur, some white phosphorus, a strip of paper, wood shaving, and a small piece of coal. A Bunsen flame under the strip set some materials on fire in sequence. "Some things burn better than others," etc., finally came out. We had enough time to enumerate our findings on the blackboard and in our notebooks. The next day we clarified our ideas on combustion by discussing other facts bearing on the topic. This check up revealed that they saw the relationship between combustion and the conditions necessary for it. I felt that the method was worthwhile for that topic, at least.

There is no brief here for the inductive method in all science teaching. It is a mistake to suppose that all scientific investigation must proceed from the general to the particular or the other way around. Every scientist

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uses deduction and induction so much that he cannot separate the one from the other. The use of both methods, together with a little imagination and a lot of good-luck has often been the way scientists have reached great truths.

Criticism of my "experiment with experiments" rested on the objection that I had no right to permit my students to jump at conclusions. I know that a scientist would never dare announce conclusions based on insufficient evidence. I also know that my controls in these demonstrations would not bear the closest scientific scrutiny. I do know, however, that I am not turning out Ph.D's in my classes. Furthermore, a high school course consisting of countless exact measurements would last one week, after which time the teacher would be lynched, and justly. With our limited time and facilities, that science teacher does his duty who stimulates thought, arouses respect for objective evidence as a criterion for knowledge, and who encourages his imaginative students. I believe that the demonstration recorded is eminently adapted to high school children of the ninth year school level, even though the logical processes are fallacious from a pedantic point of view.

LOUIS EISMAN.
James Madison High School.

REVIEWS

Money Versus Man

By Frederick Soddy. New York, E. P. Dutton and Company.

The economic depression, if it has accomplished anything, has served to bring into print the analyses of innumerable so-called specialists with their explanations of what is wrong with the economic system and their panaceas for our economic ills. The economic doctors seem to show some agreement as to the deficiencies of the system, but their prescriptions are as varied as the fields from which the doctors have been recruited. "Money Versus Man" is unusual in that the author, Frederick Soddy, professor of Chemistry at Oxford, is one of the world's most eminent radio chemists and recipient of the Nobel prize in chemistry in 1921.

Most books of this sort divide themselves into two parts, one part dealing with the description of our economic system and the things that are wrong with it, and the other part usually describing the author's particular remedy. To anyone familiar with recent literature, Mr. Soddy's indictment contains nothing new. As a scientist, he is impatient with a system that refuses to take advantage of the advances that have been made in science during the last one hundred years. The "dismal" and pessimistic economics of Malthus, Ricardo and Smith, based upon the inevitability of poverty and want, has been replaced by the "new economics" which is the science of wealth. "The iron law of scarcity has been abolished and poverty has been for long in this country, a purely artificial condition." In essence, Mr. Soddy's complaint is that, in a world seemingly glutted with goods, misery is so widespread. "The gift of plenty is vehemently and definitely refused." The author feels that, since science has solved the problem of production for us, we ought to be able to solve what seems to him the much simpler problem of distribution.

Description of an evil is easy, however, when compared to the task of assigning causes and suggesting remedies. As the title of the book suggests, the author sees the monetary problem as the immediate cause of the economic deadlock. The depression is the result "of the worst unsound monetary system the world has ever known." The State goes to a great deal of pains to establish a uniform system of weights and measures and sees to it that a business man gives sixteen ounces to every pound that is sold. With regard to money, it is quite possible to borrow one dollar and pay back fifty cents in purchasing power. It is this fluctuating, unsound currency that is the "Achilles' heel of our civilization" and the principal cause of our difficulties. With the cause assigned, the remedy, for the author, is simple:

1. The issue of currency is to be exclusively a state function and extension of credit strictly supervised by the state.
2. A Bureau of Statistics should be established to determine index numbers and to advise Parliament as to whether additional currency should be put into circulation or whether the money should be withdrawn from circulation.

The author of this book errs in assigning as a cause a factor that is merely a symptom of a malady. No one will deny that a sound and stable monetary system is desirable, but to go so far as to say that this, in itself, would solve our difficulties is to put the cart before the horse. The basic cause for our troubles is the fact that, in the past, not enough purchasing power has been distributed in the form of wages to enable people to buy the products of industry. A. A. Berle, a member of President Roosevelt's Brain Trust, describes the difficulty as follows: "The national income of, say, eighty millions would not support an industrial civilization if 5% of the country has most of it and 95% divides the remnant. We got into exactly that position—we are there yet for that matter—it is one of the great obstacles to recovery."

Any cure for our social ills, whether it be Socialism, the NRA, the Swope Plan or any other of the numerous proposals suggested, must contain within it some provision for diffusing purchasing power in such a way so as to enable the people of a country to buy the products of industry. As a corollary to this, any plan which fails to accomplish this result must collapse of its own weight.

It has always been true that efforts have been made to pull countries out

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of economic depressions by the bootstraps through experiments with the monetary systems of the countries. Usually, these experiments took the form of inflation schemes. The inflationists make the same mistake that Mr. Soddy is making and that a great many other people are making at the present time. They refuse to go to the root of the evil but suggest surface remedies. In general, then, Professor Soddy, as a critic of our economic blunders, is interesting and incisive rather than helpful.

SOLOMON SEIDMAN.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Modern European Educators

By Adolph E. Meyer. Prentice-Hall. $2.50.

With that bluff honesty and lucidity which characterize all his works, Dr. Adolph E. Meyer has written another book—this time on contemporary, progressive European educators and their schools. Those interested in developing educational vocabulary will find very little in this volume. They had better refer to the works of educators who have piled up erudition on principles borrowed from pioneer thinkers. Teachers and students, on the other hand, who seek inspiration and light, that result from exploring the thoughts and works of great teachers, will be amply rewarded.

The first of the series of brilliantly tinted sketches is that of Jan Ligthart, a great Dutch teacher who had kept alive the principles of his *arbeitspäda-*

gogie at the Tullinghstraat elementary school until the time of his death in 1916. Instead of the factory-for-man-blueprint set-up, which is the shibboleth of the average metropolitan school, Ligthart converted his school into a miniature community in which pupils under the inconspicuous guidance of their teachers served as potters, carpenters, glassblowers, investigators and researchers of social data, and as active and proud citizens in a pure democracy. Appreciation of beauty came from living in a world of common things. Character was developed, not by hymn-singers expounding neat little courses of study in civics and ethics, but by direct contact of plastic, imitative youth with teachers who were men of understanding, courage and simplicity. The teachers were advised to give themselves and not to treat the child as an inferior, but to respect and treat him as an adult. Ligthart was not concerned so much with what a teacher knew or with what he was able to do, but with what he was. "Moral education is the teacher himself."

Progressive education in France is represented by Cousinet who, considering the conservatism of French education, has done remarkable work in the public schools and by Messrs. Demolines, Rousiers and Bertier who have worked at the Ecole des Roches in Normandy. Starting with the assumption that children will be better able to work by themselves when placed in conditions similar to those under which they play by themselves, Cousinet developed a system of intra-

class grouping, which should be of considerable help to teachers who are confronted with the problem of individualization in our schools here. At the Ecole des Roches a highly developed curriculum has been tried under student administration and supervision. The spontaneity and enthusiasm which the students evince for their work are suggestive only of our more successful extra-curricular activities.

Germany, according to Dr. Meyer, has done far more in the way of progressive education than any other European country. The Berthold Otto Schule at Lichterfelde, which accommodates children ranging from the kindergarten age to that of high school, has done outstanding work in making vital the study of traditional subjects. Latin and mathematics, for example, are the most popular studies at the school! A student assembly and a student court are among its other features. At the country-home schools, founded by Herman Lietz, labor and study have been combined. Two of Lietz's associates Wyneken and Geheeb, have carried on their master's work, at Wickensdorf and Odenwald, respectively. The latter school, which is among the best known of the modern German free school communities, has made real contributions in student self-government, co-education, and individualization. Unfortunately, the cause of progressive education in Germany has suffered from the blight of Hitlerism. At Odenwald, for example, the National Socialist government abolished co-education and a new staff of teachers had to be hired.

Space does not permit either a recapitulation or even an enumeration of the features of all the progressive schools treated in this book. The great institutions under the leadership of such educators as Bedales and Russell in England, of Grundtwig in Denmark, of Cizek in Austria and of Shatzky in Russia (although the latter is not mentioned by name) do not appear in this review. Only the cream has been skimmed. Those progressive teachers, who feel themselves becoming "encrusted with institutionalization," to borrow from William James, had better go to "Modern European Educators" for refreshment.

SAMUEL STEINBERG.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

On Reading Shakespeare

By Logan Pearsall Smith. Harcourt Brace.

To those of us who have all these years been hugging "Trivia" and "More Trivia" to our hearts, the appearance of Logan Pearsall Smith's "On Reading Shakespeare" is a pleasant fulfillment. Here is the same quiet elegance and tart sagacity of the earlier volumes. And in the realm of Shakespearean criticism, the modest manner of Mr. Smith is a most welcome encounter.

Mr. Smith is no scholar, in the orthodox sense, and he makes no bones about the matter. Nurtured on the profound insights of A. C. Bradley, Sir Walter Raleigh, and George

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Brandes, he has only faint praise for those who, despite their truly shocking erudition, contribute nothing fundamental to Shakespearean study. To Mr. Smith, Shakespeare is what he was to Coleridge, Hazlitt, and Lamb, one of the most intense emotional and intellectual experiences in our literary heritage.

This is the burden of Mr. Smith's brief and eloquent refrain: He loves Shakespeare for what he is. He needs no props for his understanding. He wants his reading unencumbered by notes. For what Bierce has called "a trickle of text in a meadow of commentary" he has a laudable and natural horror. Whatever is of perennial worth in Shakespeare requires no elaborate explication to the intelligent reader. Tracking allusions down to their primordial lair seems to Mr. Smith a futile and hollow pursuit, of interest only to the literary anthropologist. This form of drudgery has added little of value to the understanding of Shapespeare. The authenticity of dates and plays gives Mr. Smith little concern. The vexing problem of the sonnets with which Sam Butler and Oscar Wilde grappled and which Lord Alfred Douglas' recent work claims to have solved irrefutably, he prefers not to touch, whether from fear of contamination, or from a subconscious shying away from the unsavory, is not clear.

Thus Mr. Smith is seen to be utterly devoid of any of the dubious virtues of the Shakespearean critic of today. He is insensitive to the demands of historical scholarship. The minutiae which obsess the critical mind he disdains. The enigmas against which generations of critics have battered their pallid brains, do not move him to any degree. He admits their existence, but then, what of it? They do not bring him closer to Shakespeare.

No summary of "On Reading Shakespeare" can possibly reproduce the Puckish humor, the mellow urbanity, and the solid, good sense that give this volume a savor rare in Shapespearean writing. With all its crotchets, it expresses a balanced, sensitive account of what the true amateur can find in Shakespeare. It pleads eloquently for the reading of Shakespeare, not with the eye of the literary anatomist, but with the loving and understanding heart of the true devotee. It is a reaffirmation, in these evil days of atomic research, of the "wholeness" of Shakespeare. It is a rebuke to those who love footnotes more than their Shakespeare. Pearsall Smith's bracing wit will do much to check the excesses of Shakespearean study and restore it to balance and sanity.

When Mr. Stoll's Mid-Western blasts against the essential greatness of Shakespeare have become mere sussurri, Logan Pearsall Smith's voice will still ring true and clear to us. "On Reading Shakespeare" will take its place high among the very few books on Shakespeare that make Shakespeare seem a pleasure and an adventure.

A. H. Lass.
Manual Training High School.

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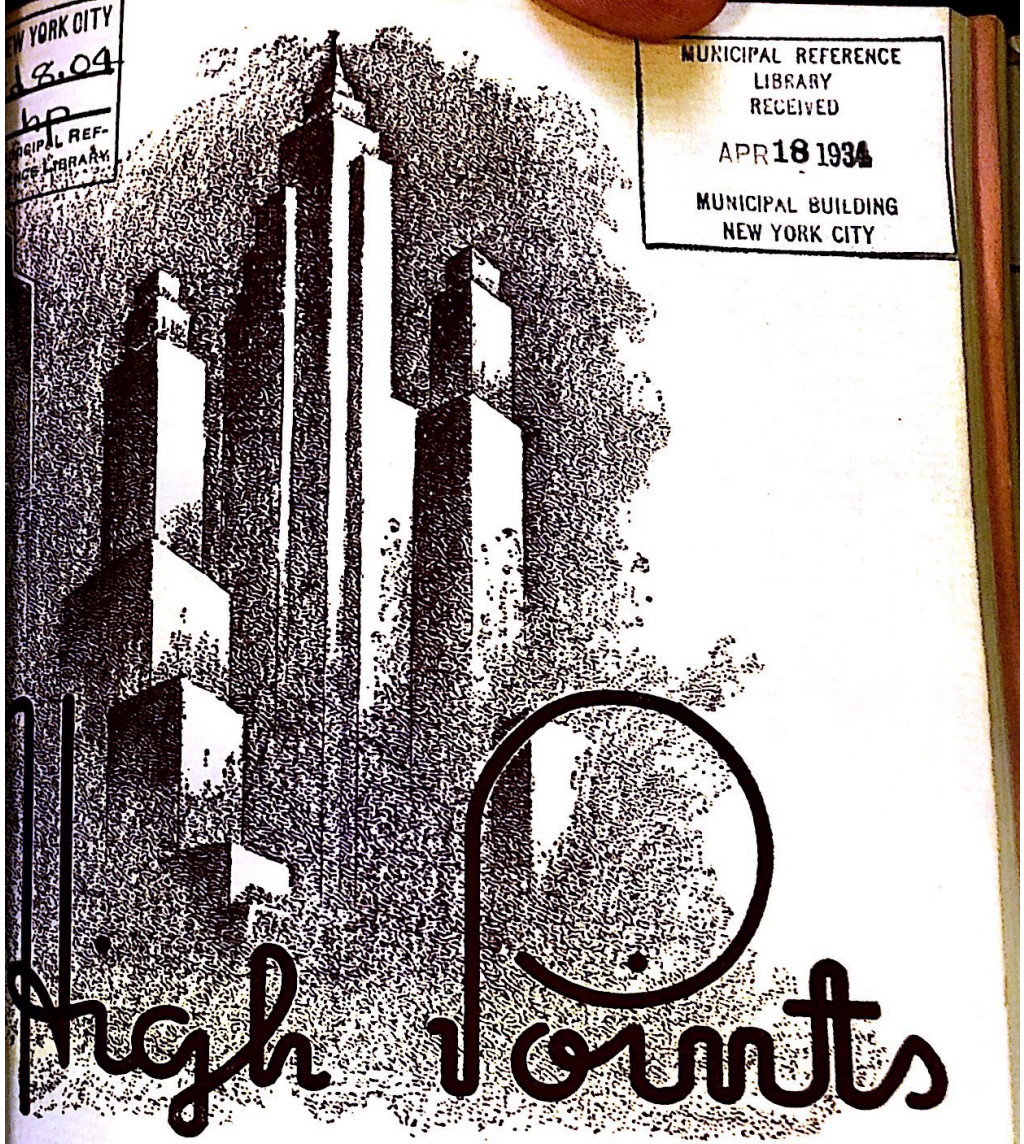

High Points

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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TO WORK directly for and w
people for their mental and spiritual advantage is probably the most fascinat
ing task in all the world; and even if its material rewards were small, i
privileges would remain inestimable. . . . The teacher is compelled to associ
ate with the human springtime. He lives in a country of April tears an
laughter. In other walks of life, a man grows old with his associates, or wi
his patients, or with his customers. In teaching, the pathway is always lined
with perennials in full bloom. A teacher has no business growing old. . . .

For thirty years it has been my privilege to be a teacher of boys, but I
have learned a great deal more from them than I have taught them. . . .

There are teachers of many kinds—inspirational, routine workers, and those
of the martinet sort. . . . But one attitude only is of universal appeal and
power, and that is the attitude of sympathy. This is the open sesame to the
human heart, and it is this alone which makes of the profession of teaching
which otherwise might be the dreariest drudgery, a delight and a consecra-
tion. For what a student remembers after he has left the classroom is usually
that which is imparted from the heart to the heart, not that which is imparted
by the head to the head. . . .

Every teacher of experience has learned the salutary lesson that students
silently demand complete integrity of mind. They will not tolerate disillusion
through a loss of faith; not necessarily religious belief, but merely the trust
in intellectual honesty. Too many teachers lack the rugged manliness of
Johnson who, being taken to task for a mistake in his massive dictionary,
instead of making an elaborate and disingenuous defense, merely said to his
friendly fair accuser, "It was ignorance, madam; pure ignorance." . . .

My almost lifelong association with boys has wholesomely taught me that
a teacher's superiority over his pupils is purely temporary and artificial. He
sees, almost every day, possibilities in those he instructs that he himself never
possessed. . . .

ARCHIBALD RUTLEDGE
In his article "When Boys Go Off to School," in
Good Housekeeping for February, 1934

EDUCATION FOR THE NEW AMERICA: THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS*

A RECENT reviewer in the literary supplement of the London *Times* has quoted a passage to the effect that in this age some ironic freak of fortune seems to have bestowed upon mankind a talent for setting up admirable social, economic and political agencies only to find that they cannot be operated effectively except by creatures on a higher intellectual and moral plane than the general average of the living generation.

While the writer did not so intend it, his thought may be taken as a criticism of education. What he has said means simply that the things which society seeks to accomplish for its own betterment are good. The machinery for the accomplishment of these things is at hand, but we lack the men to operate it successfully. We are unable to achieve our own ideals or to reach the goal we have set for ourselves because we have not a sufficient number of men and women with the proper training and the high character necessary to bring about the better day. Is this true? If so, has education been at fault? Let us accept the thought as a criticism of ourselves if only for the purpose of inspiring education to greater service. Whether education has been at fault or not, it is our task for the present and for the future so to train the youth of the land that he will have both the character and the intellectual capacity to work in coöperation with his fellow-men for the highest good and for social justice.

The lack heretofore seems to have been one of character and of failure to adhere to ethical principles, rather than a lack of ability. There has likewise been a failure to comprehend fundamental principles of sociology and economics. The lack of character has manifested itself in the all too frequent revelations of unfair dealing in business and finance, and in the all too numerous instances of malfeasance in public office. The failure to understand sociological and economic principles came clearly to view with the crash of 1929. Many of the men we had looked upon as the leaders of what Mr. Adams has called "Our Business Civilization" were found to be nothing more than gentlemen who bought things as cheaply as they could and sold them for as much as they could with little regard for the fairness of their dealings.

The fact that their selfishness and ineptitude had plunged us into the depths was bad enough, but their complete inability to suggest any way of getting us out was worse. They

* An address before the Convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at Cleveland, Ohio, February 26, 1934. The general topic discussed at this session was "Education for the New America."

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knew neither how it had happened nor why it had happened. They were not able even to see the extent of the collapse or to grasp its significance. When asked what ought to be done they said simply, "Things will adjust themselves."

Our disillusionment was quite thorough. The gods of business and finance had a queer code of ethics and very little knowledge of economic laws or social problems. They were not fair in their dealings even with one another and were motivated almost wholly by a desire for personal gain. Left to themselves, they were found to be very nearly helpless. There was no agreement among them as to what should be done and many had not the slightest idea how to extricate their followers from the desperate situation into which they had led them.

What should be of deepest concern to us is the fact that most of these men who failed so miserably were the products of our system of education. They, and those who worshipped them and found them to be false gods, were once in our schools, public or private. Either we failed to teach them the proper way of life, or having taught them, they deliberately ignored the lesson. The likelihood is that we did not give them a real understanding of social, economic, political or moral principles.

What some choose to call the national recovery program or the "New Deal" is in reality an effort to accomplish by legislation and government action the very things that education in the past should have a
complished. Every statute, every law
presumes a failure on the part of ed
ucation, for what need would there
be to direct men by legislative enact
ment that they must be fair in their
dealings with one another, pay fair
wages, and not misrepresent their
goods in the market place, if we who
were their teachers had really and
effectively taught them the lesson?

Every governmental regulation in
the social or economic field presumes
a lack of character; a lack of social
consciousness; and a failure on the
part of those at whom it is directed
to realize that the social good de
pends upon their observance of man's
responsibility to his fellow-men. This,
too, is a lesson that we should have
taught, and must teach now.

Our government has enacted a
large body of legislation and called
for the adoption of corollary codes.
The basic aim of them all is to com
pel men to be ethical—to be as we
should have taught them to be with
out reference to statute or code.

This has been our failure. Out of
it we now have a clearer conception
of our duty. Perhaps there is an
excuse for us. Perhaps when life
was simpler and when the home and
the church played a greater part in
the training of youth than they now
play, our function appeared more nar
rowly defined, but whether excusable
or not, the failure has been recorded
against us.

There is no excuse for us now.
The public school of today takes the
child at a much earlier age and has

him in its care until he has grown to manhood. No longer does he come to us at seven and leave us at twelve or fourteen. We have nursery schools and schools for adults. We have assumed responsibility not merely for the development of the student's mental, manual or artistic capability, but for the development of his whole personality. Modern life has made necessary the assumption of this responsibility and we must discharge it or again be found wanting. We have called upon the people for vast sums of money to make possible this new educational program and if we are to survive as the social agency we now conceive ourselves to be, we cannot fail in the task that is before us.

What began not long ago as a plan for economic recovery widened almost immediately into a program for the attainment of complete social justice and the establishment of a new order—a new America, if you will. The problem involved is not new. Rather is it one that has been crying out for solution through all the ages. It is a problem of education. If any one thing is clear at this time it is that education has a more important part to play in realizing the new social order than has the government itself, because the very essence of the thing is right conduct and right conduct must be the result of teaching and not of legislation.

From now until the end of time we may enact laws in an attempt to make men recognize their obligations to society, but the only way in which this recognition may be accomplished actually is by education. We may call sessions of Congress, seek amendments to our constitution, summon world conferences, or do any one of a number of things, hopeful that we may thus hasten the arrival of an improved social order, and even though we might thus attain it, it would fall if education had not prepared men properly to administer it.

We are witnessing in this country today a new struggle between the strict constructionists and the liberal interpreters of the federal constitution. The whole country is awaiting the outcome of the test to which the recovery program laws will be put when they come before the United States Supreme Court. Education may remain aloof from this struggle and yet perform its full duty, for no matter which interpretation may prevail and no matter what may be our social structure now or in the future, it will stand or fall not by reason of the fact that it was erected in accordance with Mr. Roosevelt's understanding of the functions of government, or Mr. Hoover's, but by reason of the character and honesty of the men in whose hands we place the reins of government and the conduct of our social and economic affairs.

After all, is there really anything new about this "New Deal?" Does it not embody the very ideals that are to be found in the legal, political and economic philosophies of those who formulated the American concept of government and society? The trouble in the past has been that we

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did not live up to these ideals. Today we have awakened to the possibilities of attaining an improved social order through the realization of these ideals, and we are making a determined, intelligent and coöperative effort to find a way out of our difficulties, not by turning to some new form of government, but within the framework of the old democracy. We hear it said that there has been a political revolution. Has the revolt after all not been against dishonesty and incompetence; against the failure of our leaders to practice what they have preached, or to live up to what have always been American ideals? Has the revolt not been one against the abuses of our system, rather than against the system itself—against unfairness, unsocial conduct and attitudes in business, industry and banking? American statesmen have ever promised that all should have equality of opportunity. Even in the twenties, which are now supposed to be the years of the old order, we find Justice Cardozo remarking quite as a matter of fact in his essay on Liberty and Government that "The perception of this truth has brought about a growing acceptance in our law of the power of the legislature to regulate industrial conditions—to establish some degree of equality of opportunity between the affluent and the needy. There was some opposition to the movement based upon an individualistic philosophy which permeated for a time the decisions of the courts, yet the movement gained an impetus that could not be withstood."

Indeed the whole philosophy of the new order may be found in the judicial opinions of Justices Cardozo, Brandeis, Stone and Holmes who, by translating ancient truths into modern terms and applying them to our modern industrial civilization, became the prophets of the new deal. Their opinions, dealing with constitutional questions of a social and economic nature, are based not so much upon legal concepts as upon moral concepts, and their quest has been the quest for social justice. It is my belief that every teacher of history and civics and every teacher of economics and sociology should familiarize himself with the decisions of the United States Supreme Court and the opinions of the Justices on questions having to do with the rights of the individual on the one hand, and the interests of society as a whole on the other. The story of the new order is contained in these opinions, and it will be apparent at once to educators that the attainment of the ideals sought depends upon educating our youth to the acceptance of this theory of social justice.

This we must do by character training, by greater emphasis upon study of the social sciences and by instilling in our youth a real understanding of the American tradition, which is and always has been that the individual shall achieve happiness not through selfishness, but through unselfish service.

A current periodical declares that we educators are groping for the stars; that we cannot create a new

social order, nor generate new social ideas. The answer is that the ideas of the new order are not new. Rather are they ideals which education, having dedicated itself to the task, can and will achieve.

The millions of boys and girls in the public schools of this country today will control the destinies of the New America. They are not responsible for the evil heritage which we are bequeathing them. The seriousness of the situation warrants consideration of the simple fundamentals to which I have called attention.

What are we to do?

How are we to train our youth so that when the social order has been reconstructed there will be men with the high sense of duty and the real devotion to the general welfare necessary for the full realization of the American ideal?

We must, of course, proceed with the individualization of the educative process, but in dealing with each of our students as an individual we must make clear that he is one of a group and that successful living depends upon coöperative effort by the individual in the group. We must imbue our youth with a determination to strive for perfection in whatever he may undertake to do and to be mindful that he will be judged by the manner in which he performs the smaller tasks as well as the larger ones. To help him succeed we must convince him that intensive application of mind and hand, thoughtfulness, resourcefulness and unwillingness to say a thing can't be done until he has exhausted every legitimate means of doing it, is the only formula. We must widen his interests, make him curious and eager to know more and encourage him to be both an analyst and a critic. At the same time we must teach him to be appreciative rather than merely tolerant of the views and opinions of others. We must show him that nothing is more important than that he be absolutely dependable and trustworthy and that fair play is the rule of life.

Educators in the past have emphasized the good life as resulting from the influence of the good teacher, the spirit of the well regulated school and the radiative power of literature, geography, history and civics. These are all important, but we must do more. The schoolroom must become a moral and social laboratory where the old verities of honesty, probity, good-will and tolerance are analyzed, rationalized and the ways of right justified to youth. It is not only the *what* of the moral life we must seek. The *why* is equally important, and until youth are convinced that this moral life rests upon a firm foundation, the structure so elaborately raised in school may later be shaken. It may be well, therefore, to bring the fundamental problems of morality into the classroom where reason and ripe experience may analyze them, and to have the pupils apply the general principles evolved to everyday experiences.

Perhaps all of this is just another way of saying that we must resolve

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we have already undertaken to do.

Perhaps after all it comes down to just this, that we must teach youth to do unto others as he would have others do unto him.

HAROLD G. CAMPELL,
Superintendent of Schools

THE INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT: DOES IT PROGNOSTICATE?

INTRODUCTION

THREE high school principals have declared that the intelligence tests given to entering high school classes are not only useless, but harmful. The tests are useless as they foretell nothing or only very little in regard to a pupil's ability They are harmful, as the rating attained fixes a stamp of mental level above which the pupil exerts no effort to rise. The stimulus of mental competition has been removed.

A few learned professors in schools of education have concluded that these tests are valueless. The conditions under which they are given, the emotional attitude of the pupils, as well as the difference among those giving the tests, militate against the attainment of true scientific results.

Even teachers in schools where pupils are graded according to Intelligence Quotients point out with indignation that pupil A or B whose I. Q. is low should be placed in a higher intelligence group in their particular subject. They also single out with disdain others who should be demoted to a much lower intelligence group because of low scholastic ratings.

What are the actual bases underlying these criticisms? What facts and figures support the above statements? Does the Intelligence Quotient really measure mental ability so that the pupil's work in a general high school course preparing for college can be definitely foretold? May we conclude and say to those entering this kind of a high school, whose rating is under 110 or even 100, "You are doomed to disappointment and failure if you enter here."

PLAN FOR THE INVESTIGATION

In order to try to answer the questions raised in the Introduction, a study comparing the ratings attained in intelligence tests with those given by teachers as the pupil's actual achievement in high school subjects was made. The following facts were kept in mind as the figures were carefully compared.

First: The I. Q. ratings measure intelligence only, such intelligence as will make for success in the traditional subjects that prepare to meet the college entrance requirements.

Second: If pupils are manual-minded, these tests will not show it. Other tests must be given to bring out this particular ability.

Third: If pupils are emotionally minded — have artistic or musical ability—they will fare badly and educators must find other methods for discovering these abilities, not only for the happiness of the individual, but for the benefit of the community.

The Class of June, 1932, that entered one of New York's largest city high schools numbered 1,011 pupils of both sexes. This number included 189 pupils admitted from junior high schools in 1929 who were considered members of this class. Some overtime students were also in this total as well as those from a later class who were completing the regular course in three and one-half years.

Summoned to the auditorium of the high school on the third Friday in June, 1928, the children were divided into groups of 30 and conducted to a classroom where a teacher gave the Terman Group Test. The teachers giving these tests were all experts, that is, they had had experience in teaching and had given these tests before. A committee corrected the papers under the supervision of the psychologist of the school and the Intelligence Quotient of each pupil was determined and placed on his record sheet. Each term the scholastic standings in the subjects he took were added to the record sheet. After taking the Terman Test, the pupils were assigned to official and subject classes in accordance with the language they had selected and within the language groups they were graded according to their I. Qs.

When this study was begun in May, 1932, there were 608 record sheets. These were numbered and the I. Q. was placed after each number followed by the term average, and, lastly, the average of the seven terms (more or less) that the pupil had spent in school.

Illustration

	NUMBER 1						I. Q. 135	
Term	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Aver.
	80	78	71	76	81	82	79	78

The 608 were then re-grouped according to their I. Qs. from the highest, 159, to the lowest, 82.

A separate study was then made in the same way for the 403 discharged pupils, those who, for some reason or other, had left school before completing the course. In addition to the ratings, the cause of discharge was placed beside the term average.

The junior high school pupils were then re-grouped on separate sheets in the same way, for those who remained in school and those who were discharged.

In order to verify the conclusions, the Class of June, 1933, was studied in the same way, when these conclusions seemed at variance with prevailing opinion.

Only summary tables will be given here with the addition of conclusions drawn from the study to try to prove that the Intelligence Quotient does prognosticate. Any other conclusions that may be adduced will also be given.

TABLE I

I. Q.	Present Class	Discharged	Total in Class	% Discharged
159-140	13	0	13	0
139-130	47	11	58	.19
129-120	165	33	198	.17
119-110	188	107	295	.36
109-100	133	95	228	.41
99-90	54	113	167	.67
Less than 90	8	44	52	.84
Total	608	403	1011	.40

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Table I shows that of the 1,011 students who composed the Class of June, 1932, 403 or 40% were discharged before completing the course in this particular high school. Of this number 15% came from the group whose I. Q. was 110 or over, while 25% composed that part of the class whose I. Q. was less than 110. Of the 219 graded less than 100, 157 did not stay with the class. We may therefore conclude that as the I. Q. decreases the percentage of those discharged increases. The point is finally reached where out of 52 pupils with an I. Q. less than 90, 44 or 84% dropped out, only 8 remaining to complete the course.

When studying this table, we must not lose sight of the fact that the pupils with an I. Q. less than 100 are not asked to take the regular course. The difficult subjects are omitted from their programs. No ancient or modern languages are prescribed, while mathematics as well as the difficult sciences are also omitted. The remaining subjects, English, civics and science, are simplified and two terms' work takes these Low I. Qs. three terms to complete.

What a waste of time, effort and the city's money it was to have 403 boys and girls start a course which most of them, as their I. Qs. definitely pointed out, could not possibly finish. The subjects which these pupils failed had to be repeated.

What is the effect of repetition, of failure, of trying to do that for which one is mentally unfitted? We would not ask a physically weak person to lift a 200-pound weight. It would be beyond his physical strength. The fact that the regular high school course is beyond the mental capacity of those whose I. Q. is less than 110 does not deter us from asking them to perform a task that is beyond their mental ability.

Prize-fighters are examined by physicians before they enter the ring to make sure that they can stand the gruelling contest before them. The contestants must be in the same class, that is, almost the same weight,—evenly matched. We examine the mental ability of the students in our entering classes by intelligence tests, then ask those we consider unfitted to tackle an opponent that will not only beat them, but will discourage them. They need to be encouraged by success, not discouraged by failure.

Did most of the 40% of the discharged students waste their time in this kind of a high school? Should those whose I. Qs. were less than 110 be admitted to a high school that prepares most of its boys and girls for college?

TABLE II

Lowest and Highest and Ratings Of Each.

		I. Qs.				
159	154	150	141	139	129	115
		Subject Marks				
92.15	83	92	90	91	92	90
		Lowest I. Qs.				
76	78	79	80	80	81	81
		Average Subject Marks				
61	64	58	61	58	50	48

Are the highest subject marks attained by those having the highest intelligence ratings? The boy with the 159 I. Q. was at the top of his class with an average of 92.15. The student with 154 had an average of only 82.5. An investigation of the ledger sheet showed that this boy had received an average of 92% in Latin and 95% in Greek, but his mathematics marks averaged 74%. The 150 I. Q. was second in the class with 92%.

There were four others who had an average of 90% or over. All these were completing the four-year course in three and one-half years. An interview with the pupils and the grade adviser disclosed the fact that the last two on the above list were aliens, having been in this country only two years at the time they took the intelligence test and could not comprehend the instructions.

The six lowest in the whole class were all failing, having received an average of less than 65%. They had all been discharged as being over age before they had completed two years of the simplified course.

The above figures tend to prove that for those at the bottom and top of the I. Q. list the intelligence rating and the subject average tended to coincide. Variations were found in each group as Table II shows. There were failures in each division from 139-130 down, but the number and percentages increased as the group became lower and lower. Some of these exceptions could no doubt have been explained away by a personal interview and a closer examination of the ledger sheets.

COMPARISON OF I. Q. WITH ACHIEVEMENT AS SHOWN BY AVERAGE RATINGS IN MAJOR SUBJECTS

Under Total Passing, the right-hand half of Table III shows that 90% of those remaining in the present class just before graduation were passing, while the left-hand half discloses that only 31% of the discharged pupils were up to their grade work at the time they left school. Comparing the I. Q. with the per cent passed, we find that both sides of Table III show that as the I. Q. decreases the percentage of those who passed decreases. Do these figures further prove that the ratings attained in the Terman Tests will prognosticate the success or failure of those taking a general high school course?

Table IV takes us one step further. Here the students are grouped according to the per cent achieved in major subjects. The median for the pupils that remained in school is 79-70%, while for the discharged the median is less than 64%. The High I. Qs. have the highest standing and the Low I. Qs. have the lowest grades.

The 340 failures from Table III, as well as those with an average of 69-65%, numbering 264 on the verge of failure, form a tragic group. They number 604 in all, 64% of those in the June, 1932, grade. Each of them has repeated subjects over and over again. "Mental Hygiene in the Classroom" says of these repeaters: "Continued repetition is useless to the very dull child, who is unable to profit from any number of repetitions if the

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TABLE III

Passing and Failing Compared with Intelligence Quotient

I. Q.	No. in Class	Pass.	Fail.	% Pass.	No. Disch.	Pass.	Fail	% Pass of Disch.
159-140	13	13	0	100	0	0	0	0
139-130	47	45	2	96	11	8	3	73
129-120	165	159	6	96	33	21	12	64
119-110	188	171	17	91	107	48	59	45
109-100	133	110	23	82	95	17	78	18
99- 78	62	48	14	77	157	31	126	19
Total	608	546	62	90	403	125	278	31

TABLE IV

I. Q. and Achievement Compared in Per Cents

I. Q.	Per Cent 100-90	89-80	79-70	69-65	64 and less	Total
159-140						
In Class	3	6	3	1	0	13
Discharged	0	0	0	0	0	0
139-130						
In Class	1	17	22	3	4	47
Discharged	0	0	4	4	3	11
129-120						
In Class	1	38	81	39	6	165
Discharged	0	4	8	9	12	33
119-110						
In Class	2	24	86	59	17	188
Discharged	0	2	19	27	59	107
109-100						
In Class	0	3	53	54	23	133
Discharged	0	1	7	9	78	95
99-?						
In Class	0	1	11	35	15	62
Discharged	0	2	6	23	126	157
TOTAL						
In Class	7	89	256	191	65	608
Discharged	0	9	44	72	278	403
Per cent of class	.01	.14	.42	.31	.11	
	0	.02	.11	.17	.69	

work is too far beyond him; disregards the possibility of finding a place in the school system where he can make regular progress, as in an opportunity class; and increases his discouragement and sense of inferiority." Instead of Opportunity Classes these failures should be placed in schools that give work that these pupils can do and from which not only they but the community can benefit.

The right of the parents to send their children to any high school must be recognized. Parents are reasonable. Graduating Class teachers co-operating with grade advisers can convince a parent that his child will do better work in a commercial or vocational school than in a general course high school. Each of these kinds of schools can be selective, placing the emphasis on different abilities that the child must have before he will be admitted, so that it will be just as much of an honor to be admitted to one kind of high school as to another. This should have the effect of destroying the stigma attached to a child who cannot do well in some of the traditional school subjects.

We cannot get away from the fact that the primary object of present-day schooling is to prepare the child for a vocation. In so far as he is able to earn a living he will make a good citizen. The school must also aid in preparing him in some proper way to spend his leisure, some avocation. This is essential, as the eight-hour day is becoming the six-hour day in industry. He must also be prepared to spend some time in healthful recreation. Modern society places this burden on the high schools of today.

How can the parents be made to realize that all children haven't the ability to enter a profession? Many are not even capable of doing the work required in a white collar job. Some have the special ability required for machine and shop work, which should be trained and cultivated. The worker of the future will be just as well off economically as the professional man or white collar worker. It is up to the schools to recognize this and prepare him to take his place in the political and social life beside the present more highly favored groups.

TABLE V

Discharged Pupils

Reasons for Leaving	I.Q. 139-130	I.Q. 129-120	I.Q. 119-110	I.Q. 109-100	I.Q. 99-78	Total	Per Cent of Total
1. Moving; transfer	3	2	2	3	5	15	.03
2. Commercial school	4	18	67	50	60	199	.49
3. Technical school	1	1	2	0	10	14	.03
4. Private school	0	2	1	0	2	5	.01
5. Over age and failing	3	10	35	42	80	170	.42
Totals	11	33	107	95	157	403	

Five causes were listed for pupils leaving school before completing the course. Two of these affect so few that they may be omitted from consideration, only 34 out of a total of 403. One hundred ninety-nine or 49% were transferred either to a public or private commercial school. These pupils either found themselves unable to do the work in a school preparing for college or economic conditions caused them to change their course as the parents could no longer afford a college education for them.

One hundred seventy or 42% form the over-age group. These were the repeaters and had been in school too long. The parents of many of these could afford to keep them in school and desired to do so. The youngsters were either not interested in school work or it was beyond their mental ability, as Table V indicates. Two hundred fifty-two of them or more than 50% came from among those with an I. Q. of less than 110.

The brightest pupils in the sixth and seventh years of the elementary school are sent to a junior high school, if there are such schools in the vicinity. These with the regular pupils attending the junior high school upon completing the ninth year are sent to the senior high schools. Here, they are admitted to the second year of the course. One hundred eighty-nine

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TABLE VI

Junior High School Students in Class of 1932

I. Q.	Completing H. S.	Number Failing	Number Passing	% Passing	Discharged Pupils	Number Failing	Number Passing	% Passing
159-140	3	3	0	100	0	0	0	0
139-130	6	5	1	83	2	2	0	0
129-120	31	29	2	93	12	8	4	100
119-110	30	27	3	90	34	12	22	67
109-100	19	14	5	73	21	4	17	35
99-78	2	0	2	0	29	3	26	10
Total	91	78	13	85	98	29	69	29

such pupils were admitted to the Class of June, 1932.

Deducting the admissions from the junior high schools, there were only 37% of the regulars that were discharged during the term, while there were 52% of the junior high school admissions that left before the eighth term. Was this because they entered senior high school a year late? Was it due to the difference in the methods of teaching during that year? Do the junior high schools cling to the method of the elementary school, mothering the children during the ninth year, while the senior high schools make the pupils stand on their own feet, make them more independent and self-reliant? Is the postponement of the period of adjustment between the two schools the cause?

The same law holds for this group as held for the whole class: as the I.Q. decreases the percentage of those failing increases. Four per cent more of this group failed than of those that had spent four years in high school. Of the junior high school discharges, 70% failed, while of the senior high school only 67% were failures. Do these figures verify the foregoing conclusions?

PROPOSED REMEDIES

If the prognostications of the I.Q. are even only partly true, remedies for evils of permitting those that have the low ratings and who are bound to fail in trying to master the present high school course of study, must be devised. Some must be saved the ignominy such failure involves in their own eyes and those of the parents as well as that of the community. Pupils must be placed in schools giving the kind of work the boy and girl can successfully do.

All those completing the elementary school course, even those attending junior high schools, are to take a city-wide intelligence test. This is to be conducted under the direct supervision of the principal of the school. The papers are then to be sent to the office of the District Superintendent and are to be corrected by the grading class teachers in the district under the direction of an expert. After the papers have been properly graded they are to be returned to the school from which they came. All pupils with I.Q.s of 110 and over are then to select the senior high school they desire to attend. The others are to be sent to junior high schools where pre-vocational courses are to be provided. Here the pupils are to be graded by special tests that will show what work the student is best able to do. After graduation from the junior high school, the pupil may select the high school he wishes to attend. This desire must in part be based on the successful work done in the junior high school, and also based on the results of intelligence and vocational tests given when he graduates from the junior high school. The results of this examination again open the doors of the senior high schools to those whose standings show that they are capable of doing that kind of work.

If the 6-3-3 plan is adopted and the high school course is limited to three years, the intelligence tests will have to be given at the end of the seventh or eighth year in the junior high schools and the vocational or commercial course started during the eighth or ninth year and later completed in the appropriate high school.

This plan, if followed, will in part solve the overcrowding problem. Pupils will be old enough to travel a short distance to the junior high school in the district. The senior high school course having been reduced to three years, these schools should be able to accommodate all the graduates of the junior high schools that desire to attend.

We cannot estimate the energy, worry and discouragement that will be saved the children as well as their parents if pupils are placed in a position to do work for which they are by nature fitted to do. It is impossible to estimate the amount of money the city will save when many of the present-day repeaters become regulars and schools will be used to their capacity.

J. LEWIS STOCKTON.
Erasmus Hall High School.

THE MODERN AMERICAN SHORT STORY*

IN my four previous broadcasts on modern poetry, fiction, drama, and biography, my aim was to tell you something *new* about the phase of literature I was discussing—and the task was by no means a difficult one. Tonight, however, were I to attempt to speak solely on the new note in the twentieth century American short story, I'm afraid I'd soon find myself in hot water, for after much research I am able to discover in this literary form few trends that are particularly new or that belong exclusively to our times.

Of the numberless writers before the World War, Poe with his perfect technique, Harte, with his local color stories, and O. Henry, with his scintillating tales of life, especially in New York City, were outstanding. These men are so well known, how-

*A talk given over radio station WNYC, February 3, 1934—the fifth of five talks on "Trends in Twentieth Century Literature."

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ever, that to eulogize them over the radio in a talk like this would not only be a waste of your time but also an attempt to paint the lily.

Immediately after the war, there sprang up a short story of revolt. The writers before 1918 were content to mirror life as they saw it; the later ones *rebel* against life as they find it. There in a nutshell lies the chief difference between the pre-war and post-war writers. But don't think for a moment that this new idea of re-making society is the single dominant note in the modern short story, for I have found many excellent tales of the conventional type as well. And it is about both of these types I shall speak to you this evening.

One of the first volumes to typify the American revolt was "Winesburg, Ohio," written by Sherwood Anderson a year after the close of the War. This collection referred to as a Spoon River Anthology "transposed," reveals the author in an experimental mood, in which he did to the short story what the Imagists had done to poetry—that is, totally disregarded and overthrew all existing rules about the form and the substance of the conventional American product. Rather did he create a formlessness that seemed to reflect the bewildered confusion of the people in the small Ohio town from which he drew his characters. Listen to the words of Dr. Parcival in the story "The Philosopher":

"The doctor seemed intent upon convincing the boy of the advisability of adopting a line of conduct that he was unable himself to define."

Later on he becomes more articulate when he says:

"The idea is very simple, so simple that if you are not careful you will forget it. It is this—that every one in the world is Christ and they are all crucified. That's all I want to say."

Like so many other of Anderson's characters the philosopher doesn't know where he's going, but he's on his way. Anderson's country is a land "inevitable with tomorrow and sweat, with sex and death and damnation." His particular contribution to the modern short story is a naturalism reflecting the acts and the speech of a confused American stock that suffers from a malady that defies diagnosis.

A popular spokesman of the post-war period who began to write under the influence of Sherwood Anderson is Ernest Hemingway, who also reflects in his short stories the weariness and disillusionment of the generation immediately after 1918. But the latter's stories are much more simple and direct than Anderson's—too direct in fact for those readers who flinch when a spade is called a spade. It is just this power, however, of reproducing a laconic, stripped, natural conversation that stamps Hemingway as an outstanding modern short story writer. His volume "Men Without Women" reveals him as an author of stories dealing with "hard-boiled" people in words that bite and burn. His two outstanding characteristics as a short

story writer are revealed in "The Killers," a tale considered by Hugh Walpole, the famous English novelist and critic, as one of the five greatest of all time. One device is that of implication or understatement. It isn't what Hemingway says that counts, it's what he doesn't say. In this story, nothing happens to the ex-prizefighter who is sought by two thugs, yet we are made to realize that he is doomed to be murdered by them—hence the title, "The Killers." The second device is his ability to convey a desired sensation through constant repetition of an expression used in conversation. In this story the words "bright boy," repeated twenty-nine times in the course of a talk, create the impression of sarcasm and ridicule far more pungently than as many pages of description or exposition could possibly do. These same characteristics are strikingly brought out in another powerful story in this volume—a story about abortion entitled, "Hills Like White Elephants." If, therefore, you would have a story with a "punch," told in an amazingly authentic way, recording only facts and physical sensations, read Hemingway.

You can readily see that these two writers, Anderson and Hemingway, are primarily authors of the new school—the school of revolt—for they have rebelled against both the form and the content of the conventional short story. The next three authors I shall discuss are not revolutionary, for they adhere closely to what we looked for in short stories written before the War. I have chosen them because of the outstanding excellence of their work, rather than for their note of newness.

Wilbur Daniel Steel has four times won the O. Henry Memorial Prizes, and with very good reason—his skillful and ingenious manner of treating the short story of setting, character, and plot. His particular forte is tragedy set against a horrible and awe-inspiring background and carried to logical, relentless conclusion. Two excerpts from his tales should make my point clear. In "The Man Who Sat," this line appears: "Did you ever know what it is to have a disease in your soul and hug it tight?" And the first paragraph of the story "Footfalls" leaves the reader in doubt for not a single moment regarding the nature of the story. Here it is:

> "This is not an easy story; not a road for tender or casual feet. Better the meadows. Let me warn you, it is hard as that old man's soul and as sunless as his eyes. It has its inception in catastrophe, and its end in an act of almost incredible violence; between them it tells barely how one, long blind, can become also deaf and dumb."

Anyone who likes a twentieth century story told in the skillful, artistic manner of the nineteenth, could do no better than to read collected volumes by Steele like "Land's End" or "The Man Who Saw Through Heaven."

I have previously referred to O. Henry's tales of the New York of his time—a quarter of a century ago. We have a writer today also very much

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interested in our city—Miss Fannie Hurst—whose tales of life and love among the people of the Ghetto have long ere this been popularized on the stage and on the screen. Though not a native of New York, she came here from the Middle West at an impressionable age, and as she herself puts it, there were "weeks of rambling among the vivid poor of the vivid East Side." In order to enrich her experience, she has also tried her hand as waitress, nursemaid, sweatshop worker, steerage passenger, and Broadway actress. In a conversation I had with Miss Hurst the other day, she told me this about her art: "As I grow older I care less and less about plot, which I believe comes from the evolving of character. Given a certain type of mind, I ask myself this question: 'What will a human being do?' I am not sure that there is any pattern for writing short stories. Bret Harte machine-stitched the short story for us and made a good job of it, but in place of a formula for writing tales, I believe in the intellectual rebellion of young minds. I am not desirous of giving the public what they want; I rather write from the *inside out*, as my mind dictates. Closeness to the human scene is my main aim in the writing of short stories." From a study of Miss Hurst's stories, I can readily subscribe to everything she said except about caring less and less for plot, and about being indifferent to what the public wants. Read stories like "Humoresque" and "The Good Provider" and judge for yourself.

In this little talk on the post-war short story, I have of necessity had much to say about naturalism, cynicism, and disillusion because these have been the outstanding characteristics of the time. Accordingly, one might well ask these questions: Is there nothing we are concerned about but tragedy? Must all our writers use a sledgehammer to bring home a point when a feather duster would do just as well? Is there no one capable of employing *humor* not only to reflect life, but also to change it? My answer to the last question is "Yes," for Ring Lardner has made this valuable contribution to the short story—he has given us a pleasing combination of humor and satire—humor as a reflection of his natural love of fun, satire as a weapon to ridicule dullness and stupidity. In his famous "You Know Me, Al" stories, he introduced a new kind of baseball "lingo" that came to be known as "Lardner's Ringlish." In 1924 he wrote "How to Write Short Stories," a volume rather unfortunately named, as it is not a literary handbook but a collection of very good stories. For years he was a sports writer on several newspapers, experience which served him in good stead when writing about activities like boxing and baseball. His untimely demise a few months ago leaves the literary world poorer, for as a writer of humorous and satirical tales of the roped arena he had no equal.

Listen to the following description chosen at random from one of his stories, and you'll understand what I mean when I say that as a humorist and satirist he stands supreme:

"It was one afternoon about a year ago. Bill Brennan was in Kid Howard's gym in Chicago, working out, and they was a gang looking on. Howard seen one boy in the crowd that you couldn't help from noticing. He was made up for one of the hicks in 'Way Down East.' He'd bought his collar in Akron and his coat sleeves died just south of his elbow. From his pants to his vest was a toll call. He hadn't never shaved and his whiskers was just the right number and len'th to string a violin. Thinks Howard to himself: 'If you seen a stage rube dressed like that, you'd say it was overdone'."

In closing this last of my talks on the trends in twentieth century literature, ladies and gentlemen, let me briefly review the points in this discussion of the modern American short story. Three of the most outstanding artists before the World War were: Poe, who made cosmos out of chaos regarding the manner of writing the short story and introduced the mystery and detective tales; Bret Harte, who gave us the short story of local color; and O. Henry, the literary photographer of New York life at the turn of this century, who gained fame through his ability to give a phrase an unexpected twist and to finish a story smartly with a surprise ending. These were among America's best writers before the World War. The period immediately after it, ushered in with cynicism, disillusion, revolt, finds the short story playing the part of a literary wailing wall. Anderson has reflected this well in his volume "Winesburg, Ohio," realistic tales which disregarded both conventional short story manner and matter. Hemingway has written the story of understatement, aimed to register only the physical sensations of a "hard-boiled" generation. Steele has given us a twentieth century tale done in the careful, ingenious manner of the nineteenth century artists like Poe and Bierce. Miss Hurst has won the respect of an admiring populace through her true sympathetic tales of life and love in the New York Ghetto. And lastly, the late Ring Lardner stands supreme as a writer of humorous satirical tales dealing with sporting life.

And these are but five of five hundred writers who are daily making history with the short story in America. Is it any wonder, then, that we turn with pride to this art form as a real American contribution to the literature of the world!

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THE LIBERALIZATION OF THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MIND THROUGH THE STUDY OF ANTHROPOLOGY

WITHOUT any intention to disparage or minimize the importance of other subjects in our educational system, the teacher of the social studies may lay claim to the distinction of being invested more than any other with the responsibility of shaping the social mind and the social conscience of the student. The physical sciences do their part in introducing the child to the technological complexities of modern society, other subjects variously have the job of introducing him to the fundamental skills or of developing in him an aesthetic appreciation, but the great concern of our day — instruction for the purpose of building a rational and all-sufficing society—lies most intimately and most fittingly in the provinces of the social studies. It is therefore, a matter of no small importance that those who are assigned the task of presenting to the impressionable mind of the adolescent the history and the problems of human relationships, should themselves be adequately equipped to fulfill this purpose.

Assuredly, an adequately equipped teacher is not necessarily one who knows the reasons for the fall of Napoleon, or the provisions of the Glass-Steagall Bill. Nor is it the enterprising teacher who simplifies the memorization of the various settlements of the Congress of Vienna, or the exact succession of the reigning houses of England, by ingenious mnemonic devices. Fortunately, we have been liberated from the implications of this type of history teaching. We have recognized its fallacies and futilities and we have re-evaluated the premises which determine the purposes of instruction in the social sciences. Three related and highly civilized concepts have been written into the syllabus as the objects of history instruction—the development of scientific curiosity, the instilling of desirable social attitudes, and the inculcation of an unconscious objectivity, which is, more simply, tolerance.

Such aims are themselves enough to fill the heart with hope and enthusiasm. But these aims presuppose a certain liberality of mind, a philosophical temperament, and a degree of intellectual sophistication which very few teachers enjoy. Some obscurity exists also as to the definition of these aims. Ample testimony indicating the common uncertainty may be found in the many collective inquiries and discussions that have taken place among the history teachers of New York during the past two years designed to shed some illumination on what these aims mean, what they purport to accomplish and how to accomplish them.

History itself has become progressively more instructive and more intelligible as it has taken advantage of the auxiliary fields, political science, economics, psychology, and anthropology and has used with a discriminating eclecticism their technique and conclusions. The closest of these is anthropology, since history is in truth only a branch of a larger tree, the study or the science of man (*anthros*: man; *logos*: science or discourse). The purpose of this article is to show that anthropology as a study affords the best means of cultivating the teacher's mind along the lines dictated by the aims of teaching today, that anthropology is not only a useful but a necessary instrument of teaching because it is the only one of the social subjects which has made any real progress toward giving us that which is the purpose of all study and investigation in the social sphere: some understanding and insight into the springs of human conduct, some knowledge of the possible extraneous forces that determine historical events, some lessons that may help us in the solution of the problems of our own time.

To treat the subject systematically we should begin with a definition of anthropology. The following by Franz Boas is as good as any:

"Anthropology is the science that attempts to reconstruct the history of mankind and that tries wherever possible to express in the form of laws ever-recurring modes of historical happenings. Since written history covers a brief span of time and relates in fragmentary records the fates of a few only of the multitudes of people of the earth, the anthropologist must endeavor by methods of his own to clear up the darkness of the past ages and the remote parts of the world."

Anthropology and the Scientific Spirit

Anthropology has an advantage over history in that history is more directly the study of our own civilization derived from written records while anthoropolgy uses both the researches of the orthodox historians and their own conclusions from investigations into the pre-historic period in a general scheme of comparative analysis, from which are drawn generalizations and apparent tendencies, the "laws" of human society. Historians, of course, attempt to do the same thing, but even the most laborious and the most monumental contributions to historiography have had only limited value in the formulation of a general idea. The great epochal contributions have not been the microscopic investigation of a single event, of a single race, or even of a single civilization, because such studies, though conceivably valid within their own frontiers, are too restricted and too confined to yield universal truths. Thus the significant advances in reducing the amorphous and chaotic sources of history to coherence and internal relevance have been great synthesizing minds who have used both

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history and anthropology. It is true that their interpretations or philosophies of history, whether it be based on a spiritual, a cataclysmic, an anthropogeographic, or an economic conception of historical phenomena, have been inconclusive and contradictory. Yet these have been the closest approaches to a real understanding of human society and the direction in which it is travelling. It is in point to note that Spencer, Buckle, Marx, and Ratzel, the men who have tried to interpret history in terms of some universality, were not considered members of the exclusive fraternity of professional historians.

The detection of universalities is the main work of the anthoropologist. His method is the examination of all societies and cultures, past and present, in a dispassionate comparison. He does not draw generalizations from conspicuous recurrences within a single period, as does the historian, and in this sense he is more scientific in spirit and method. Professor Morris R. Cohen, in his talk before the Association of Social Science Teachers, expressed this idea when he said that the essence of the scientific spirit is the willingness to examine all possible alternatives. To take a practical example, who is more scientific in attitude and who is better fitted to make fundamental evaluatons of, let us say, capitalism and communism—the historian whose understanding of the origins and the bases of those economic systems is limited to a relatively short period of time and in the case of communism to relatively few examples, or the anthropologist who studies all of recorded time and in the case of communism draws not only upon examples of such societies within the historical epic, but also upon the innumerable examples of communism, in true and vestigial form, in prehistoric society and among primitive groups today? Who of the two is better qualified to make an authoritative evaluation of some of the basic concepts of western peoples, the inviolability of private property, the doctrine of revealed religion, the "instinct" toward monogamy, and the superiority of democracy to other forms of governmental organization?

These concepts are the major sources of conflict in our day. They represent the familiar newspaper, magazine and dinner-table controversies: Capitalism vs. Communism, Fundamentalism vs. Agnosticism, Marriage vs. Free Love, and Democracy vs. Dictatorship. Yet the origins of all but the last of these basic ideas have been neglected by the conventional historian, and the examination of the premises of our whole civilization is left in the hands of an obscure investigator, the anthropologist. Institutional history, the most constructive and illuminating phase of history, which the historian has only lately appropriated, is nothing more than an extension of the methodology of Tylor, Morgan, and Westermarck. In an admirable article Dr. H. E. Barnes points out the incredible apathy and the reluctance of historians to use the

available work of the anthropologists.[1] Nothing will help to give teachers a healthy skepticism toward history as it has been written than the incredible myopia of our great classical historians who continued to write blatantly nationalistic histories based on theories of racial superiority which had been incontrovertibly exploded. They continued to write with great charm and erudition on the theatrical aspects of diplomacy, militarism and politics in Europe after the anthropologist had opened up entirely new fields of knowledge which were still uncorrelated with known history. When the historian did go into the field of prehistory it was frequently to bear out an already formulated conviction. As an example of this type of distortion we may cite the case of protagonists of the Nordic theory who claimed to have discovered the origin of the democratic idea in the Teutonic folk-moot of the cold Baltic forests. Therefore the great achievement of the eighteenth and nineteenth century, democracy, was a Nordic accomplishment. What did the anthropologists say about this claim? In the first place, the theory of racial purity was shown to be a myth; secondly, it was shown that there are and were many tribal organizations similar to the Teutonic folk-moot; and finally, closer investigation revealed that there was nothing especially democratic about the folk-moot. Distortion was frequent, but ignorance of anthropology and its purposes was almost universal. There is no more significant commentary on the purblindness of the nineteenth century historian than the authentic story of Mommsen who, in finishing his great labors as an historian of Roman civilization, heard for the first time of the glacial epochs in Europe.

It is of course a familiar copy-book maxim that the things about us are the things most imperfectly understood. The commonplaces of life, shaking of hands, wearing a certain standardized attire, and so forth, are habits that require neither speculation or explanation. This is not only true of our actions but also of our thinking. Mr. Wilson Wallis pointed out some years ago that the historians completely overlooked in their expositions of the causes of events the most obvious and the most plausible cause of all. He argued as follows: People, it may be agreed, adopt institutions because they find certain values in them. Why then do they continue to cherish the institution when it has become outmoded and valueless? The explanation (first given by E. B. Tylor, the anthropologist, to this universal human reaction), is interesting because it is so obvious. Just as it is true that they adopted it and continued it because they liked it, so is it equally and conversely true that they like it because they adopted it and continued it. So it is, to give an example, that we adopted democracy because we liked it and we like democracy because we adopted it. Clearly, such an attachment is purely

[1] H. E. Barnes: "Some Contributions of Anthropology to History," *Journal of Social Forces*, May, 1924.

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sentimental, not rational. Yet, we will exhaust all our mental and physical resources in rationalization, hair-splitting casuistry, and even in individual or mass combat to defend this attachment. We may smile with a complacent indulgence upon the Sun-Dance ceremony of the Plains Indian who goes through the ritual with a ferocious sincerity, despite the fact that the ceremony was originally a sacordotal formula which began the buffalo hunt—and today there are no buffalos to hunt. No doubt any intelligent Indian would understand if it were explained that the ceremony has no meaning or value and no doubt his reaction to criticism of what is his would be the same as our reaction to criticism of our institutions. Johnny will never admit that his father, however timid and unmuscled, can be licked by fathers of the other fellows. Johnny probably has no strong convictions about his father's prowess as a mauler, but he will never admit his doubts and even fight every kid on the block to justify himself. Psychologically the attitudes of Johnny, the Indian, and the socalled stand-patter, the irreconcilable, the reactionary in politics or morals, are similar. The likelihood is that they are all doing lip-service to that which is *theirs* and nothing more. How much of our mental life is on this level? How scientific in spirit is it?

The ordinary intelligent person who lays claim to a rational and receptive mind believes in his ability to understand and to make a judgment about social problems. This may be so, but it is the exception rather than the rule, for the simple reason that few people are equipped with the necessary detachment and the necessary technique of analysis, which is the indispensible basis of sound judgment. From an immense collection of ethnological and cultural data, the anthropologist has established, among others, this invariable concept, that all of man's creeds, habits, and actions are only the evidences of the pressures and compulsions of his own society. Many of these have become so rooted in his behavior that he can no longer distinguish them from his biological inheritance. These he calls his "instincts."[1] Since an instinct is an original endowment and is not subject to modification, he accepts it with a modest and enervating resignation. We have built up our civilization on the basis of the acquisitive "instinct," the "instinct" of combat, the "instinct" of monogamy, the "instinct" toward individualism, without probing into the validity or nullity of such prepossessions. We have assumed "that many of our standards are categorically determined by our quality as human beings."

The anthropologist who sees and weighs the evidence from all angles, and from all peoples, finds little to support the conviction that these "instincts" are universal. If they are not universal, if men have been able to live in well-regulated societies based on different and contradictory "instincts" and if it can be shown (and it has), that the contact and repercussions of different cultures have the

effect of qualifying and modifying them, then patently these "basic instincts" are not immutable or sacrosanct. We have not the scientific spirit, we have not the immaculate disinterestedness which is the essence of the scientific spirit, if we do not take cognizance of the implications of this point of view.

I think it would be worth while to mention a suggestion that has been made by Miss Margaret Mead,[2] whose study of adolescence in a primitive society qualifies her to speak with some authority about anthropology and about the adolescent. The reason for the progress we have made in the mechanical arts, she points out, is our freedom from the pedagogical error committed by the teachers in a primitive society. When a father teaches his son how to make a canoe, or a mother teaches her daughter how to make cake, they teach them to make that canoe or that cake which they themselves were taught to make. They do not teach them the prinicples of boat-making or cake-making. Consequently, the learners perpetuate that particular canoe or that particular cake, and they are at a loss either to improve or create. In teaching the physical sciences today, we do not teach commercial processes as such, but rather the principles involved in the manufacture of a mechanical device or a chemical preparation. In the social sciences, on the other hand, we teach accepted formulae, and things as they are. In teaching government and civics, we do not teach the principles of government. We teach the operations of the United States government, the French government, the English government, etc. Nor do we examine the principles on which our government happens to be based. The result is that change, improvement, and progress in the social sciences is painfully slow. This is a helpful key to the understanding of a very profound observation that H. G. Wells makes somewhere in his voluminous writings, that, if the social sciences had kept pace with the physical sciences, the World War would never have taken place.

[1] School and Society, October, 1927.

Anthropology and the Development of Attitudes

It is a great misfortune that we are compelled to translate our most intimate and conceptualized emotions into the crudities of articulate speech. In the sphere of ideas language can only be an arbitrary approximation. The possible connotations that are carried by such words as loyalty, liberty, equality, fraternity, love, sense of humor, patriotism, internationalism, progressivism, conservatism, piety, are almost infinite. An attempt to define any of these would be an act of irresponsible presumption. Since everybody has a different conception of liberty, loyalty, sense of humor, and so on, it follows that these words mean all things to all persons. The deplorable aspect of this state of affairs is that people have always used these or other words to practice all forms of forcible oppression upon each

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other. In the name of some abstract idea abstractly translated they have consigned themselves to voluntary punishment, and have stultified themselves by blind adherence to all forms of social absurdities. These words, therefore, have more than philosophical or metaphysical significance. They have a direct bearing upon the nature of society and the happiness of the individual. To the history teacher these words are of interest because they are the simplified expressions of the "attitudes" he is to implant.

Anthropology represents a method of thought and approach that will help the teacher in attaining the proper perspective for the evaluation of "attitudes." How can the teacher develop in his students an attitude of responsive patriotism which will not add numbers to the chip-on-the-shoulder jingoes, a rational patriotism that will not make the future generation susceptible to the tawdry appeals of war-time idealism? How can the teacher imbue a wholesome respect for our own culture and our own institutions which will not interfere with the normal demands of progress? The teacher who is himself free from the influence of traditional absolutes and can strike the happy mean, is a rare spirit. What does "loyalty" mean to the anthropologist? He finds that loyalty means one thing to western peoples, another thing to the Chinese, something else again to the Kwakiutl, or the Bantu tribes, or to the inhabitants of the Torres Straits region. To the anthropologist all notions of loyalty, or any other attitude, take their places on a plane of equality. The result is that our conceptions take their proper place as an infinitesimal elements among innumerable cultural complexes. The effect is similar to the revolution that took place in man's mental life when Copernicus announced a new system of astrophysics which assigned the world and man to an insignificant place in the cosmos. And just as man's mind was broadened and liberalized by the realization of his place in the physical world, so will he be broadened and liberalized when he realizes his place in the world of societies. His arrogance wjill be subdued. His institutions, his conventions, his hallowed customs, and his unthinking fixations will be shown to be ephemeral and capricious. Collectively, he will see them as one culture as against innumerable cultures.

To the anthropologist the wild and fantastic tribal ceremony of an aboriginal people belongs in the same category as a Memorial Day parade on Broadway. The custom of greeting a guest by having all the women of the household surround him, sit in his lap and cry at the top of their lungs, and the pecular privileges that are afforded a guest by the Wahhabites and the Chukchi, are no more strange or awesome than is our custom of taking out the best linen, hanging up an embroidered towel and assigning the softest bed in the house to the guest. The *mores* of the primitive frequently have rich spiritual significance, meaning much more to him than our own empty formalism to us. We should be careful not to patronize or even sympathize with the primitive. Some interesting results may be gotten by picturing ourselves as primitives from central Africa with the opportunity of examining the society of western peoples. What would the "savage" think of our civilization if he saw wheat being destroyed and cotton being plowed under while people are hungry and cold?

The anthropogist must respect what he sees. He must be slow to pass judgment and he must try to understand. He is truly tolerant. Real tolerance is not passive. It not only permits another to hold a contrary view, but it implies a willingness to put oneself into a different setting, an inclination to listen and to be convinced.

Anthropology superficially studies may seem to be a large and unorganized collection of curious and exotic information about backward peoples. The anthropologist's preoccupation with the primitive is understandable when we realize that the purpose of the science is the study of man. By examining relatively untouched peoples we can get some idea of the early life of civilized man and the origins of contemporary society. More clues to insight are likely to come from the investigation of new and unexploited sources than will come from the familiar pages of conventional history.

The greatest value of anthropology to the teacher of the social studies is not in anthropology as a body of knowledge, though it is hard to conceive of a history teacher who is entirely unfamiliar with this field. The greatest value of anthropology is its way of thinking. In no social study is there such unqualified standards of tolerance and forbearance, nor is there any in which the comparative method of analysis is possible to the degree that it is in anthropology. There is no social subject that gives its students the same detachment, the same cosmopolitanism, and the same understanding of society and life.

Those who have some sympathy with the claims for anthropology and would like to pursue the subject further will find this short reading list useful.

Kroeber—"Anthropology."

Boas—"The Mind of Primitive Man" and "Anthropology and Modern Life."

Calverton—"The Making of Man" (a valuable and unique anthology).

Wissler—"Man and Culture."

Goldenweiser—"Primitive Civilization."

Barnes—"Some Contributions of Anthropology to History," *Journal of Social Forces*, March, 1924.

Hankins — "The Racial Basis of Civilization."

Briffault—"The Mothers."

Sapir—"Language."

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SOME PECULIARITIES OF THE AMERICAN LANGUAGE

In its somewhat like three hundred years of existence, the English language in America has grown into something separate and distinct, in actual kind, from the mother tongue. The tongue of the Mayflower Puritans has taken on fiery elements, a quick vitality, an aggressiveness ready to enter new avenues, an eager adaptability, touched with a certain humor and whimsicality in the shaping of fresh words and fantastic turns of phrase. That old Elizabethan word "bodkin" is still in common use, but beside such a term are marshalled armies of created and constantly increasing forms that surpass Elizabethan exuberance.

It is a kind of verbal precociousness that we are witnessing, a literary pioneer spirit that is willing to venture into new fields and call what it may. The tendency manifests itself primarily and most dominantly in a fondness for polysyllabic abundance. A quaint little barber shop in a New York side street flaunts across its windows a b l a r i n g announcement: "Empirical Trichological Treatment." Freed from its Greek kindship, and rendered into simple terms, it means nothing more than practical hair treatment. It is possibly a desire to dazzle and amaze that is responsible for such phrases, a desire that is congeneric with the street musician's rapid patter or the old-time medicine man's pseudo-medical jargon. A "tonsorial parlor" is of course the barber's sanctum, but it takes a little more ingenuity to discover that a "mortician," stripped of his verbal panoply, is an undertaker; that a "realtor" has merely risen bombastically from the level of house agent; that the "sanitary engineer" is our old friend the butt of the comic papers, the plumber; and that the "electragist," notwithstanding his hybrid nomenclature, is a simple mechanic.

Old things are pleasantly, sometimes provokingly, disguised under a new and often fantastic camouflage. A "dry goods merchant" is merely a relative, a business associate, of John Gilpin, that renowned draper of London town, while a delicatessen store is only cover for a grocer with a domestic and spicy frame of mind.

"Farm products" have no veterinary significance. They have reference only to butter, cheese, and eggs. An "interior decorator"? That is no surgical expert with artistic leanings, but the house painter who has blossomed out.

No ailing patients are treated at the "shirt hospital," of course. "Doll hospital," too, is picturesque, while "shoe doctor" may be nothing but an instance of that arrogant cobbler who would not stick to his last.

In the newspapers we find a column with the caption "Help Wanted." It is no tremulous cry from the agony column, but an American equivalent of "Situations Vacant."

The manual laborer receives no "wages"; he will accept nothing but a "salary." The "engineer-custodian" of a school, and the "superintendent" of an apartment house, are janitors elevated etymologically and in salary. A "solicitor" has no legal training. He is what is called in Britain a canvasser, while a "counselor" has no juridical status; he is a guide and mentor in summer camps. A "graduate," in Britain, has a certain dignity in its connotation. In the United States it may be applied to one who has completed an elementary school course. When we say "block," we have immediate visions of executionary finality, but in the States it means a street. "Rubbers" are British goloshes, and "shoes" are boots. It all sounds somewhat like a topsy-turvy Alice-through-the-Looking-Glass distortion, but things straighten out with time.

"Scientifiction" is a hasty and rather cheap compound of fiction that follows the Jules Verne or Wells models. A "patrioteer"? He is a cousin of the profiteer, and the two are etymological kin. The patrioteer's specialty is a violent Jingoism. A "blah blah" notice verges on pungent argot, and when translated expresses a wordy or frothy announcement.

A phrase like "Prohibition as is," though irritating to a purist, is not entirely an inversion of grammatical correctness. It is the people's way of saying the *status quo*. To "kick" need not involve pedal activity. It is just an effective phrase to describe forthright and outspoken criticism.

Certain terms, though novel and expressive, border on slang. A "getaway" is the gangster's escape, while the "once over" indicates a rapid glance or survey. But when we come to "cosmetologists," we see to what lengths the dealers in lip sticks and rouge will go to hide their tracks from the monosyllabic countryman.

"Fifty-fifty," again, is no arithmetical iteration; it means mutual responsibilities. "I'll tell the world" is not to be taken in its literal sense, nor is "I hope to tell you" a promise of a secret confidence. They are mere expressions of corroboration. A "hard-boiled man" has not necessarily suffered from excessive cooking; he is only a wily sophisticate. A "roughneck," too, is no victim of a cutaneous outbreak; he is the British "tough customer." A "tough egg," by the way, is not a Chinese importation; it is a designation of the roughneck's colleague.

Who could attempt to "fry ice"? Yet the injunction is quite common. It is the climatic variant of the more digestible "applesauce," or the oleaginous "banana oil," all of which are outbreaks of negation or incredulity.

Every day, every new political crisis or economic situation or domestic emergency furnishes food for neologisms. Sometimes these terms wander in the background, in a despised

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limbo, within the shadows of respectability. Bandied about from mouth to mouth, they acquire subtle and evanescent associations. And sometimes, as fate wills, they find their way into a pompous dictionary, into the philological morgue, and we know that death has overtaken them.

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A ONE-YEAR EXPERIMENT WITH A READING METHOD IN FRENCH

INTRODUCTION

THE experiment which is the subject of this report was conducted with the permission of Dr. Harold J. Campbell, Superintendent of Schools, and Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages in High Schools.

The writer wishes to thank Dr. Henry E. Hein, Principal of James Monroe High School, Mr. George D. Huncke, Chairman of the French Department at the time the experiment was begun, and Mr. Daniel C. Rosenthal, Chairman of the French Department during the second term of the experiment, for their interest and coöperation during the course of the experiment.

The writer wishes also to thank the University of Chicago Press for their assistance and coöperation in sending the books of the University of Chicago Press French Series as a loan for use in the experiment. The method used in the experiment followed closely the plan of the books; whatever original experimental quality it possesses consists only in its application to high school classroom conditions.

The texts used during the year were:

Eddy: Beginning French.

Eddy: French Workbook.

Cochran and Eddy: Si Nous Lisions.

Cochran and Eddy: Pierrille (Claretie).

Meade, Cochran and Eddy: Sans Famille (Malot).

To attain the reading objective in the study of French, a more radical change of procedure must occur than simply the decision to read two books during the term instead of one. The reading objective itself no longer needs any defense. The amount of energy wasted in teaching two or three years of French to high school or college students, who are subsequently unable to read French, is generally recognized and widely deplored; and it is admitted that it is impossible to gain a speaking knowledge of the language in the limited time spent on it in our schools, at least in a two-year course. With regard to the reading objective, it is too newly instituted for most teachers to have practical convictions based on experience.

The new Modern Language Syllabus of the New York City High Schools prescribes as the principal aim of the course "to develop to the point of enjoyment the ability to read the language." Yet, it is a question whether, with the best intentions, many teachers have changed their methods in the classroom and really teach in the light of the reading objective. Are not the same text-books being used in the same way, developing grammatical principles according to methods worked out through years of more or less successful teaching experience?

The Syllabus speaks of "recognition grammar" and "passive knowledge." Recognition grammar does not mean an inaccurate knowledge of grammar; passive knowledge does not mean a hazy idea. Different, but by no means lower standards of measuring pupil achievement, must be found. The standard of accuracy will probably be higher—certainly not lower—but it will be a standard with regard to different things. The change to a reading objective requires a radical change of classroom procedure. New devices must be found, and many old ones discarded.

In January, 1933, in the James Monroe High School, an experiment was begun with a first-term French class designed to test the "teachability" of a reading method, and to develop the techniques and classroom procedures necessary therefor. Although the City Syllabus prescribes the reading objective as the chief aim, it was made the sole aim in this experiment, which was planned to continue for one year.

No procedure was assumed to be necessary because it had previously been found desirable. Everything done in the classroom led to one point only: developing the ability to grasp the meaning of the printed page as rapidly as possible. Reading is synonymous with rapid reading; one cannot call "reading" the slow piecing together of words to form a sentence, and then ultimately, perhaps, an idea—a procedure which unfortunately sometimes occurs in the reading of French.

All other aims (writing, speaking, and understanding spoken French) were weighed to determine what they contribute to the development of the ability to read, and the following conclusions were reached:

1. Writing French is unnecessary for attaining the reading objective.
2. Speaking French, beyond the ability to pronounce individual sounds, is unnecessary.
3. An understanding of spoken French is a valuable aid in developing the ability to read.
4. A knowledge of grammar is essential.

Analyzing these four points explains the reading objective point of view.

1. *Writing French*: The ability to spell correctly does not help reading. One reads not words, not letters, but groups of words: Buswell's "eyefuls." To concentrate on spelling slows up the reading process by making the

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student attentive to each letter; he halts over each word. As to how much good this attention does him, it is only necessary for a teacher to ask an average student to copy a page of French, to see how many mistakes he will make.

The decision to eliminate the writing of French prevents using several of the most common classroom procedures: the dictation exercise, the English-to-French translation, and even the filling in of a missing word. The student will not be required to write a single word of French, for fear that his grasp of the French word or sentence will be retarded by the attempt to write.

2. *Speaking French:* A knowledge of correct pronunciation is important, because as the student reads he pronounces subvocally; he forms an image of the sound of letter combinations; if he does not know the correct sounds, he will invent wrong ones; he will not be able to understand spoken French, and later v 'll have great difficulty in learning to speak. Reading consecutive passages aloud, however, is subversive to the aim of the reading course, and must be omitted for two reasons: first, the student will read slowly, as he will be uncertain of some of the words, and silent reading is always more rapid than oral; secondly, he will make mistakes in pronunciation and intensify the wrong impression in his own mind and in the minds of the rest of the class.

The student will not be asked to invent original sentences in French. Rote repetition of set phrases, such as greetings or simple classroom directions, is easy, but the effort to build an original sentence orally consists, in the early stages, of painful efforts to pronounce, usually poorly, and a faltering putting together of words either incorrectly or at best with poor idiom. Certainly teachers will admit that this is a correct picture for at least half the average class in the first and second terms. It is only the superior student who can learn to talk with any degree of correctness before the end of two years.

3. *An Understanding of Spoken French:* The teacher will speak French as much as possible to the students. The comprehension of the spoken word helps the comprehension of the written word. The student will be subjected to a battery of French, seen and heard. The object at each moment will be to get the student to understand immediately and accurately, but to defer his using the language until he is able to do so with a fair degree of confidence and accuracy.

He will not "learn to do by doing," which in the early stages is bound to be a trial and error method, with the balance in favor of the errors. *He will learn by listening.* His passive knowledge will be accurate knowledge. He will absorb correct forms; he will read not sentences badly written by his fellow students, but the accurate forms of the text-book; he will hear only the correct and fluent French of the teacher, who will speak not in the isolated words so often used by beginners, but at a moderate rate

of speed. Then when the passive knowledge becomes absorbed, it will be possible to shift the aim of the course, perhaps in the third year, possibly in the second, and include the writing and speaking aims. The child will use the correct forms almost spontaneously, or will learn them very easily, since he has seen and heard only correct forms and spelling, and has had no opportunity to impress incorrect ones on his mind through careless writing of them.

Think of a traditional lesson including written work on the blackboard. Errors in spelling and errors in grammar are corrected, students at their seats making similar corrections on their papers. Collect the papers and see how many mistakes have gone uncorrected, how many corrections have been erroneously entered. And even if some papers are perfect, the attitude during this part of the work has been a concentration on correction of grammar and spelling. Where is the feeling for a living language?

If the teacher could be induced to hold off from using written work for a year, he could make up in a few weeks the active work of the year, and with much better results, since the student would have a large fund of passive knowledge on which to draw.

4. *A Knowledge of Grammar* is necessary for attaining the reading objective.

To understand accurately, the student must be able to distinguish between such forms as "L'homme qui a vu mon père" and "L'homme qu' a vu mon père," and he must know the grammatical difference between them. But to be able to recognize the difference, the student does not necessarily have to be able to write such sentences. If he has read and understood a hundred such sentences, he will probably not be troubled by the next one he finds, even though he has never written an original sentence using the construction.

Grammar, then, will be taught only to be recognized. Now, this is a definite ability. It does not mean a slipshod teaching of grammar. It does not mean guessing at the meaning of unknown words. It involves a presentation of typical forms by the teacher, definite observations made by the student, and numerous applications of the construction learned in sentences presented for reading so that the student may gain much practice in recognizing the construction when it appears naturally in consecutive reading passages.

A brief review of a few points taught in any first year French course will show the different approach.

a. Genders of Nouns: Students learn that nouns are masculine or feminine; they learn the various forms of the article. They do not need to learn the genders of particular nouns, since they will merely accept *le* or *la* when they find it, and need never use it. Eventually, *le livre* and *la porte* impress themselves correctly, and if active learning is delayed, the student will not have trouble learning them correctly.

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b. Verb Endings of the Present Tense: The student examines the conjugation. He observes that the endings change, according to the subject; that various conjugations have various endings, and what those endings are. He reads many sentences in which the endings occur. He does not have the task of deciding which ending must be placed on which form; nor has he the opportunity of making mistakes and placing the wrong endings on verbs. When he reads a story, he takes the verb endings for granted, and concentrates on the meaning of the text.

c. The Agreement of Adjectives: The pupil learns that adjectives agree with their nouns and in what way the agreement is shown. Now when he encounters an adjective, whether its ending is *se,* or *x* or any other regular or irregular variant, he will accept it and think only of the meaning of the word. He does not have to memorize lists of adjectives that are irregular, nor to write, with a good chance of misspelling, the difficult ones.

d. The Partitive Article: The rule is illustrated and explained. But the student is not asked to "fill in *de* or *des.*" He does not spend time reviewing the rule, deciding which case is applicable, and applying it. He knows that all the forms are to be understood as meaning the same thing.

His understanding of the meaning must be definite, not haphazard; but he must not use the form until he can use it correctly.

Certain grammatical points need merely be mentioned, and not drilled at all:

The Position of the Adjective.

The Position of the Second Part of the Negative.

Orthographic Changes of Verbs.

Past Participles of Irregular Verbs.

The Difference between C'est and *Il est,* and many other distinctions where the meaning is clear in either case.

This, then, is the technique of a pure reading method; no writing or speaking of French by the child; much silent reading and much listening to French spoken by the teacher; and a concentration on getting the accurate meaning of the French.

The applicability of this to the classroom can best be shown by a detailed description of the experiment in which the method was used. The following procedure was used:

After the first three or four days, when the procedure included, as in all classes, conversation designed to attract the students to the novelty of the subject, and to give the ear its first introduction to the sound of the French language, the students were informed of the object of their work: to learn to read.

The methods used were at almost every point opposite from the ones previously used by the teacher. The grammar lesson was conducted with books open. The presentation was aural and visual simultaneously, the teacher reading, the class following in their books. In the very first lesson, covered in one day, there were taken up the gender and number of nouns,

and the definite and indefinite articles. Expressions such as "un livre, deux livres," were indicated by pointing. Translation into English was not excluded, and all explanations were made in English, but the presentation was always directly in French.

The second day of the lesson reviewed the work of the first and introduced copious drill sentences, giving the student the opportunity to recognize definite and indefinite articles and singular and plural nouns in literally hundreds of examples.

The third day, the reading lesson was begun. Before reading the chapter, the teacher explained in French the new words of the lesson, sometimes telling a little story in which the new word was used in such a way as to indicate clearly its meaning. The students repeated in English the sense of the teacher's explanation, to check comprehension. The students showed the liveliest interest in this part of the work.

When all the new words in a portion of the story were explained, the teacher read, at a fluent rate, a paragraph at a time. The students followed in their text-books, and gave in English the substance of each paragraph. The word "translate" was usually avoided, and the expression "tell it in English" was used instead. Remarkably enough, this invariably led to a more natural and equally close rendering of the passage. In later lessons, where the sentence structure became more complicated, translation of an occasional sentence was called for, or sometimes of a group of words, when the sense had been given correctly, but not indicating a complete understanding of the construction. Occasionally, but not frequently, it was necessary to refer to a grammatical term such as "subject" or "object" or "relative pronoun" in explaining a construction.

Homework assignments consisted of the reading of about five pages, with French questions on the text assigned to be answered in English, and on some days the working out of numerous drill exercises in reading.

After five or six weeks, two-minute silent reading periods were included in the classroom exercises, followed by discussion of what was read.

Every lesson for the first two months began with a pronunciation drill lasting about five minutes. The object of the drill was to train instantaneous recognition of the pronunciation of difficult letter combinations. Students were permitted to pronounce words only in immediate repetition of the teacher. In the second term only were the pupils permitted to pronounce words without the teacher's saying them first. And when they did, it was with a remarkable degree of correctness.

In connection with almost every reading lesson there was reference to similarity between French and English words, and to differences in form and in meaning of words similar but not identical.

During the first term, the pupils read twelve chapters of the reader "Si Nous Lisions"—about one hundred pages of French—besides the

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reading matter in twelve grammar lessons, totalling about fifteen pages of reading material, and workbook exercises totalling about forty pages of reading. In addition, the students read outside of class "Sans Famille" in a specially prepared edition of about one hundred and fifty pages. This outside work was checked by means of a test consisting of French questions based on the text, to be answered in English.

In the second term, the students covered eight more lessons in grammar, and read the last three chapters in "Si Nous Lisions," and the first five chapters in "Pierrille," a total of about one hundred pages of reading, besides the reading material in the grammar and workbook.

The following grammatical points were covered in the one year:

Affirmative, interrogative, negative, and imperative forms of verbs.

Partitives.

Direct and indirect object pronouns.

Regular and irregular agreement of adjectives.

Comparison of adjectives.

Reflexive verbs.

Past participles, the passe indéfini, and the agreement of past participles.

The imperfect tense.

The future tense.

Relative pronounse including *lequel* and *dont*.

Demonstrative pronouns.

More than fifty irregular verbs.

Another first-term class was conducted by the same teacher, to serve as a control group. In this class the usual methods were used, including written and oral exercises in French, and some reading, but not nearly as much as in the experiment class.

The groups were equated by means of the Otis Group Intelligence Test and while for administrative reasons it was not possible to eliminate the remainder of the students from the classes, only the students of the perfectly equated groups were considered in the statistical computations. The equated group consisted in each class of twenty students, with I. Q. ranging from 99 to 121, the median being 108 in the experiment group and 108.5 in the control. The students were not selected in any way, except that "repeaters" were of course eliminated, since it was necessary that the approach to the language be a fresh one.

At the end of the first term in June, 1933, both classes were given the American Council Beta French Achievement Test.

The test consists of three parts:

I. Vocabulary, in which the student selects the correct English translation from among five choices for each of one hundred words.

II. Comprehension, in which the student selects from among several choices in French, the correct ending for each of sixty sentences.

III. Grammar, in which the student must translate certain forms from English into French (sixty times).

As this standard test is designed to be given to students at any point in the high school course, the comparison between the groups rather than

the level attained is to be particularly noted for the present purpose.

Following are the results obtained:

Part I—Vocabulary

Experiment Group: Median Mark —27.5.

Control Group: Median Mark—18.

Part II—Comprehension

Experiment Group: Median—27.

Control Group: Median—21.5.

Part III—Grammar

Experiment Group: Median—5.

Control Group: Median—7.5.

Total of Three Parts

Experiment Group: Median—56.

Control Group: Median—51.5.

In January, 1934, at the close of the experiment, the same test was given again. The results follow:

Part I—Vocabulary

Experiment Group: Median—68.5.

Control Group: Median—48.

Part II—Comprehension

Experiment Group: Median—45.

Control Group: Median—39.

Part III—Grammar

Experiment Group: Median—8.

Control Group: Median—23.5.

Total of Three Parts

Experiment Group: Median—119.5.

Control Group: Median—113.

At the time of taking the tests in June, 1933, and in January, 1934, the students of the experiment class had their only opportunity to write French, in Part III, the grammar section of the test. Since they had never before written a single word in French, whatever they got right represented a transfer from the passive knowledge to the active without any direct effort made to effect such transfer. It is interesting to note that in the second test, the carryover is about one-third. That is, the child who has learned passively can use actively without any preparation or drill at all, about one-third as much as the child who has been drilled in active use of the same material. This is the most significant part of the conclusions to be drawn from the tests. It is also noteworthy that the experiment group was so far superior in vocabulary and comprehension as to overbalance the lower results in Part III, and make the marks for the entire test higher than those received by the control group.

The experiment was terminated at the beginning of January, and during the last two weeks of the term, the class received preparation to make the transition into regular third-term classes, since the experiment could be continued no longer. During these two weeks, the teacher undertook to cover the entire second term of active work, including four tenses of regular and irregular verbs, translation from English to French, and oral answering of questions in French. The students took up the active work remarkably easily. They had unconsciously learned verb endings and object pronouns. The usual second-term class covers normally sixteen lessons in the particular grammar used, the Holzworth and Price "Beginners' French." This class read overnight all the reading material in the sixteen lessons. The English-French translation was then taken at the rate of three lessons a day, and was done

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with much fewer mistakes than the usual second-term class, doing one or two lessons a week. The speaking in French (oral answering in French of French questions) was done with some hesitation, but with correct pronunciation and with a feeling for the sentence which compared favorably with the class which had received drill in this work during the entire year.

It is not recommended that so abrupt a transition be made from passive to active work, unless the exigencies of the situation demand it, as in the present case. However, the fact that it can be done indicates that a transfer can be made with little effort from the reading objective to any of the other objectives.

Even if the reading method did not eventually lead to an easier acquisition of active knowledge of French, there would be a strong defense of the reading objective. The complaint of students, that a few years after completing the study of a language they have forgotten it, would vanish if the reading ability were so well developed that the student was not afraid to undertake reading a foreign book, and would pick up a foreign book as readily as an English one for recreative reading.

Two years of the ordinary French course mean nothing to the student. He is left in mid-air, with incomplete grammaitcal knowledge, a faulty speaking knowledge, and a reading ability that involves thumbing a vocabulary and fitting together words in order to find the idea of a sentence, a most dismaying process.

The students of the experiment class were not afraid to undertake unfamiliar reading passages. They were tested on passages selected from the second term reader used in other classes, Rosenthal and Perry's "En Avant," and read at sight with perfect comprehension. They were given the school's French newspaper "La Petite Revue," and, at sight, were able to render it into fluent English.

Even if the students learned only to read, and the reading knowledge did not transfer to active knoweldge, there would still be justification for a reading course as the two-year language course. It is an objective which can be attained by all students. Teachers of French admit that the ability to speak French with any degree of fluency and correctness can be developed only by the best fifty per cent of the class, optimistically speaking. The ability to read varies with the ability of the child. In a time-controlled exercise the quickest student read three times as fast as the slowest; but all students were able to benefit by the work within their own limits, without the bright student's being delayed, or the slow one's being pushed beyond his rate of learning. The reading method thus seems to present the solution of the adjustment of the language course to individual differences.

It may not be feasible for various reasons to institute an all-reading course. Although the experiment was highly successful it presented certain drawbacks. Since the principle of passive learning is followed, the

teacher must do a great deal more work in the first term of this type of class than in the usual class. In a large class, such as one must expect in a public high school, it is not as easy to check reading as translation exercises, and to be sure all the pupils are working. Then, some teachers may feel that the waste of time involved in learning to use the language actively is compensated by the feeling of satisfaction of accomplishment gained by the student.

If active work is to be included in the course, the findings of the experiment indicate that the greatest success will be obtained by spacing the active work so that it is begun long after the expressions and constructions to be used have been learned passively: five weeks later, or better, ten. The amount of passive knowledge that can be learned thoroughly is tremendous: there should be no effort made to have the active phase keep pace with it, either in rate or in quantity.

The passive knowledge should increase as rapidly as possible; from five to ten pages a day will provide the student with sufficient but not too much material for reading. But he should not be expected to use words just because he can understand them in reading.

Passive knowledge is as definite as active knowledge. It requires, however, a definite new technique of teaching. It should not be held against passive knowledge that it is easier to acquire and therefore attainable by a much larger proportion of high school boys and girls. It may provide the means of reducing the large mortality in the early grades of French, by giving all the students something adaptable to their individual abilities, something within the grasp of almost all of them, and at the same time, something in itself worth while.

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THOUGHTS PROVOKED BY READING MR. ROSENTHAL'S ARTICLE ON THE READING SYLLABUS IN MODERN LANGUAGES*

THERE is a French saying: When two people say the same thing it is not the same thing. It is equally true that when two people read the same thing it is not the same thing, for the interpretation of any text by the reader depends upon his prejudices, his mindset, his experiences, his age, and many other factors that have nothing at all to do with knowledge of vocabulary, idiom, or grammar. It is only thus that we can explain the fact that an experienced reader in various languages like Mr. Rosenthal has misinterpreted important features

* "Thoughts Provoked by the Reading Syllabus in Modern Languages," HIGH POINTS, January, 1934.

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of the Modern Language Syllabus, has read into it things that are not there and then has proceeded to demolish the straw men he has set up with élan and gusto, not to say Schrecklichkeit.

Here are some of his straw men.

Straw Man No. 1. That in the Syllabus the "primary assumption has been that one learns a foreign language more or less in the same way that one learns one's native Language."

Nowhere does the Syllabus make this assumption. It merely states that the results of certain specific investigations devoted to the *reading* of the vernacular can be applied to the foreign languages, and "that a foreign language can be *read** in a manner directly comparable to the *reading** of the mother tongue."

It would be impossible within the short space of this article to discuss the validity of the investigations in reading referred to. Nor is this important in connection with Mr. Rosenthal's article, for as we discuss his other straw men we will see that he agrees in principle with most of the recommendations which are made in the Syllabus in the matter of reading. These recommendations are not startling or new. They embody what has long been recognized by good teachers as excellent methodology in the teaching of reading. The experimental investigations mentioned really did little more than confirm what good teachers already knew empirically.

Straw Man No. 2. Mr. Rosenthal states that "vocabulary must be acquired either by thumbing a lexicon or by constant drill," implying thereby that the Syllabus eschews both these methods.

In the matter of thumbing the lexicon the Syllabus does say that "the learner should not be compelled to thumb the dictionary *constantly**. To avoid this, word, phrase and sentence study should, therefore, precede the reading of the text." Surely Mr. Rosenthal does not believe that constant thumbing of the dictionary will give the pupil either the desire to read or desirable habits of reading! We need not fear that the pupil will not have enough of this thumbing of the lexicon. In the past the trouble has been that superabundant thumbing of this nature eventually caused the average pupil to thumb his nose not only at the dictionary, but at the foreign language itself at the earliest opportunity.

As for constant vocabulary drill, the Syllabus recommends this as never before. Let us examine the "Suggested Technic in Intensive Reading," page 14 of the Syllabus. We find here "advance explanation of difficulties," i.e. word, phrase and sentence study. We find "Questions and answers in the foreign language based on thought content of the text." This is the finest form of vocabulary drill, for by this method the necessary repetitions of the words of the text in various combinations are obtained.

* Italics are ours.

We note also that in the intensive reading lesson the Syllabus recommends "Word study, including synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, cognates, definitions and word families." Surely this is vocabulary drill of the most thoroughgoing nature!

Straw Man No. 3. The Syllabus has a tendency to place great emphasis upon cognates and word lists.

As for cognates, we have just seen that the Syllabus mentions their use as one among many forms of vocabulary drill. It gives them no special emphasis. In fact, on page 51, under the heading "Suggestions to Pupils on Methods of Study," the Syllabus gives the following specific warning: "But bear in mind that the foreign cognates sometimes have a somewhat different meaning." However, I am glad that Mr. Rosenthal did not read this part of the Syllabus, or at least not carefully, for otherwise he might not have related that incident of the "Ecole de Déportements" which is quite delectable, even if it does have a slightly apocryphal odor.

As for word lists, the Syllabus places no undue stress on these. It recommends that minimum active lists of words and idioms for the first four terms be selected from the basic textbooks and classroom usage, these lists being checked against standard lists. It should be noted that such lists would contain no words which the pupil had not already studied. There is nothing, therefore, in the recommendations of the Syllabus anent word lists that could lead to the funereal episode mentioned by Mr. Rosenthal, or explain Mr. Rosenthal's funereal viewpoint on the subject.

Straw Man No. 4. The Syllabus objects to translation from the foreign language into the vernacular.

Careful reading of the Syllabus will show that the Syllabus does not bar translation. It is, however, opposed to its undue or exclusive use and indicates many other ways to test knowledge of content.

In the matter of active grammar and recognitional or passive grammar, Mr. Rosenthal seems so hopelessly confused as to what the Syllabus says and as to the actual meaning of these terms, that we suspect that his manuscript must have been garbled in printing. He says: "It is felt that a minimum of grammar should be taught, *and that only recognitional grammar**, and that there should be an *active** and a *passive** grammar."

Since recognitional and passive grammar are one and the same thing (the Syllabus uses them synonymously), Mr. Rosenthal makes two mutually contradictory statements in the same sentence, first that the Syllabus favors *only* recognitional (passive) grammar, and secondly that it demands *both* active and passive grammar.

A casual reading of the Syllabus shows that the first statement is incorrect. As for the second, the Syllabus certainly does recommend a minimum of active grammar each term and a good deal of passive grammar. It states on page 26: "A pas-

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sive or recognitional knowledge of infrequent grammatical forms and facts is sufficient. A form which is passive at one stage may become active at another stage."

Mr. Rosenthal is puzzled as to the distinction between active and passive grammar. The distinction is simple. Take his own example: *Je viens de parler à l'homme que connaît votre père.* He strongly suspects that on a recognition basis the pupil would be likely to consider *que* the subject and *père* the object in the secondary clause. The pupil will not do so if he possesses the passive knowledge that *qui* is the subject form of the relative pronoun and *que* the object form. Passive knowledge of grammatical forms means that the pupil must recognize and understand them, but is not expected to be able to use them actively, i.e., in constructing sentences orally or in writing.

The German examples cited by Mr. Rosenthal help his case against recognitional knowledge no more than his French ones. Every German teacher knows that pupils can readily identify the indirect and direct objects in such sentences as *Ich habe den Männern den Knaben anvertraut.* It is a far cry from the ability to recognize and understand an indirect object in a German sentence to the active use of the same. This unfortunate fact has given German teachers many a heartache.

"Take the expression, *Es kommt darauf an,*" says Mr. Rosenthal. Well let us take it. This is an idiom of course, and how can it be learned except as all idioms are learned—by memory? How would all the active grammatical drill in the world on the verb *ankommen* in all tenses, active, passive, indicative, subjunctive, help us in understanding this idiom? To the pupil *ankommen* means "to arrive," as Mr. Rosenthal rightly states, but when he meets *Es kommt darauf an* for the first time, the pupil learns from his teacher or from the dictionary the meaning of this idiom. The theory of recognitional knowledge does not demand that the pupil be able to recognize the meaning of new idioms at sight, or to guess them with the help of cognates. Nor does it demand that the pupil be able to use the newly learned idioms actively in speech or writing.

If the pupil's passive knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and idiom were not always far ahead of his active knowledge, he would never be able to read with understanding a single sentence more difficult than he himself could construct.

Mr. Rosenthal is very optimistic in fearing that the methods suggested in the Syllabus will make the work too easy for our pupils. Would that the study of modern languages could be made easy enough so that all our pupils might make steady progress towards the goal, be it ever so modest, and gain that feeling of satisfaction and pleasure that comes from definite measurable achievement.

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THE READING OBJECTIVE AND PRESENT PRACTICE IN MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE "Syllabus of Minima in Modern Foreign Languages" is now almost three years old. The first sentence in that syllabus is: "The chief aim shall be to develop to the point of enjoyment the ability to read the foreign language." A little further on the same page (page 7) one reads: "Grammatical phenomena have importance only as contributing to comprehension." Then why do we go on stuffing our students with grammatical exercises *ad nauseam?* There are a few possible explanations for our paying lip-service to the reading objective while we continue teaching grammar mainly. These are:

1. *Inertia.* It is not easy perhaps to change one's teaching habits; particularly when one has covered the ground a number of times.

2. *Lack of suitable text-books.* Our text-books have been prepared for the purpose of studying grammar. Such readers as we have for beginners were for the most part written in the days when graduation, frequency word lists, idiom lists, and so on, were not yet in vogue. The books now being published by the University of Chicago Press are a beginning in the direction of supplying text-books suitable to the new aim.

3. *Examinations.* Teachers as a rule are guided in their teaching by the examinations their students have to take—Regents' examinations and examinations given by their departments. Assuming that a chairman of foreign languages wants to introduce the reading objective but finds that his teachers continue to stress grammar, it is the writer's opinion that there is perhaps nothing else that would provide a stronger motive for the teachers' adapting themselves to the new objective than an examination that would test reading rather than grammar.

There may be other reasons why we continue teaching foreign languages in the traditional way, but the ones just stated seem to the writer to be the most important ones. Now the question arises as to what can be done to bridge the difficult gap between theory and practice. The writer has suggested that the chairman can, by changing the type of examination given to the students, cause teachers to adjust themselves, in their teaching, to the new objective. But the assumption was made in that connection that the chairman is more progressive than his teachers. Sometimes, however, the reverse may be true. If the chairman is one of the grammar protagonists, then the teachers can do very little. Teachers are, after all, the sergeants in an army. If our commanding officers do not favor a certain change, there is comparatively little we can do. It is, therefore, important that the chairmen become the

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leaders in making the reading objective an actual fact.

A word about Regents' examinations. It is true that these tests still call for an active knowledge of grammar. But in all fairness it must be said that there has at least been an attempt to adjust them to the new trend. Recently, questions have been included that deal with "cultural" material. The questions that are of a purely grammatical nature hardly ever amount to more than 40% of the total—a high percentage, no doubt, but not high enough to discourage us from adopting the reading objective in actual practice. And then we must not forget that even those who are against the predominance of grammar do not believe in abolishing it entirely. There is a good deal in favor of the argument of those who believe in the teaching of grammar. The question is only one of emphasis. Shall we start right off with grammar when the student has no background for it, or shall we by means of reading, memorizing, singing, and the like give him first a basis for his grammatical manipulations? Grammar will probably play a rôle even in the first stages of language teaching. But does that mean that it has to be an active mastery of grammatical niceties, or is a recognitional knowledge sufficient for the comprehension of reading? The writer is inclined to accept the latter alternative. If all students were to take one language for four years, one might suggest that in the first two years only recognitional grammar be taught, leaving active grammar for the last two years. But since the majority of our students take only two years of a language and since a great many teachers keep the Regents' in mind, the division might be made between the first and second years, i.e., recognitional grammar and plenty of reading in the first year and active grammar in the second year, following the minima outlined in the new syllabus.

Now we come to the question of text-books. As was said before, text-books that are in greater harmony with the reading aim are now appearing on the market and are being tried out in many schools. We shall probably know in the near future the reaction of teachers and students to these new texts. Some teachers, however, may be wary of the untried, while others may not be able to obtain the money, in these days of depression, with which to buy new books. To these the writer would suggest that they adapt the text-books they have been using to the new objective —temporarily at least. There is no doubt but that the type of text-book one uses has an important influence on the lesson. And yet, *if one has the will to do it*, he can use his text-book so that it will serve his purpose.

SAMUEL MISCHEL.

James Monroe High School.

HIGH POINTS

Administration of Visual Instruction at the Bryant High School

THE COMMITTEE ON VISUAL INSTRUCTION

There is little doubt that the progressive teacher is using visual methods to an increasing extent, not only in the presentation of subject matter, but also for supplementary study and review. The average teacher, however, is deterred from fuller use of films, film slides, and other visual material because of incomplete facilities. One must get the films from one source, the machine from another; teachers must be troubled to exchange rooms, be able to splice films in case a repair is needed, and be called upon to do many other tasks which may arise.

Let us take an actual case. Mr. X's class in Applied Chemistry is studying cement. Mr. X knows that the Y. M. C. A. will lend him a film on the topic if he will call for and return it. Mr. X calls up the Y. M. C. A. and, if he is fortunate, reserves the film for the next day. He must send a messenger for it, borrow a machine from someone who has one, provided the owner is not using it, and, finally, return the film. Mr. X is also subject to a host of other inconveniences. Maybe the machine needs oiling, or Mr. X does not know how to operate the machine. Perhaps the film is not what Mr. X thought it was. Maybe there is a better film. We could go on and on, but with each step Mr. X's enthusiasm declines.

Bryant High School believes it has made it easy, even pleasant, for any teacher to use Visual Instruction to a great extent. This was accomplished by the appointment, by the Principal, of a Visual Instruction Committee. This committee feels it has established an efficient system and presents it for consideration to other schools which are faced with the problem of developing an effective administration of Visual Instruction.

The work of the committee consists of furnishing equipment, establishing a film schedule, and furnishing service and information not only to teachers, but also to clubs and to those in charge of assembly programs.

EQUIPMENT

The question presents itself, "What equipment is necessary for an effective Visual Program?" In these days of reduced budgets, schools are likely to find themselves at a disadvantage. While it is possible, effectively, to use Visual Instruction with less equipment than is listed below, nevertheless, it is advisable to avoid inconvenience by starting with this equipment. Of course, it would be desirable to add to it as time goes on. At Bryant we use the following:

1. One 16 mm. silent projector.

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2. One 16 mm. sound-on-disc projector.
3. One 35 mm. silent projector (in auditorium).
4. One Memoscope (film slide projector).
5. One Delineascope (lantern slide projector).
6. One Promi (micro-projector).
7. Two Trans-Lux opaque projectors (with screens).
8. One opaque projector (with film slide adapter).
9. Three portable screens.

At least two 16 mm. projectors are necessary. With only one, there is a probability of conflicting requisitions if the service is to be used as often as it should.

As to subject matter, much depends on the school treasury. At Bryant, we possess our own films on biological, physical, chemical, industrial, and civic topics. In addition, there are many film slides, covering not only the above subjects, but also matter pertaining to the study of art, physical education, auto shop, art weaving, and so on. Furthermore, the language department possesses many lantern slides. The committee cares for and services all equipment, films, and film slides.

The maximum use of rooms equipped for projection is obtained by the coöperation of the program committee. The room schedule is so arranged that if a change of room is necessary, it may generally be done within the department concerned.

The committee does not present this as complete equipment. There are many films, film slides, and lantern slides that it believes a well equipped school should own. Perhaps the establishment of other systems similar to the Penhollow Library of Biological films will provide an inexpensive method of obtaining desired films.

Arranging the Schedule

It is the duty of the Visual Instruction Committee to coördinate the schedule of the various departments. We begin to plan for the next term a month or so in advance. The chairman using Visual Instruction is supplied with a blank form covering: week, day, title of film, number of film, source. There is one line for each day of the week. The important dates, such as examination days, are typed on the blanks. The teacher, knowing these dates, is able to plan his work more efficiently.

The chairman is also furnished a specially prepared folder containing catalogues of various film distributing agencies. He, in turn, asks the teachers to fill in their needs on the above form. The committee together gathers the schedules from the chairmen and lists the films according to sources. Thus, for the entire school, only one requisition need be made to any of the distributing agencies. In some cases, notably the Museum of Natural History, films are called for and delivered free of charge. In other instances, films must be called for and delivered by the user. The committee undertakes to perform this duty. If changes must be made in the schedule, the teacher is notified. It is well to note that the committee is able to furnish information as to the value of most films since these films have been previously seen in the school.

Distribution of Films and Their Projection

Most of the equipment is under the direction of the committee, even though some of it may be stored with a department. For example, one of the 16 mm. projectors is held by the Science Department, because it is so often used there. However, when it is needed elsewhere, as is sometimes the case, it is withdrawn and then re-deposited. In all cases, a requisition for equipment must be made out a week in advance. This requisition lists the equipment desired, date (or dates), and room to be used. If room changes must be made for a period or so, the committee arranges for them several days in advance. The beginning of the period scheduled finds the material there, thanks to student assistants. As for the projection itself, it has been found that the handling of a motion picture machine is best done by the teacher, although a pupil should assist. The threading and operation of a 16 mm. machine, a film slide projector, or any of our equipment—except, of course, the 35 mm. projector for which a license is necessary—are easily learned. It is well at the beginning of the term for the teacher to appoint one assistant for each element involved — shades, screens, and lights.

A good follow-up procedure has been adopted by our science department under the direction of the chairman. After each visual lesson, the teacher is asked to fill out a report stating the title of film (or film slide) the date shown, the number of boys and girls viewing the film or film slide, the number of classes, and any comments the teacher may care to make. Some of the comments are exceedingly helpful to new teachers as well as those in the department. Some comments are favorable: "Good review of photosyntheses"; "Excellent as an introduction to Evolution"; "Subject matter thoroughly covered." Others are not so favorable: "Too elementary for high school Physics"; "It is a waste of time to show this film"; "Would be more interesting if it included some animated diagrams." These records are available to the teachers of the department, and hence few, if any, mistakes are made in choosing films.

The committee looks forward to the day when:

1. Each school will have a complete library of films.
2. Each department will have a projector.
3. Each room will be equipped with a projector.
4. Each teacher will realize the power of a picture.

M. J. Starfeld.
Chairman of Committee on Visual Instruction.
M. J. O'Brien.
In Charge of Projection.
Bryant High School.

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Visual Instruction in the History Department

Twenty years ago an article on visual instruction would have started off with facts and figures to prove the great advantages of visual instruction — that students remember longer, that their interest is aroused to a greater extent, and so on. Today such arguments are no longer necessary. Their truth is generally known and visual instruction is recognized as one of the more important teaching methods. The Board of Education has spent thousands of dollars on visualization material and, as time goes on, teachers are using this equipment more and more. The History Department of the Abraham Lincoln High School is attempting to effect a plan for visual instruction. In this article I describe that plan and the work we are doing with it, in the hope that it may prove of interest to other departments.

Most teachers who read this article are probably familiar with the Trans-Lux Opaque Projector. For the benefit of those who are not, I shall briefly describe how it works. The Trans-Lux machine has an arrangement of two powerful bulbs which shine upon any object placed in it and which project the reflected image of that object upon a "daylight" or Trans-Lux screen. In other words, this wonderful machine projects enlarged, exact reproductions of anything placed in the machine—photographs, drawings, prints, opaque objects such as coins, and without loss of coloring.

The educational possibilities of such a machine become at once apparent. In a lesson on the results of the World War, there flash out before the students photographs of wounded soldiers, the Cathedral of Rheims before and after the shelling of Rheims, the interior of a munitions factory, naked, starving children—all taken from various war books — Colliers' "First War Book"; *New York Times'* "World-Wide Photos"; "The Horror Of It," and the like. Instead of talking at length about the horror of war, the terrific human destruction it involves, or its possible destruction of civilization, a photograph is shown of a young German with nose, mouth, and jaw shot away; title—"Living Death."

The next class may be one in Ancient History. It has just finished a study of the Egyptian civilization. It sees photographs of the Pyramids, "The Pyramids from the desert," "The interior of the Pyramid Tombs," "Looking down at the Pyramids from the air," "The view from the top stone," "A close-up of one of the Pyramid blocks." After having read and talked, the students see.

Other things which I have shown are drawings, maps, and paintings made by students to illustrate our study, photographs of historical interest taken by students, diagrams made by myself to illustrate particular points, and poems from books not in our school library.

The chief problem which this instructional device presents to the teacher is the securing of adequate

illustrative material. As man in charge of visual instruction for the history department, it is my job to get this illustrative material. I send for slide collections from the American Museum of Natural History and notify the teachers of their arrival. The great advantage of the Trans-Lux machine, however, is that it makes the teacher independent of slide collections and relieves him of all the trouble of sending to museums for material, returning material, and so forth. I am assembling at present a permanent collection of photographs for every topic taught in our history courses. Each photograph is mounted on stiff card board, size 12″x8½″, this size being most convneient for the machine. Each collection is placed in a separate envelope and kept in the department office within easy reach of the staff.

I am working on photographic collections for the following topics:

Ancient History: 1. Pre-history. 2. Oriental civilizations. 3. Grecian civilization. 4. Roman civilization. 5. The Middle Ages. 6. The Renaissance. 7. The Growth of National States. 8. The Reformation and the Religious Wars.

Modern European History: 1. Europe in 1750. 2. The French Revolution and Napoleon. 3. The Industrial Revolution. 4. The Labor Movement. 5. The Agricultural Revolution. 6. The Growth of Science. 7. Nationalism. 8. Democracy. 9. Imperialism. 10. The World War. 11. Plans to Preserve Peace. 12. Post-war Europe.

American History: 1. The Critical Period and the New Republic. 2. The War of 1812. 3. The Western Movement and Pre-Civil War Expansion. 4. The Early Industrial Revolution. 5. Jacksonian Democracy. 5. The Quarrel Over Slavery and the Civil War. 6. The Period of Reorganization (1865-1898). 7. The War with Spain and American Imperialism. 8. America in the World War. 9. Present-day Problems.

When my work is completed, there will be a collection of photographs, copies of paintings, and drawings to illustrate each of the above topics. Some of my collections are nearly completed. (I say "nearly completed" because every collection, no matter how full, can always be improved by the addition of more striking photographs.) My Greek collection has in it some forty photographs and drawings, some of which are the following:

Photographs: "View from the Acropolis. The photographer stood beside the South wall of the Propylaea." "New home for Diana—the statue that once graced the old Madison Square Garden in its new place, the Philadelphia Art Museum." "Greek table-ware of Painted Terracotta." "A rural panorama in Macedonia." "The Parthenon, with its North Colonnade restored after 243 years." "Short cut from the Adriatic to the Aegean: The Corinth Canal." "A revival of the Pythian Games in their home Stadium—Greek soldiers who appeared in a series of athletic

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contests are here engaged in a tug-of-war."

Drawings: "Greek dancing girl." "Greek Athlete." "The Parthenon." "Greek Goddess Artemis."

Student lecturers usually present the collections to the class. These lecturers take the pictures to the library and to their homes so that they may study them carefully and prepare worth-while talks.

As I said before, my work of gathering photographs and other types of illustrative material has not yet been completed. Many of the topic envelopes are quite empty. However, they are being filled. In order to supply each collection with thirty photographs, it is necessary to mount eight hundred and seventy photographs. This means the examination of some thousands of photographs. I have enlisted the aid of my students in the gathering of material. They hand in envelopes filled with pictures and clippings culled from various sources. In addition to the practical aid which they give me, the students begin to realize that the history which they are studying is still alive—that newspaper men write about it, photographers photograph it, and people outside of the classroom talk and think about it. A student is drawing up plans for the construction of a rack to serve as a home for the collections. This rack will be placed in our department office within easy sight and reach.

The Abraham Lincoln High School has a visual instruction squad which has the duty of bringing the machine into the classroom, setting it up and operating it. When all of the history collections are full, it will then be possible for a teacher in our department, when he finishes any topic, to call upon the services of the visual instruction squad, to secure the appropriate collection and to illustrate fully the work that he has been discussing with the class.

Visual instruction needs no advocates or enthusiastic arguments. Modern teachers remember that Chinese proverb, "A picture is worth a thousand words." At the proper time they place themselves in the background and let the pictures talk. That these pictures talk vividly and interestingly there is no doubt.

ISADOR RUBIN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Retarding Locomotion of Paramecia for Microscopic Study

Teachers of biology usually experience many difficulties in introducing the laboratory study of paramecia to their advanced biology pupils. One of the greatest difficulties is due to the fact that paramecia when seen under the microscope "won't stand still," as the pupils say, but they dart back and forth across the field of vision, with such speed that satisfactory observation and study cannot be made. This is particularly true in attempting to use the high power of the microscope.

Cotton threads, shredded lens paper, or blotting paper, when used in preparing a slide, are somewhat useful in holding the organisms in

place or at least retarding their movement. The strenuous efforts of the paramecia to escape from the confining threads, by squeezing through small apertures or beneath the fibres, bring about a distorted condition making it difficult for the pupil to get a clear conception of the shape and structure of the animal.

I have been interested for some time in trying to find a substance that will anchor the paramecia on a slide, without killing or making them inactive. The substance would have to be one which is easily prepared and which requires but little skill to use, so that pupils could make their own slides. After trying many different substances, all with rather poor success, I have found one which has proved eminently satisfactory. This is prepared from Gum Tragacanth, a plant product, often used by pharmacists in making skin lotions. It can be purchased at nearly all drugstores and costs very little. For convenience, I call it "Trag."

Prepare "Trag" as follows: Put 2 grams of Gum Tragacanth in 200 c.c. of water and let it soak for several hours. Then heat slowly to boiling temperature, stirring frequently to break up the lumps. Strain through cheese cloth or a fine wire-strainer to remove undissolved parts. Heat again. When cold, it should be about the consistence of soft jelly, thin enough to be taken up with a medicine dropper. If too thick, add a little water and boil. If too thin, heat for a few minutes.

To use "Trag," spread a drop on a slide and place a *small* drop of paramecia culture on it. Gently press down the cover glass. The slide is now ready for use.

We have used "Trag" in our advanced biology classes during the past term. In some classes the slides were prepared in advance and given out when pupils came to the laboratory. Pupils of other classes prepared their own slides. They were able to see clearly the vibrating cilia, the circulation of cytoplasm and food balls, oral groove, gullet, and contractile vacuole. The addition of a small amount of powdered carmine to the paramecium culture a few minutes before using, will make the food balls more prominent. By placing a ring of vaseline around the edge of the cover glass, the preparation may be kept in good condition for several hours. We have found "Trag" satisfactory for our work. If you are interested, try it. I believe you will find it satisfactory.

HENRY G. WOLCOTT.
Manual Training High School.

Preparing for the Future

Recitations should be places where children meet for the discussion of problems which are vital to them. How can we help our students to the realization of the importance of the problems which they are asked to face in the study of European history in the new syllabus? At times the students' reactions to the subject matter in hand forcibly brings to their minds the genuineness of the problem as one which they will have to face as in-

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telligent voters and as members of a world public opinion on questions of international intent. At other times the students find it difficult to connect the historical movement with present questions. In these latter instances the student often finds himself groping to interpret the facts and even to master facts as a basis for further discussion and reasoning. An added difficulty sometimes presents itself when a student attempts to marshal all related facts to prove a statement.

In general, an adjustment is necessary on the part of the pupils first entering modern European history. They have not studied history before in high school, they have not studied European history before at all, and they are thrown into a subject which needs definite organized methods of studying to gain any facts, and ability to express those facts clearly and in relation with other facts. The brighter students usually are able to make the reaction fairly quickly, thereby gaining knowledge of their facts and the ability to use these as the basis of further knowledge and rationalization. The slower students in some cases are hindered by their inability to read intelligently. They disregard the meanings of words, are unable to find the main thought, are unable to summarize the material assigned. This ability to analyze facts correctly and place in proper historical perspective is perhaps the hardest reaction the students are called upon to make in history. The complexity of the subject adds to the difficulty.

Take the subject of nationalism which exemplifies most of the objectives for which we strive in history. In a discussion on the results of the World War and their effect on nationalism, a student pointed out that the peace treaties, instead of settling nationalistic problems had, in attempting a solution of these, created new problems of nationalism in their place. This showed the impermanence of treaty terms and helped to show that our world is constantly changing, which fact demands adjustment on our part so that the largest number of people may live happily and enrich life for others. The fact that the German people are still clamoring for treaty revision at the present time further exemplified this point and showed the possible danger which might ensue if revision were pushed too far, namely, war. This desire for treaty revision enabled the class to realize the force of nationalism as it must have risen in Prussia and Spain against the foreign invader, Napoleon. In this last case, a contemporary fact helped to make an historical one concrete, thereby contributing to a better understanding of the emotion of nationalism and its place in history.

Hitlerism has served to exemplify the possible extremes to which nationalism might go and the attendant results with the responsibility of world opinion on the shoulders of the rising generation. The education of the German youth in Hitler's principles and the censorship of the press in Germany aided in forcing a class to realize why their own study of history should be as unbiased as possible in order to judge things as truthfully as possible with tolerance for opposing views, and why education might be a great force in execution of certain ideas. The possible results of education in a system was first offered by a student who suddenly realized its full intent. Most of the students immediately saw the need for tolerance, the need for suspending judgment until all possible related facts have been weighed, the need for enlightened public opinion.

The reaction of one class in particular to Germanization of the Alsatians might give some inkling as to how far tolerance would figure as one of the students' own ideals. Practically the entire class was agreed that Germanization or any other forcing of nationality on another group would definitely injure their own ideals of tolerance and show the bad effects of nationalism, besides proving an impermanent solution for unified feeling. This developed the points that each was entitled to live as he pleased (within the law), contributing to the general heritage of the world in the way he was best fit; that minorities do contribute something to progress and as such ought to be protected as well as a majority; that progress is still possible with the coöperation of all members of a community.

As the pupils realize the significance of these present-day problems and their possible relation to their own future welfare, interest and a desire for the truth is stimulated. At such times much material will be forthcoming, which shows that our pupils read the newspapers and are extremely pleased to be able to use information which in many cases was read originally through interest. Especially on this point will facts in regard to new methods of warfare, new war uses of chemistry, and tonnage of navies be brought out in detail. Working from this basis it is possible to instill the fact that past history has led to the present situation and to send the pupils home with a renewed interest in the subject and a firm desire to do their own parts as social members of a community in forming public opinion and acting in the best interests for their nation and the progress of mankind.

GERTRUDE M. N. REYNOLDS.
James Madison High School.

A Point System of Awards in Athletics for Girls

"Scores of games . . . are of little significance as measures of human victory over the forces of inanimate nature or even over human nature."

And yet the policy of distribution of athletic awards for proficiency in extra-curricular activities by the Girls Health Education Departments in the high schools of New York City has always been based on membership on winning teams.

A committee of faculty and students at James Monroe High School was appointed to study the problem of awards. The first question we faced was: "Why awards?" Educators contend that our girls engage in club work because of "an inherent

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urge to activity," and that they are "playing the game for the game's sake." Then why is any compensation necessary?

Certain types of awards have long been considered an educational stimulus to further achievement. The age of gold medals and silver loving cups, with its attendant ills of professionalism, "spectatoritis," and the like, is over. Through the efforts of the Girls Branch of the Public School Athletic League and the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, we are gradually returning to the ideals of the Golden Age of Athletics, to the laurel wreaths of the Greeks. We contend that simple intrinsic awards, such as felt insignia, and block numerals, offer great incentives to the youngsters. Since they represent no material gain, emphasis is shifted to indulgence in activity for the enjoyment and fun to be derived therefrom.

Having thus convinced ourselves of the need for awards, we then turned to a consideration of the existing system, which we shared in common with all other girls' high schools, as sanctioned by the Public School Athletic League.

Competition in girls' athletic clubs is conducted on an intramural basis, in order that the mass, rather than a highly-specialized few, may receive athletic instruction, and gain experience in activity. Teams are selected in the major sports, which include Basket Ball, Hockey, Tennis, Swimming and Baseball, and round-robin tournaments are conducted. The members of the winning team of the contest receive minor awards, subject to school regulations in character, health and scholarship. Four such minor awards entitle the girl to a major letter.

The faults of this system are obvious. Team sports involve coöperation and coördinated playing from all members of the team. Many fine athletes are linked to inferior team-mates all through their high school careers, and are thus prevented from receiving any awards. This tends to discourage them from further activity.

Then, too, "an inopportune bounce of a ball, a whistle blown at a crucial moment, a stumble in a depression of the ground, a blind throw at a basket, and literally thousands of other events beyond the power of man to control or foresee may determine that instead of A, B shall receive the extra points. In such closely fought battles, it is obvious that importance will not be attached to the playing of the game, but rather to the score. This is, of course, contrary to the purpose of awards.

Another problem we considered was that of the girl who is not so skilled as her fellow team-mates, but who possesses an equally keen interest and enthusiasm in sports, and shows marked improvement in technique. Should such a girl be entitled to some form of recognition?

At the same time, we determined to make our major letter girl signify a certain ideal type of student—one who is organically sound, one who is sufficiently skilled in different types

of athletic activity, and one who holds to fine attitudes and standards.

We turned to an investigation of the different systems of awards in secondary schools throughout the country, and noticed immediately the trend toward the adoption of an educational experiment called the point system of awards. We have adapted it to fit the activities and conditions existing in a large city high school with several annexes.

Every girl is given an opportunity for tournament play and for earning points, since every member of a sports club is placed on a team. The members of each term or annex represented are divided into three classifications: advanced, intermediate, and novice; and teams are formed from within the classification. Four different round-robins are then conducted simultaneously, all players competing on their own level of ability: the first or best teams of the various terms play one another, the second-best or intermediate players form the second tournament, the novice or beginners from each term compete, and finally, an inter-annex round-robin is conducted.

Members of every first team or annex team receive 100 points, regardless of the number of games won or lost. Members of all second teams receive 60 points. All other teams receive 40 points. In the minor activities, as Dance Club and Elementary Tennis club, a club test has been devised. The eight highest ranking members receive 60 points; all other members receive 40 points. We have attempted to tie up the Leaders Club and Girls Athletic Association with the rest of the extra-curricular program. All members of the Leaders Club who have given three terms of exceptional service, as vouched for by the teachers they have assisted, receive 100 points, while presiding officers of the G. A. A. are eligible for 60 points if they have performed exceptional service during their terms of office.

Three hundred points entitle one to a minor award, as numerals; six hundred points to a major letter. All awards are subject to the following regulations:

1. Attendance at three-fourths of all practices and games.
2. Approval of the Principal, the Dean, the Chairman and the Faculty of the Health Education Department for Girls.
3. A passing grade must be obtained in three major subjects, in Health Education, and in Hygiene.
4. Only two hundred points are to be granted to a student in one term.

The advantages to be derived from this system are that mass instruction is afforded to all, that the maximum of activity is allowed, that players are competing on their own level of proficiency, and that above all, the strain of winning is removed, so that the students may concentrate on form and technique.

The point system we have devised is still in the experimental stage and is subject to continual revision. How-

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ever it is practicable for application in its present stage of development to any large high school in the city.

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GERTRUDE COHEN.
James Monroe High School.

Health Examination a Branch of the Health Service at Lincoln

The slogan of the medical and its allied professions, "Prevention rather than cure," is not at all of recent origin. It goes back many centuries to the truth expressed by Ovid—"Satius est initus mederi quam fine," it is better to cure at the commencement than at the end. But the utterances of philosophers are not understood by contemporaries and it has taken these many years for those words to sink in.

It used to be the province of the doctor to take care of the sick and leave the well alone. That time has passed, however. This is a day of preventive medicine when the medical man can do as much towards keeping the well from becoming sick, as making the sick well. After much experimental work, the present "Health Examination" evolved, the most logical method of "keeping the well from becoming sick."

Progressive health educators, some years back, admitted this health examination into their field as a step in the right direction. But their good wishes could not overcome their lack of experience with the records made. As a result, thousands of health examination reports were put into files where they remained unlooked at, to grow dusty and moldy, their real purpose untouched.

More recently, physical educators, realizing the importance of the information contained in these records, breathed a spark of life into the heretofore inanimate cards. Today the health examination is indispensable in schools where health education has assumed its proper standing.

What are the objectives of the health examination at Lincoln?

1. To develop in the student the habit of taking periodic health and dental examinations.
2. To note deviations from the normal in the individual.
3. To enable the physical education department to adjust the activity program to the individual.
4. To aid in making necessary adjustments in eyes, ears, heart, etc., that will help the pupils in their studies.
5. To prevent the spread of communicable disease.

For the convenience of the student, the health and dental examinations are given on school premises. An oral hygienist is present every day, who charts the teeth and gives a prophylaxis, a thorough dental examination, and whatever advice is necessary, for a very nominal sum. She sends all dental notes to the Health Education Department for filing with the pupil's health record. A physician gives a physical examination in the health clinic to the students who desire it, and all data is recorded on a standardized card. There is a space on these cards for recommendations by the doctor in regard to any activity program that may be needed. A special note, too, is sent to the chairman of the Health Education Department when immediate changes are called for in a boy's program.

Equal in importance to the examination is the follow-up, a phase of the work which the earlier educators neglected. At Lincoln a very complete method of follow-up is used.

1. HEALTH CARD

The regular examination card is kept in a large filing cabinet in its proper prefect room order.

2. HEALTH EXAMINATION PREFECT BOOK.

The health, dental, and eye reports of every boy in school are kept in this book so that the instructor can ascertain, at a glance, the record of any person. For example:

Prefect Room 125E—Teacher: Mr. Fish.

	Health Exam	Dental	Eyes
Jones, John	O.K.	O.K.	O.K.

O. K. signifies that the record is clear.

3. REPORT TO PREFECT.

A duplicate copy is sent to each prefect teacher, so that he may urge the delinquent students to coöperate.

4. DEAN.

Students who fail to complete their health examination or dental records are sent to the dean, who makes it a disciplinary matter. Seniors *may not graduate* if the health requirements are not met.

5. HOME.

After the examination is given, a card is sent home to the parents in order to inform them of the physical defects noted in their child. This card is signed and brought back to the Health Education Office.

6. INDIVIDUAL CONSULTATION.

The chairman of the Health Education Department has all boys who have defects report to him for an individual consultation. These students are advised and their activity programs arranged in accordance with the findings of the examination.

7. HYGIENE DEPARTMENT.

A health and dental record of every boy, beginning with the fifth term, is sent to the Hygiene Department, so that the delinquents may be followed up there, and boys with defects further advised to attend to their needs without any loss of time.

8. HEALTH EDUCATION CLASS.

At regular intervals, short talks are given in the Health Education classes on the purpose, importance, and value of the examination. Every teacher is responsible for following up his pupils. In his marking book spaces are provided for recording the health examination and dental records.

	Room	Health	Dental	Swimming	Exams
Jones, J.	125	OK	OK		

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The records are taken from the health-exam-prefect-book. The student is usually reminded of his record, during his activity period on the gym floor. At the end of the first marking period, boys who fail to have a health examination on file receive a mark of 60%; those who fail to have a dental note on file receive 61%; those who fail to have both notes on file receive 59%. This is a simple and effective system of notation, the meaning of which is clear to students and teachers alike.

Activity Program Adjustment

All students with structural defects, all post-operatives, all who are under-nourished or suffering from obesity, all cardiac cases, and others are taken from the regular health education classes and given special activity programs—modified as advised by the doctor in our special individual health training room, after consultation with the Health Education chairman.

Tab System

As an aid to statistical work, a tab system is used to differentiate the cards. On opening the file, one can immediately recognize which cards denote normal health, cardiacs, hernias, and so on, by the vari-colored tabs on them. This method is a great time saver and is invaluable in gathering necessary information. Color of tabs:

Blue—Eyes
Green—Posture
Red—Hernia
Black—Cardiac
Yellow—Underweight
Orange—Over-weight

Subject Teacher Cooperation

There is, too, in our program, provision for classroom teacher cooperation. At the beginning of each term, there is placed in the lower right hand corner of the pupil's program card a letter significant of some defect (if there is any). The teachers are given the code so that they may translate this marking.

Health Accomodation Code

E—Eyes
H—Hearing
Hrt—Heart
Her—Hernia
C—Convalescent
P.O.—Post-Operative
Gl—Glands
N—Nutrition
D—Dental

This is valuable, for it enables the instructor to make seating adjustments for pupils who have poor vision or who are hard of hearing; to distribute two sets of books to cardiac and hernia cases, so that one set may be in school and the other at home; to make time allowance during period changes for cardiacs. Such pupils may not be sent on errands.

Every student in school is examined at least twice between the time of his entrance and his graduation. Of this vast group, about 225 are taking physical work in individual groups. Besides these, programs recommended by family physicians have been given to the following:

42 cardiac cases
22 hernia cases
8 post-operative cases
4 chronic appendicitis cases
17 cases with physical defects
1 glandular case
2 ear trouble cases
1 kidney case

The health examination and follow-up work bulk largely in the health education program of the school, and are attaining their proper position of importance in the estimation of both students and teachers.

Julian Jacobs.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Student-Analysis of a Chemistry Course

Progressive teachers are continually trying to improve the quality of their work. The supervisor, by means of constructive criticism and advice, attempts to lead the teacher to better ways of teaching. Whether it is the teacher or the supervisor who is dissecting the teaching procedure, the point of view is still that of the one who is giving the instruction. It was thought desirable to obtain the views of the pupils in as simple and objective a manner as possible. The opportunity to do this presented itself during the past two terms.

The writer has been giving a course in Advanced General Chemistry to those students who intend specializing in chemistry. The topics studied are of a theoretical nature and include the following: Gas Laws; Liquids; Atomic and Molecular Weights; Structure of Matter; Solutions; Ionization; Oxidation-Reduction; Electrochemistry; Chemical Equilibrium; Colloids; Organic Chemistry. The opinions of the pupils were thought worth consideration since these students are more mature and are interested primarily in the chemistry field. The analysis ought to show, to some extent, whether the particular difficulty is caused by teaching or pupil weakness.

At the beginning of the term, the students were asked to enter the following on the back page of their Chemistry notebooks:

In my opinion, the topic studied was (of value) (of no value) to me because

\+ —
(1) it (was) (was not) interesting.
\+ —
(2) it (was) (was not) new.
\+ —
(3) I (paid) (did not pay) attention.
\+ —
(4) I (studied) (did not study).
\+ —
(5) It was (easy) (difficult) to understand.
\+ —
(6) It was (clearly) (not clearly) presented by the teacher.
\+ —
(7) There (was) (was not) sufficient experimental or demonstration material available.

Whenever the study of a topic was completed, small sheets were distributed to the class. The pupils were asked to write the numbers 1 to 7 with the plus or minus after each

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figure, thus rendering their opinion in a simple and objective manner. The students were not required to write their names, to insure the giving of an honest opinion. The results were tabulated in order that they might be studied and compared from term to term. This analysis was found to be of decided value as an aid in the improvement of the teaching of this subject. The pupils' views were found to be consistent generally with those held by the writer.

SAUL S. HAUBEN.
Brooklyn Technical High School.

A Project in the Study of the Intersection of Conic Sections

The problem originally arose as a direct outgrowth of classroom activity. The students were sufficiently stimulated by the implications of the problem to volunteer to work on these implications in a project group conducted after school and at home. During the course of the discussion of the solutions of sets of equations, principally linear and linear equations, linear and quadratic equations, and quadratic and quadratic equations, in two unknowns, I showed them, or rather drew for them, possible graphic pictures of quadratic equations which would lead to different types of graphic solutions. Of course, they believed that what had been said was true, but actually time was never taken, because I didn't have it, to show them that these situations actually would arise from very definite equations.

The students also seemed to infer that in order to determine the number of sets of solutions that any set of equations would give rise to, one would have to take the degree of the first equation and the degree of the second equation, multiply the two, and the result would represent the number of possible solutions. They were also given a very elementary idea as to the graphic representation of equations which have imaginary roots, and the interpretation of points of tangency. They were made to realize that this was all merely on my representations, and even though their conclusions seemed to be borne out by the few examples they had performed, that actually was no proof of their theorem, and further study would be necessary.

I asked how many would be willing to join a project group to study further this problem and its implications. Upon receiving an encouraging response, I decided to work on the problem and work up the project with them.

At the first meeting of the group we defined our problem and broke it up into its various units. From the work in class they knew that the five types of conic sections were: The straight line, the circle, the parabola, the ellipse, and the hyperbola. It was decided to break our complete job up into an individual study of each type of conic section mentioned. How could a straight line intersect with a straight line? How could a straight line intersect with a circle? How could a straight line intersect with a parabola? How could a straight line intersect with a hyperbola? How could a straight line intersect with an ellipse? Having studied each one of these units, we would have a complete study of the straight line and the possible ways it could meet any one of the five conic sections. The same thing was done for the circle, the parabola, the ellipse, and the hyperbola. This, therefore, broke up the problem into twenty-five simpler units.

The group was asked to draw the various ways in which these intersections could take place and thereupon I gave them the necessary equations for the particular sets mentioned. It is rather unfortunate that time did not permit them to study enough elementary analytics for them to derive the necessary equations themselves; however, I made the best of the situation by giving them the necessary equations when they had defined the probable situation, and supplemented their suggestions.

Each student was assigned to the study of one particular unit of work. The pupils went home, studied the various sets of equations assigned, worked them out, both by tables and graphs, and brought the results to the next meeting. At the next meeting they realized from the results obtained that it was quite possible for them actually to get the situations which had been pictured for them. We then directed our attention to a study of obtaining the roots of these equations directly from the graphs.

We studied in greater detail the meaning of tangency, and the failure of the curves to intersect. They learned with certainty and definiteness that a point of tangency indicated two pairs of equal roots at the point of tangency. They learned that the failure of curves to intersect meant the presence of imaginary roots which had to appear in pairs. With these facts in hand, they examined each plate submitted by each pupil and discovered that in most cases the number of roots obtained in solving a set of equations could be determined by multiplying the degrees of the two equations. However, they soon hit a snag. One of the pupils brought in a graphic plate for the two equations $x^2 - 4 = y$ and $xy = 12$, and much to their surprise and amazement, the plate contained only one set of real solutions, from which they deduced the fact that the other three would have to be imaginary. But they had learned that imaginaries had to appear in pairs, that is, either two, four or six at a time and so they were made to realize that their basic theorem certainly would not be true in this situation. How to explain it? They were sent home in the hope that somebody might be able to follow the question up by himself, but at the next meeting we discovered that nobody could solve that difficulty. Therefore, they were taught the material necessary for the explanation of this particular situation.

It did not take very long for them to understand the following data from an algebraic point of view: $x^2 - 4 = y$, $xy = 12$, $x(x^2 - 4) = 12$, $x^3 - 4x - 12 = 0$. This latter they knew, is a cubic equation and therefore would have to have three

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roots, according to the fundamental theorem of algebra. And so it was quite possible for this equation to have one real root and two imaginary roots. They, therefore, went back to their original theorem and amended it as follows: If an equation of the Mth degree and an equation of the Nth degree are solved simultaneously, there will be MxN sets of solutions, provided the equations cannot be reduced to a lower degree. If they can be reduced to a lower degree, we can expect only such a number of solutions as represents the degree of the reduced equation. They arrived at several other deductions, but I should say that the theorem above mentioned was the most powerful conclusion drawn.

After each student had submitted his contribution of graphic plates, one of the students took all of them and went over them with India ink to make the results more permanent. Another student undertook to write up the minutes of our meetings and the conclusions drawn from our work. Still another volunteered to make an appropriate folder into which our work would be incorporated when it had been integrated. The same student volunteered to make five plates, each one representing a way in which the various conic sections could actually be gotten by cutting a cone in space with an intersecting plane. These plates were made in three dimensional perspective and clarified with the use of shade and shadow. Each one was to be placed at the beginning of a chapter in our work. Another student volunteered to integrate and arrange our work, do the necessary typing and put the finishing touches on the project.

Every bit of work in this project was done by the students. Of course it was submitted to me for criticism and correction. I believe the work valuable to the members of the group because it gave them an opportunity to study material in which they had evidenced an interest and for the study of which there is not sufficient time in class. It gave them an opportunity to practice materials for which they are responsible and to see their implications from a new point of view. It brought out for them the fact that a limited number of experiences is not sufficient for generalization and that a generalization once made must be able to cover every experience possible. It gave some of the students an opportunity to express themselves and to do things along lines non-mathematical in which they had ability. Above all, the pupils enjoyed doing what they were doing.

ISIDORE DRESSLER.
Grover Cleveland High School.

Creative Reading

The class listened intently as I read the composition to them. The author hung his head and blushed. I felt sorry for him, and angry at myself for having begun the reading without consulting him first. The class approved of the little piece, which was far from excellently written but which contained a fine new idea, and we continued our work. Later in the day I had a private talk with H—— apologizing for having read the paper without his permission. I was astonished when he said, "I didn't mind your reading it at all. Only I thought it was a rotten paper when I wrote it. You read it good. It was the way you read it that made it sound like that."

Without realizing how wise he had been in his remark, H—— had hit the nail on the head. It is certainly true that a good reader can make even a poor piece of literature interesting and effective to the listener. But to a good piece, he can attain the impossible!

Not long ago I had a class studying "Hamlet." As is usual with most high school students today, the name of Shakespeare caused rebellion. "Same old stuff," they said. "We have to take it because he wrote it. Why can't we read Eugene O'Neill? We can understand him. At least he writes in our language." And so on until they got tired. Then we proceeded with our Shakespeare. Instead of punishing them for heresy, I began a discussion of the modern theater. Why did they go to the show? What type of plays did they see? What appealed to the modern playgoer? What is the job of the playwright? Of the producer? The students came to the conclusion that a successful play must be written by a practical showman. If the public likes music, pageantry, humor, bloodshed, mystery, romance, et cetera, the playwright must supply the demand. This led us, curiously enough, back to Shakespeare and his day. Were the people any different from us? Little by little we discovered that perhaps they dressed differently, had different customs, had fewer advantages, but in the main, they were just like the 1933 theatergoer. Such being the case, then, Shakespeare must have had the same problem to face as the modern playwright. Did he? This was a new idea.

From the various Shakesperean plays the students had read, selected incidents proved definitely that he had made use of pageantry, bloodshed, comic relief, and the like, much to the complete consternation of the students. By this time "the play *was* the thing," and we began. The reading moved along smoothly until we came to some of the more difficult passages which required careful interpretation for complete appreciation. This was a sore spot for the students, who want to get the whole idea the first time. The first interest, therefore, began to wane. Before it disappeared entirely, something had to be done. And John Barrymore did it for us! We brought in the portable victrola and the record of the soliloquy beginning, "Now I am alone." From a low murmur, Barrymore's voice gradually grew to a vigorous crescendo, until finally he uttered a piercing shriek, then gradually he diminished the tone until he could hardly be heard. When he concluded the selection with "The play's the thing," we could hear the triumph in his voice and visualize the hysteric laughter in his eye. The class was

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spellbound. Absolute silence followed. Then a chorus arose. "Play it again." The second rendition had the same effect upon them. The result was gratifying. After that "Hamlet" was read with gusto. Each one pretended he was a Barrymore. I believe for the first time they understood why Shakespeare was great. Besides, they knew only too well that "literature is a closed book to those who cannot read." The Barrymore record made those pupils realize that a rendition such as his comes only when there is a thorough understanding and appreciation of the content.

It is one of the most difficult tasks to make the students do more than reproduce a story, poem, essay, or play that they have read. Like Rosenkrantz and Guildenstern, they are merely sponges, for they absorb the material the author gives them, but they do nothing whatever with it. Is it that they have not the ability to tackle the material, or are they just intellectually lazy? Sometimes I think they are the latter, but for the most part, I think they do not really know how to get the most out of the printed page. If so many adults are unable to interpret what they read, I suppose I should not condemn the apparent ignorance of youth.

However, the children can be taught. They have the ability of appreciating literature when once they understand what is expected of them. Away from the influence of the unimaginative tutor, who fears a new interpretation, the child is able to develop his power to think. Instead of the age-old question "What does the author mean?" we substitute "What do these lines mean to you?" or "What does this piece do to you?" In this way, we begin the process of making the student independent. He must be guided gently and steadily, for he will not trust a method such as this. He fears that he will "fail" if he does not repeat verbatim what has been said in the classroom. This lack of confidence is the worst obstacle to overcome. Once the barrier is down, though, what joy there is in interpreting a piece by oneself! To the teacher there can be no greater reward than to see a student's eager, radiant face when he has made a discovery, or a puckered brow when he has not understood something to his entire satisfaction.

"The Father," a short story by Bjornsen, offers splendid opportunity for interpretation and interpolation for boys and girls desirous of acquiring the art of reading. I have heard them say, "I read the thing three times, and still I don't understand it." After a class discusion they usually see that it is what the author did not say that makes the story. Then they like it, I suppose, because they are conscious of the fact that the power to leave "some thing unsaid, but felt" is an art the author had which they have not. In their own compositions, they always say too much.

It is a source of pleasure to me to read to a class, and I believe that hearing has its place in the curriculum. However, I wonder how we can train children to read to classes effectively without having them spoil good pieces of literature by practicing before the class. It is all very well to tell them what to do or to demonstrate for them, but the actual performance is what they need. They do not perform often enough to derive any benefit. Good reading requires constant practice. It will not come, however, unless the reader is conscious of a process going on in his mind. He must know, first of all, that what the selection means to him he must convey to his audience. Next he must decide how he can bring out this meaning to best advantage by voice intonation, emphasis, rapid or slow reading. He must know what to skip, how much to skip, where to interpret, where to transpose, when to add comment, and when to throw a question to his audience. This requires skill. How can we help the students to acquire it? More than once I have had compositions read by the pupils who wrote them, but the effect I wanted was lost because the reader was either embarrassed or nervous or read in a monotone. If I read them, I got the desired result, but the children had no practice. Which was the greater evil?

Hearing has its place in the curriculum, because the hearer gains much from listening. He must conjure up in his own mind a visual picture of the scenes and the characters. This process develops the imagination. He must listen carefully, too, or he will miss details necessary for complete interpretation. This trains him in concentration. He must have sympathy for the characters by living with them for the time being. If he be a good listener, he will so lose himself that he will desire to tell the characters what he would do were he in their predicament. He must catch the mood of the story. If he listens to poetry, he must be thrilled with the rhythm and the beauty of the imagery or thought.

If we can do something, only a little, to the students with whom we come in contact to make them realize that "reading maketh a full man," we shall not have taught in vain.

MURIEL B. NEWTON.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Discussion of Pupil-Teacher Relationships

Some time ago the writer was asked to speak at a faculty meeting concerning "Pupil-Teacher Relationships." It seemed wise to obtain the pupil's viewpoints as to the actions and attitudes on the part of the teachers that the pupils considered helpful, as well as the actions which the pupils considered harmful.

The pupils in a study hall seemed quite representative of the group as a whole. They were told this study was to be made, and that we were not interested in criticisms of individual teachers as such, nor in the praise of individual teachers as such; nor were we interested in the name of the pupil submitting such praise or criticism. Each pupil was given a sheet of paper and was asked to write one criticism and one record of desirable action on the part of the teachers.

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From these suggestions and criticisms were culled those which seemed most pertinent. These answers are given, preserving as nearly as possible the exact meaning of the pupil, but sometimes the English has been amended. Some of the very best statements, however, are in the exact wording of the pupil.

"Something that students would appreciate is more human kindness from the teachers."

"We come to high school for an education, not merely for getting marks. Getting angry with us when we fail to understand does not help, but hurts."

"A teacher who asks fact questions may be right in asking for immediate answers, but judgment questions require time. Snap answers are not fair to the pupil."

"One teacher fails to go over the homework, and we do not know what is wrong with the work we have done, or whether it is all right."

"A monotone hinders the lesson."

"This teacher makes no explanations, but gives tests on it. It is a new subject and we all need some explanations."

"One of my teachers fails to make clear what she wants in the homework."

"Whenever a teacher takes for granted that every question asked is merely meant as a stall, pupils quit asking questions about what they do not understand or could not find out for themselves."

"The teacher who gives us 80's on tests and only 65 for the first third marks, makes us feel that our efforts are not appreciated."

"One of my teachers wastes too much time, and everything thrown him off the subject. This often makes the period quite boring."

"We never know how to take one of our teachers. Sometimes he is moody and cross, sometimes he is jovial. We never know which to expect."

"If the homework in four or five different subjects is excessive, the students have to slight the preparation of some of the lessons."

"If a teacher has a pet who is always 'wonderful' and no one else gets praise, but the rest of the class are blamed, it does not help either the teacher, the pupils, nor the 'wonderful one'."

"One teacher is too serious, always having a grave countenance, his pupils are afraid to ask questions, and sometimes afraid to answer them."

"If a teacher only knew that sarcasm not only hurts its object, but closed the minds of the rest of the class, they would quit being sarcastic."

"When we make a mistake one teacher scolds us instead of helping us to correct the mistake. He should give us other like work in order to make us understand. The sarcastic teacher not only makes you dislike the teacher, but worse yet, makes you dislike the subject."

"The teacher who mimics the student and misinterprets the questions the pupil asks or the answers which the pupil gives, does more harm than he knows."

"The teacher who counts a failure in the first few recitations as a final failure, discourages the pupils terribly."

"The teacher who knows how to state things in a language the pupils understand makes homework profitable."

"One of my teachers makes such clear developments and such clear and definite assignments that homework is a pleasure."

"Clear assignments with hints on how to study are very helpful."

"A good review now and then makes the class see the lesson in a new light and helps to fix it clearly in mind."

"One teacher especially puts the whole class at ease and we can get right down to work."

"One teacher works with the class. You don't feel you are reciting, but you are learning, the teacher is one of you, only he knows more than the rest put together."

A pupil in a western school once shot back at a teacher who was berating him, this caustic comment: "If you prepared your assignments as carefully as I try to study them, I do not think any of us would have any trouble. I am very sure I put more time on mine than you did or do on yours."

If we are to be more helpful we must be more comprehending and make ourselves more comprehensible.

It is my conviction that the statements quoted above contain very much food for thought.

T. H. McCormick.

Eastern District High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

To Study High School Standards and Accrediting Procedures

What is a good high school? How can a good high school be made a better one? How may the effectiveness of a high school be evaluated? How can high schools be stimulated to better progress?

Answers to these questions will be formulated in a thorough study of accrediting standards and procedures planned for America's 4,600 secondary schools on the accredited lists of regional accrediting associations. Such a study was proposed by the Committee for Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards and Accrediting Procedures at a meeting held in Cincinnati, Ohio, it was announced today by the Federal Office of Education in Washington.

New standards or guiding principles for high schools and preparatory schools throughout the United States will be developed, if plans for the Nation-wide study of accrediting are carried to completion. These standards will be "more comprehensive, more valid, more stimulating to the continued improvement, more flexible in operation, and more adaptable to

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scientific administration than any applied at the present time."

There is a need for lists of approved secondary schools in this country, today's report reveals. Such lists satisfy the requirements for college entrance standards in many areas of the United States, and serve a necessary purpose to pupils who wish to transfer from one high school to another. Those desiring to have high school diplomas accepted at their full value wherever they may present them also find high school accrediting lists useful.

It is in response to such demands of parents and pupils that the procedure of high school accrediting has been developed. The significance of inclusion on an accredited list, therefore, is much the same to a high school as high rating by a commercial agency is to a commercial firm.

The Committee for Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards and Accrediting Procedures reports that high school accrediting standards must be well conceived and judiciously administered, owing to the far-reaching effect exerted by the accrediting systems. This Committee, however, will not achieve its purposes merely by establishing minimum requirements which a school should meet to be admitted to the list of accredited secondary schools. It will also emphasize stimulation of schools to improve their services far beyond minimums required. The report stresses that "no good school ceases to improve. When a school arrests its development, it is no longer a good

Solution to problems in the study planned will be reached through careful canvas of data already available through consultation and pooling of judgments, and through experimentation during the next three years.

The executive body of the Committee for Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards and Accrediting Procedures reports; "No thought is entertained that a uniform set of national standards applied according to an unvarying formula will result from the study. Flexibility in the operation of standards must allow for adaptations by the several regional associations to meet the conditions within their different territories."

The region associations are: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges.

The regional accrediting associations have, in common, certain functions to perform, such as (1) Passing on the adequacy of the educational environment surrounding the pupil; (2) Judging of the effectiveness with which that environment is used, and (3) Stimulating the school personnel to introduce progressive and continuous improvements in the environment and its utilization. The proposed study will, it is expected, result in a more scientific discharge of these three important functions.

—Release of the U. S. Office of Education.

Underhill Certificates Awarded

On January 31, 1934, the Girls' Branch, Public Schools Athletic League awarded twenty-five of the Louisa Wingate Underhill Certificates to high school graduates.

This Award is the highest high school athletic award of the Girls' Branch and a girl must be very outstanding to receive it. It may be awarded to but one graduate in each high school each term. The selection is made for athletic achievement, determined by the girls' record in athletics, health standards, academic standing, character, leadership, and sportsmanship.

The following girls received the Award:

Haaren, Margaret Mullally
George Washington, Rose A. Ellender
Seward Park, Mary Raden
Erasmus Hall, Eleanor Vogt
New Utrecht, Rose Federici
Girls, Nicolina Ditta
Bay Ridge, Gertrude Hansen
Girls' Commercial, Dagmar Christiansen
Abraham Lincoln, Blanche Weisinger
Franklin K. Lane, Betty Underwood
Thos. Jefferson, Geraldine Mailman
Bushwick, Jeanette Kaufman
James Monroe, Anna Fuccillo
Evander Childs, Julia Swiedler
Walton, Kate Bodnar
Bryant, Marion Bardes
Grover Cleveland, Ruth Rovner
Far Rockaway, Mary Chakin
Flushing, Helen Marvin
Jamaica, Lois Rohwerder
John Adams, Helen Mayer
Richmond Hill, Alma Jooss
Curtis, Harriet Shapiro
Port Richmond, Harriet Serra
Tottenville, Clara Del Wit

Emily O'Keefe Daly.
Executive Secretary,
Girls' Branch, P. S. A. L.

Historical Note on Psycho-Analysis; With a Bibliography

The history of the development of Psycho-analysis is fascinating and merits more comprehensive treatment than may be offered here. This article is necessarity of an exordial nature and, perhaps, will be supplemented by others.

The lexicographer defines Psycho-analysis as Freud's theory of the divisibility of the mind into conscious and unconscious elements and of their interaction. Yet, Psycho-analysis finds its beginning in the observations of the Viennese physician, Dr. Joseph Breuer. In the years from 1880 to 1882 Dr. Breuer treated a 21-year-old hysterical patient who suffered from palsy, semi-conscious states, difficulties in deglutition and other disturbances. While the patient was in an hypnotic state she began, without being urged, to relate thoughts and incidents of her life of which she knew nothing in her waking state. Dr. Breuer gave her opportunity for repeated hypnotic utterances and he succeeded, with great patience, in assisting the patient to re-

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covery. Whereas, previously in the use of hypnosis, definite commands and remedial thoughts were impressed upon the patient, Dr. Breuer varied this technique in that he patiently listened to that which the patient herself had to relate. Thus it was illustrated that what was spoken had some connection with the symptoms of the illness and, at the same time, occasioned a subconscious explanation therefor. This uttering, namely, the recounting of forgotten experiences with all the accompanying emotional states, is called abreation or catharsis.* Catharsis is a kind of confession. In the church confession, nevertheless, only known guilty feelings are told; catharsis is a confession of unconscious experiences.

About the time when Dr. Breuer was making his studies of this hysterical patient (which patient, by the way, has since become famous) Sigmund Freud was still a student. Dr. Freud studied hypnotism with Professor Charcot in Paris and later, which is more important, with Professor Bernheim in Nancy. Professor Bernheim is the initiator of the modern scientific conception of hypnotism. Freud has translated into German Professor Bernheim's classic on suggestion. For years Freud practised with his Viennese clientele the hypnotic treatment of nervous patients mainly as he had learned it from Professor Bernheim. When Freud learned of Dr. Breuer he became very interested in the observations and studies of the hysterical patient. After they had studied together Freud published with Dr. Breuer the basic work "Studies of Hysteria" (1895). Though Dr. Bruer no longer busied himself with these interesting observations, Freud continued to practise regularly the cathartic method.

Thus, Sigmund Freud is really the founder and mainstay of Psycho-analysis as it is known today. Freud, with his conception of the dream and nervous illnesses, was isolated for many years and had to put up with much opposition and abuse, even from scientific medicine. The beginning of Freudian analysis is usually set at Freud's abandonment of hypnotism. Later Freud denied completely the use of hypnotism and advocated in its place the method of free association.†

After 1901 Freud gathered about himself a number of younger doctors to whom he wanted to teach Psycho-analysis. In 1907 Professor Bleuler, the well-known Zürich physician for the insane, came into contact with Freud, took up his teachings and thereby gained for them the first scientific recognition. Among Professor Bleuler's assistants at the time were C. G. Jung, who gradually developed his own method of Psycho-analysis, and Dr. Eithingon, who later founded the psycho-analytical Polyclinic in Berlin. In Salzburg, Nuremberg and Weimar (1908, 1910, 1911) private congresses of psycho-analysis took place, all of which aided Freud's position. Psycho-analytical periodicals were founded; thus, "Schriften zur angewandten Seelenkunde" (1907); "Jahrbuch der Psychoanalyse" (1908); "Zentralblatt fuer Psychoanalyse" (1910); "Imago" (1912) and "Internationale Zeitschrift fuer Psychoanalyse" (1913). Finally psycho-analytical meetings were held in America, in England and in Hungary. Today Psycho-analysis stands at the acme of its general regard.

Two deviations from Freud's teachings are worthy of mention. Dr. Alfred Adler, whose teaching, "Individual Psychology," is widespread, came out in the open against Freud in 1910-1911. Freud said of Dr. Adler that he had a fine mind but inclined to be a bit too speculative. While Freud devoted his entire efforts to the study of the sex-drive, Dr. Adler stressed the ego. Dr. Adler thinks very little of the significance of the subconscious which Freud has emphasized so very much.

In 1913 the opposition of C. G. Jung was made manifest. With Jung, too, the meaning of the sexual force remained in the background. Contrary to Freud and Adler, the instincts in general play a minor rôle. The questions of ethics and religion come to the fore and Jung interprets them very differently from the way Freud does.

Today there are many variations and shadings of Psycho-analysis. Freud himself states that only those tendencies which acknowledge the facts of transference and resistance may rightly call themselves psycho-analytical.

Freud has pointed out with great emphasis that only a small part of our mental experience is enacted in the conscious; hence, the larger portion is subconscious. This subconscious produces a series of manifestations which were, supposedly, not understood before Freud. These manifestations are: misdeeds (Fehlleistungen), dreams and neural-mental illnesses or neuroses. As the driving force in the occurence of dreams and neurosis the dominant rôle is played by the sex-drive or libido. The changes which the libido experiences—how it is suppressed from consciousness, what opposing forces the ego sets up against the recognition of the actual facts, and what therapeutic possibilities are afforded by transference—all this makes up the theme of Psycho-analysis.

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* "Abreaktion" is replaced, at times, by "Seelenreinigung," which literally means soul-or mind-purification.

† This is the term usually used in the literature and should not be confused with the traditional usage. Perhaps a preferable translation of Freud's "Methode des freien Einfalles" would be "method of free occurrence."

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EMANUEL SCHWARTZ.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Senior High Schools as of March 15, 1934

Languages	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	VII	VIII	Total
French	12,062	11,928	17,384	14,991	7,751	6,738	567	372	71,793
German	5,152	5,315	5,151	4,203	1,388	1,201	84	56	22,550
Greek	16	14	18	33	5	5	.....	.....	91
Hebrew	203	99	84	49	28	12	.....	.....	475
Italian	1,355	1,078	1,035	793	376	270	71	12	4,990
Latin	4,765	5,123	4,575	4,322	1,843	1,575	276	217	22,696
Spanish	11,251	8,986	7,167	6,184	1,771	1,477	136	73	37,045
Totals	34,804	32,543	35,414	30,575	13,162	11,278	1,134	730	159,640

Grand Totals: Modern Languages, 136,378; Ancient Languages, 23,262.

REVIEWS

The Improvement of the Assignment

By Gerald Alan Yoakam. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933. 388 pages.

It is seldom that a book on pedagogy will offer an attraction to experienced teachers. Especially a study that treats of the improvement of the assignment. Seemingly, such a work is suitable for college classes in educational theory and practice or for supervisors who wish to assist the young teacher. The book under consideration, however, makes a very convincing appeal to the skillful instructor. Moreover, it is the contention of Professor Yoakam that the inexperienced teacher should not be urged to experiment with all the modern techniques and patterns that he describes.

"The Improvement of the Assignment," like most current educational literature, views pupils as reacting and active agents rather than passive recipients of impressions. The teacher is regarded as a skilled director of learning whose primary function is to arouse interest, secure right mental and emotional attitudes, and guide students in the acquisition of appreciations, ideals, knowledges, and skills. Briefly then, the development of character traits as well as information becomes the most desired aim in present-day education.

In such a progressive view, the author of the book claims that the assignment occupies a strategic place. It is "the initial activity in the pursuit of learning and therefore provides an opportunity for creating a mental set." For the inexpert and the expert teacher the assignment will always exist. Inevitably, the master-pupil relationship will arise. Perhaps the allotment of the task will sometimes be made by the pupil, but in the last analysis the problem of the assignment will eternally remain an integral part of the learning process. Because of this fact, we find that Professor Yoakam devotes a whole book to the question of the improvement of the assignment in the elementary school, secondary school, and college. Indeed, what he has to say has relevancy for practically all grades of work and subjects of study in our schools.

The writer first turns his attention to a criticism of the various types of assignments. He contrasts the old-type assignments with the new-type assignments. Under the classification of the old-type he lists:

1. Page
2. Paragraph
3. Topic
4. Chapter
5. Question
6. Exercise
7. Experiment
8. Theme

While the above assignments may be more or less complete, effective, and definite, he condemns them on the grounds that they frequently fail to arouse interest and fail to direct study along the line of a felt need or purposeful activity.

With reference to the new-type assignments which have resulted from a changing philosophy of education and a better understanding of the learning process, he speaks of:

1. The problem
2. The project
3. The unit
4. The contract
5. The job sheet
6. The term syllabus
7. The guide sheet
8. The indeterminate assignment
9. The goal book.

These different patterns undoubtedly overlap to a considerable extent, but they all emphasize the characteristics of a good assignment. They provide for such necessary requirements of a good assignment as definiteness, the arousing of interest, the removal of difficulties, the linking of the new with the old, the directing of study activities, the emphasizing of essentials, and the adjustment to individual differences. In all of these procedures, the teacher's personality is a great factor.

Later chapters are given over to a discussion of prerequisites for the successful assignment of learnings, the motivating of assignments, the provision for individual differences, and the new-type assignment in its relation to curriculum changes. Particularly significant is the author's emphasis upon the need for the skilled and trained instructor. The director of learning must be adequately equipped in the

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knowledge of subject matter and child psychology. Then also, his insistence upon one's being constantly on guard against mechanization in planning deserves special note. His treatment of time control and flexibility as important elements in the assignment will likewise interest those who are engaged in the educational profession.

To the teacher in the secondary school, Chapters IX and XIV should prove to be very helpful and enlightening. The former concerns itself with concrete and practical suggestions for adjusting assignments to individual differences. After reviewing and evaluating with the utmost fairness and objectivity various techniques in individualizing instruction, the writer concludes that modifications of class instruction seem more practicable for the public schools in large cities. The necessary adjustments, however, should be based on the use of differentiated assignments, A B C groups, unit planning, and mastery technique. The latter chapter presents a vigorous appeal for the direction of learning in the high school. It is in the high school, that the adolescent boy or girl "is thrown upon his own resources for results in independent study." Obviously, the new-type of assignment becomes imperative. Professor Yoakam suggests that we turn to the contributions of various movements and make use of these contributions in our daily classroom precedures. For example, the supervised study plan gave us the idea of directing learning; the Dalton and the Winnetka plans, the idea of the contract; the Morrison mastery technique, the idea of guide sheets, testing, learning, and relearning until mastery is accomplished; and the unit plan, the idea of organized meaningful learning projects. These principles, he declares, are not panaceas, but are significant and helpful.

After showing the need for new teaching patterns in our colleges and universities, the book closes with an interesting and highly suggestive check list or score card for the evaluation of the assignment. It is here that I also wish to end my review by saying that while this study is adequately and excellently designed for text-book use in teachers' colleges, it can well aid the experienced teacher in keeping abreast with the "high points" in progressive educational theory and practice. Furthermore, it will serve as an inspiration to those who desire to develop an effective teaching technique or who wish to carry on a worthwhile experiment.

ABRAHAM LEBOWSKY.
Franklin K. Lane High School.

Adolescent Psychology

By Ada Hart Arlitt, Ph. D. American Book Company. $2.25.

Dr. Arlitt treats simply and adequately of the adolescent in the modern world. The adolescents' behavior is presented genetically. His actions are interpreted in terms of his instinctive drives and the societal patterns to which they must accommodate themselves. These drives are analyzed and revealed as they function in the normal and atypical adolescent.

The book is rightly centered on such all-important factors as emotional maturation, and intellectual, moral, and religious development at adolescence. To an understanding of these vague and vast problems, Dr. Arlitt has brought to bear whatever of value has been unearthed by modern research. Her suggestions for the guidance of the adolescent in his progress toward maturity are based on sound and tested procedures.

Dr. Arlitt's grasp of the devious mental processes of the adolescent is notably shrewd and penetrating, and shed much light on some of his apparently inexplicable behavior. She has here drawn copiously from the psychoanalysts.

Sensible, thorough, and objective, Dr. Arlitt's "Adolescent Psychology" presents the facts with which we can guide the adolescent to a satisfying, harmoniously developed adulthood.

A. H. LASS.

Grammar and Usage in Text-Books on English

By Robert C. Pooley, Ph.D., University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Educational Research, Bulletin No. 14, 1933. $.75.

Our rhetoric texts are at least fifty years behind the times in what they recommend and prescribe in current English usage. This is the conclusion of Dr. Pooley, based on the examination of twenty of the most representative and popular texts between 1900 and 1930. The usages in these texts were compared with the most advanced findings in the Leonard Monograph (1932) and in the work of such eminent linguists as Curme, Krapp, Jespersen and Scott.

From Dr. Pooley's detailed analysis of over one thousand items of disputed and allegedly established usage certain very significant conclusions emerge:

1. The text-books fail to present English as it is used in contemporary speech and writing.

2. From a study of these texts, the students fail to see English as a living organism influencing and being influenced by those who live it.

For the text-book writers of the future, Dr. Pooley has some very revolutionary advice to offer: They must see language as a tool of the social group. They must grant that utility, and not tradition, is the only basis for the creation and perpetuation of a language form. The spoken language, they must see as primary, and the written but secondary. The concept of good usage must be recast into a form somewhat similar to this: "Good English is that form of speech which is appropriate for the purpose of the speaker, true to the language as it is, and comfortable to speaker and listener. It is the product of custom, neither cramped by rule nor freed from all restraint; it is never fixed but changes with the organic life of the language."

The purists and precisionists are fallen on evil days. A new and liberal attitude toward language is abroad in the land. Dr. Pooley, in carrying on the pioneering work of Sterling Andrus Leonard, is leading

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the onslaught against the intrenched and almost decimated conservatives. The English teachers must take their stand with him and his colleagues or fall into the effete formalism he inveighs against.

A. H. L.

The Psychology of Secondary School Teaching

By James L. Mursell, Ph.D. W. W. Norton and Company, New York.

Dr. Mursell has applied himself to the very difficult task of rendering practical and concrete assistance to the teacher of secondary school subjects. He feels that psychology has some very valuable suggestions to offer.

The book contains some features unique in texts of this kind. It is written expressly for the classroom teacher and not for the theorist. Dr. Mursell has his feet on the ground and is at all points at grips with the actual problems that confront the teacher every day.

The book is functionally organized. Teaching is subdivided into a number of component tasks: the direction of learning and the process of instruction; the process of selection and classification; the setting of standards; the control of behavior. Under each of these heads the relevant contributions of psychology are treated.

The problems of learning and teaching in the special subjects are treated in terms of five major abilities more or less common to them all: reading, English use, attitude and appreciation, problematic thinking and memory.

The emphasis throughout is on "how to teach." And it is tribute indeed, in a field swarming with facile panaceas for all our pedagogical ills, to note that Dr. Mursell actually succeeds in presenting some real and practical solutions to that omnipresent problem.

The book is remarkably free from the technical argot of the run-of-the-mill educational text. The style is easy, lucid, and, at time, even pert.

Each chapter has a very selected and exhaustive bibliography.

A. H. L.

"Spend Your Time": New York's Resources for the Use of Leisure

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. Price $1.00.

What shall we do with our leisure time when the millenium of the New Deal arrives? In this volume, the Parent-Teacher Association of Lincoln School has tried to answer this question. They have listed the multitudinous opportunities for profitable exploitation of leisure time around New York City. The material is organized to arouse the interest of the child and the adult, and to assist them in finding what they want to do when the leisure hours that will soon be theirs hang heavy on their hands. Where to go, what to see? These are important questions if these leisure moments are not to be squandered in futile pursuits. This is the first time in our history that leisure has become a prob-

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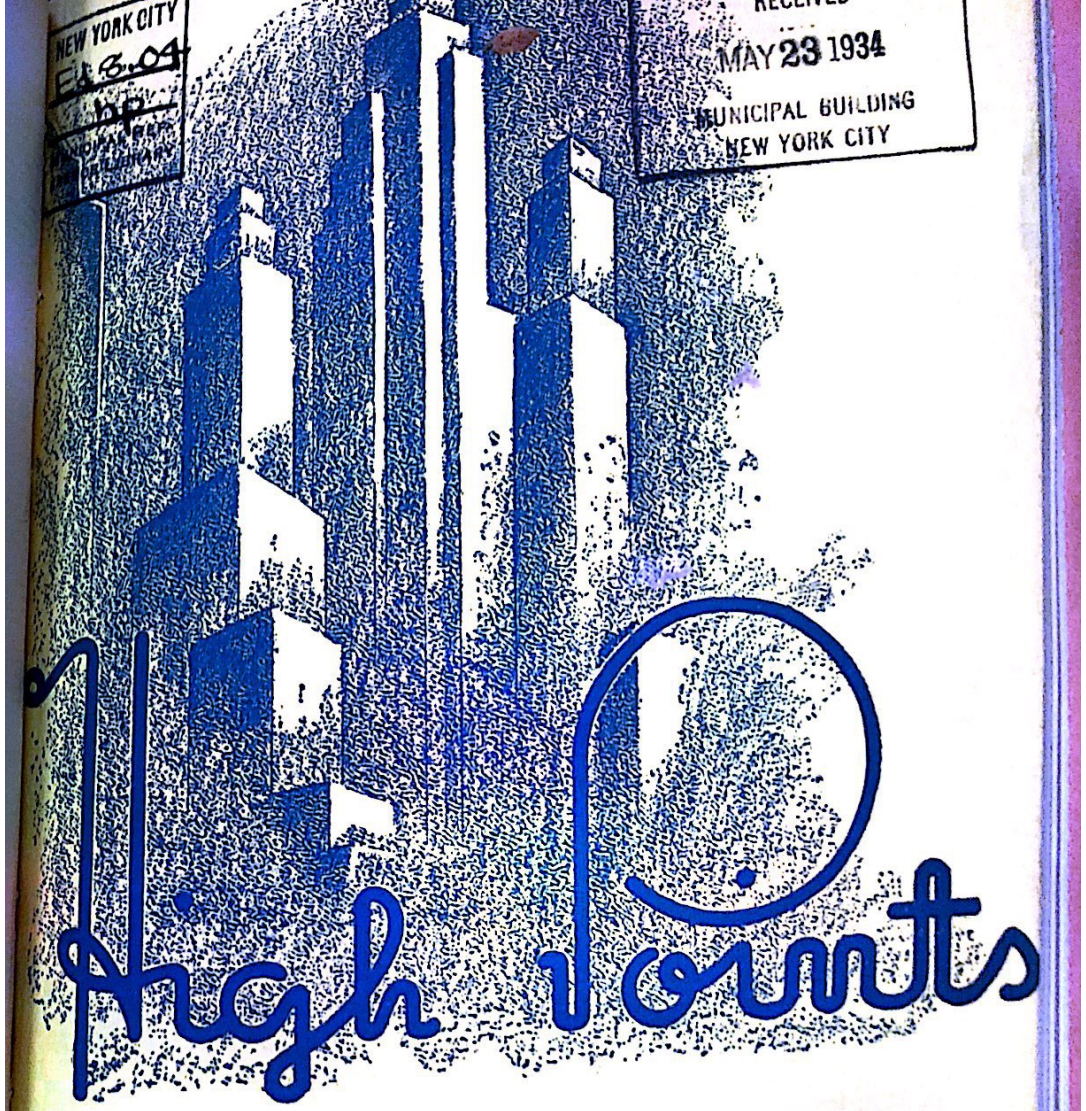

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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Books concerned with educational matters may be sent for review to Mr. A. H. Lass, Manual Training High School. School text-books will not be reviewed.

The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions *should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper* 8½" by 11" *in size.* They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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THAT the teachers of this republic have not labored in vain is attested by the fact that the American people have carried on patiently, tolerantly, even good-naturedly through the most trying experience that has ever befallen them. If our institutions are worth saving, as we believe they are, the American schools have repaid all they have cost for a generation in what they have done in the past three years.

I do not believe that education is about to choose a new and sharply divergent way. "New schools for old" is not my slogan. Then there is that other current phrase, "Education for a changing world." If education for a changing world means that we must visualize what may seem to be the inevitable form and structure of a new world and so influence and modify youth that it will conform to it, then the expression leaves me a little cold. Better let us have an education that will change the world.

PAYSON SMITH

Commissioner of Education of Massachusetts, in an address at the Cleveland meeting of the Department of Superintendence, N. E. A., February, 1934.

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SHOW THEM HOW TO LIVE*

To my mind the public schools of today are the greatest and most powerful agency for the improvement of the social order. Education in its broadest sense can accomplish things that no other agency of society can accomplish. Society is made up of men and we are the makers of men. Society will be as we make it. How men think and what they do will to a large extent be determined while they are in the public schools and the task of seeing to it that they think from the standpoint of the social good and act accordingly, is our task.

We have at this moment a better opportunity than we ever had to bring about an improved social order because never before have we had so many children in our schools and never before have they remained with us for so long a period of their early lives. Let us do for them what only education can do for them—show them how to live.

The improved social order will come when men live intelligently and occupy themselves with worth-while endeavor, not for the purpose of accumulating money at the expense of their fellow-men, but with a view toward greater fullness of life for everyone. It will come when selfishness is supplanted by unselfishness and when the attitude "Live and let live" is changed to "Live and help live." It will come through teaching and teaching alone. It will come not at all if education assumes a *laissez-faire* or non-interference attitude and says, "The schools can not lead in remaking the world, they can only follow." Education can and must lead, for these children will be as we teach them to be and will live as we show them how to live.

We teachers should do a great deal more thinking about the meaning, the purpose, and the goal of life. What is the goal of life? Is it service to others? Is it happiness? Contentment? Richness of living? Or is it the fullest possible development of one's capability for doing good and the doing of good?

We ought to determine more definitely what we consider to be the goal of life because our educational program is or should be dependent upon it. Perhaps it embraces all the things we have mentioned, for in a sense, service, happiness, contentment, richness of life and the doing of good are synonymous terms. Surely if we have shown our youth how to attain or strive for these things, we shall at least have set him on the right road.

There are in the schools today, and in the classes we teach, hundreds of boys and girls who appear to be in grave doubt as to the reason for their presence in school. There came to my attention a day or two ago the case of a boy who, during the visit of a

* An address given at the annual luncheon of the High School Teachers' Association, Hotel Commodore, March 24, 1934.

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supervisor, was asked by his teacher to answer what she considered a simple question, and replied, "Search me, lady."

While he did not know it, or so intend it, there was a lesson in this boy's answer: Search me. That is precisely our task with every student—a searching investigation and study of his whole personality to discover his interests, his abilities, his likes and his dislikes and the means of awakening him to his own possibilities and the happiness that life may hold for him as a result of their development. Whether he wants to be a radio announcer, a baseball player, a lawyer, a teacher, or an actor, our job is to find out about it and show him how to be a good one.

We can do these things. We can find something if we look hard enough in every mother's son and daughter of these children that he or she wants to do or be and then we can show him how to do it or how to be what he aspires to be. There isn't a single boy or girl in the public schools today that we can't make something out of if we set ourselves to the task. Our curriculum is as flexible as any that has ever been devised.

There is no restraint upon any principal or teacher who may wish to experiment with a new course of study or a new idea. Experiments are needed now as at no other time, for we have in our schools, chiefly our secondary schools, vast numbers of children who have neither the taste nor the liking for the traditional school subjects. Many have not the native ability to master these subjects; but the field of subjects by which we may educate children is practically unlimited. There are educative possibilities in almost every human activity when rightly directed. Those for which we cannot find place in the regular course of study we may embody in our extra-curricular program with equal effectiveness. It may be that membership in a camera club or a dramatic society will do more for a boy or girl than all the traditional subjects could ever do in the matter of awakening interest in a worth-while activity, stimulating imagination and arousing the desire to learn. Our job is to make live contact with the child's inner self and then bring out the best that's in him. Once he has been thrilled by his own capability to do something, the urge to know more will follow.

Never let it be said that, when called upon to solve the educational problem of any boy or girl, we threw up our hands and cried: "It can't be done. This child doesn't want to learn. He can't learn. He doesn't belong in school!" There is no such child. Every child belongs in school and there is something we can do for everyone of them, if we have but the determination and the will to discover the chord to which he responds.

I know and you know that all children can't pass academic examinations, but that proves little or nothing. Passing examinations leads to a diploma, but not necessarily to successful living. Don't mistake me. I favor academic examinations for those who have the mental capacity to prepare for them and take them, because they are the most effective means we have of finding out whether a student knows as much as he should know about a given subject. They are not, however, the test of our effectiveness as makers of men, for what men know is not the measure of what education has done for them, but what men are.

If a student wants to be, and has within him the ability to be a good musician, you can help him to become a good one. If he wants to be, and has the latent fitness to be a good mechanic, you can help him become a good mechanic. If he doesn't know what he wants to be and seems to have no particular ability along any line, then you will have to probe that much deeper. Find his interest in life if he has one. Create one for him if he hasn't. Search his heart and mind and his whole life if necessary to find something worth-while that appeals to him. Find, if possible, the thing that he wants most to do and then show him how to do it. Educate each one in the way in which he is capable of being educated.

Let us go back to the very genesis of the term by which our profession is known and seek to lead each of these children out of the darkness and uncertainty that may seem to surround the reason for his life and into the light of competence and understanding.

When everyone of them shall have been shown that there is something he can do and do well, no matter how insignificant that work may at first appear in the great scheme of all things, then shall he be on the way to knowing the happiness that comes from accomplishment, the contentment that follows, the possibilities that are for service to others, and the good that results from doing good.

HAROLD G. CAMPBELL,
Superintendent of Schools.

WHAT DOES THE STATE SURVEY REPORT MEAN TO US?

THE evaluation of achievement that constitutes Part II of the State Department's report deals entirely on its statistical side with the work of the elementary schools. There are, however, in the conclusions and recommendations numerous references to the high schools and the procedures recommended for the improvement of instruction at the elementary school level carry over with equal force to high school work.

Two words may well serve to sum up the significance of the report for the high schools. These words are "integration" and "individualization." By integration is to be understood not only the articulation of school with school, but also the unified organization of the materials of education that is an essential part of economical and permanent learning at any stage.

We must recognize that such integration, however elaborate the ma-

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chinery we devise to attain it, is impossible without the fullest measure of coöperation by all concerned. Mutual recriminations and pointing up or down the educational ladder to fix the blame for whatever is wrong with our product will accomplish very little of a worth-while sort. We have a common job and a joint responsibility.

For some time past, a committee has been at work attempting to devise *an integrated philosophy of education and a statement of principles* that will more completely unify and systematize our New York City schools. Until that committee has completed its work, there must continue to be, in some measure, differences of educational philosophy that do not contribute to the pupil's success or happiness. Until an authoritative statement of guiding principles has been formulated and issued, the burden of the teacher of lower grade high school classes will continue to be a difficult one; for we must recognize the great difference between the elementary school philosophy of education and that prevailing at the high school level. According to the former, stated baldly, the pupil is entitled to be exposed to only eight years training on the elementary school level, while according to the high school theory, the pupil must attain certain minimum standards of achievement before he is permitted to advance from grade to grade. We cannot continue this wide difference in point of view without very unhappy results for many of our pupils.

There is need further of *integration of the work of the junior and senior high schools*. This has been attempted in the past in certain parts of the city with a reasonable measure of success. The newer high schools tend more and more to become neighborhood schools with certain elementary and junior high schools supplying virtually all the students of a particular high school. This situation certainly should make efforts to coördinate courses of study, standards of achievement and methods of teaching much likelier to succeed than in the past.

There is need of *integration in the way of a comprehensive guidance program*. The pupil comes to high school with very little in the way of helpful information as to the sort of personality he is or as to his definite accomplishments in the various subject fields or as to his special tastes and aptitudes. High school specialization makes it difficult for teachers to see the entering pupil as a complete person. It would seem that elementary school teachers, particularly those of the middle grades of the elementary school who deal with the same group of pupils all day long, should come to know a great deal about these pupils that would be of value in any worthwhile guidance program. If the elementary schools wash their hands of the pupil as he receives his diploma and the high schools, receiving the same pupil a day or two later, assume that they know little or nothing about him up to that point, clearly the work of guidance is going to be very difficult indeed. We must recognize that there is no such sharp break in the pupil's growth as a personality.

There is need of *an integrated curriculum* not only in subjects begun in the junior high school and continued in the senior high school, such as the foreign languages, mathematics, and commercial studies, but also within any particular school department or subject class. In too many cases, the old notion persists of intense cultivation of a very limited field, in each subject or class, with little or no contact beyond that field. We must break down more and more the artificial barriers that exist between subject and subject and insist upon integrated studies with the traditional subject fields serving as the cores of larger spheres of learning that will engage the pupil's attention and activity. Opportunities for such correlation or integration are many in the traditional "humanities" — the social studies, foreign languages and English. It is only through integration in the fullest sense of the word—educational philosophy, guidance, curriculum, methods—that we can build up the proper organization of material and of learning procedures that will satisfy the individual pupil's capacity and needs.

As for individualization, a great deal has been accomplished in the high schools and further progress is steadily being made. There has been a splendid opportunity for the high schools to develop along this line, for the outstanding note of the New York high schools is their markedly individual character. They have enjoyed enlightened leadership that has given them a wide measure of freedom to work out the solution of their problems without hampering restrictions from headquarters and they rejoice that the system as a whole will now enjoy this same enlightened leadership. Freedom to experiment, to create new courses and special classes, to make adjustments of any kind consistent with the physical plant and equipment, has made possible a high degree of individualized instruction in our high schools. The wide offering in courses of study that has resulted permits the high school to satisfy a great variety of pupil needs and to meet pupil capacity at different levels. A rich and varied extra-curricular program exists in every one of our high schools. This program takes account of pupil capacity and needs, not merely by providing additional opportunities for the bright student and prevocational training for the dull, but also by developing those hobbies, tastes and attitudes that play so large a part in individual adjustments and that mean so much for that worthy use of leisure time that is becoming increasingly more important.

There have been several measures generally adopted to secure greater individualization. Promotion by subject has long prevailed in all high schools. Ability grouping with different standards of achievement for different levels and other special provision for the bright pupil and the dull has been undertaken wherever numbers would permit organization of this kind. Such ability grouping is not uncommon in English, in Foreign Languages, and in Mathematics—subjects that most fre-

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quently offer difficulty to pupils. It is to be found in virtually all high schools for those with special aptitudes in Music, Art and Speech. Where homogeneous grouping is not feasible, the importance of grouping within the class must be recognized. The danger of homogeneous grouping, unless accompanied by such further grouping within each class, is a very real one; for without an appreciation of the realities of individual differences even within a supposedly homogeneous group, such ability grouping may lead to the worst type of mass instruction.

The First Assistants' Association and other organizations, largely through the influence of Dr. Tildsley, have prepared and distributed valuable summaries of the best practices in our high schools in the efforts they are making to individualize instruction for bright and dull pupils. The spread of less formal classroom organization such as the socialized recitation and projects, is another evidence of increasing individualization of instruction.

The course of study as a whole, with its wide variety of electives even in the major fields of interest, challenges comparison with the most liberal curricula, while the provision for major and minor groups contained in this course ensures the continuity of pupil interest and application so essential to real achievement. For the interpretation of the flexible provisions of this course, particularly as a means of preparation for higher studies or for a life career, as well as for the solution of the numerous problems of adjustment involved in high school life, there is an elaborate system of guidance, involving the deans, the grade advisers, and the section officers. It is true that limits of time, together with the mass for whom an individual counsellor must be available, have hampered the full functioning of this system of guidance. It is the atypical pupil, whether above or below normal, who engages nearly all the attention of the deans and the grade advisers, who not infrequently have in their care considerably more than a thousand pupils each. To permit the section officer to be a real force in the lives of the pupils under his direction, some schools have made it a practice in the lower terms to have the section officer teach at least one class of each pupil in his section group. There has also been definite progress in having the section officer remain with the same group of students for a period of several terms. This practice is now quite general in the case of grade advisers.

It must be recognized that *a great deal remains to be done in the way of making universal* practices to be found now only here and there in the high schools. Each school has contributed something, but there is hardly a school that feels it cannot make continued progress along this road. Complacent self-satisfaction is certainly not characteristic of our New York high schools. It is remarkable that they have been able to do so much in the face of very serious difficulties. Not the least of these is the organization

problem, with schools overflowing into several annexes or struggling along with double sessions of one type or another.

The physical problem of providing room for the enormous numbers coming to high school has demanded too much of our time and attention to permit of the most effective effort in other phases of our work. We have not appreciated, as we should, the law of diminishing returns in organization. We see in our large numbers a wonderful opportunity to enrich our offering to the point where it offers provision for almost every type of pupil, but we fail to appreciate that, when we pass a register of three or four thousand pupils, the cumbersome machinery involved in carrying the additional load seriously hampers the full efficiency of the school.

There is still too much emphasis on the record keeping and patrol phases of the teacher's work. There are physical limitations no less when one teacher must deal with nearly two hundred different pupils, as is the case in most subjects. It is probable that the community is receiving a much better return in every way from its educational investment that it is strictly entitled to, when we consider the problems involved in the handling of such a mass.

Some of our efforts to secure individualization have been carried to an extreme in the form of specialization. There has been a tendency lately to limit freedom of choice in the pupil's own interest. The new commercial course of study is an evidence of this and in a way a recent proposal to keep first term classes intact for a year may be similarly regarded. We are coming to recognize that we have looked at individualization too much in terms of subject matter and too little in terms of the individual child. We must place emphasis upon correlation wherever this can possibly be effected as a step toward unifying the materials of instruction. We are reaching a fuller realization of the need of seeing the pupil as a whole in an effort to provide guidance for all children and not merely for those on the fringe of our group.

If the report makes us more completely conscious of the need of integration and individualization, it will have had great value for the high schools. An ideal solution, however, of the problems involved in having the school meet the needs and capacity of the individual child will involve a heavier expenditure than the community is probably prepared to make. There is no use closing our eyes to this, however little we allow thought of it to deter us in our efforts to bring our present educational system as close to this ideal as possible.

We must recognize, however, a certain measure of inconsistency in some phases of the report. The high schools are criticised because of the undue emphasis placed on provision for the bright pupil by high school principals in interviews with representatives of the State Department. By implication, the dull pupil is regarded as overlooked or neglected. Anyone familiar with the high schools knows

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that for a long time the bright pupil has been the forgotten pupil and that our efforts in recent years to correct the injustice of which he has been the victim have made us rather more conscious of the need of providing for him than for those of the dull group. It is unfair to assume, however, on this account that the latter group is not provided for insofar as it is possible to do so within the limits of our plant, equipment, and personnel.

There is, moreover, throughout the report an emphasis on achievement as measured by certain tests and this is incidentally the phase of the report that has provoked the widest and most favorable comment. And yet, we are told in the concluding words of the report that:

> "Teaching ability should be evaluated not so much in terms of pupil gains as measured by examinations or achievement tests, as in terms of the differentiation of materials of instruction to meet the educational needs of pupils. That is, it should be evaluated not in academic terms, but in terms of growth in personality, character, social responsibility and those other characteristics that are essential to the desirable citizen."

Just how we are going to measure these very desirable qualities is an interesting question; for we can hardly assume that success as measured by achievement tests correlates at all with success in these imponderables. It is reasonable to suppose, however, that pupil growth in desirable ways is more likely to result from the measures proposed for integration and individualization than from haphazard procedures that have been adopted in the absence of a comprehensive view of the entire situation and without the benefit of the very valuable experience we have had in recent years in the efforts of individual high schools to meet the new situation of providing for so greatly increased and so widely varied a population.

We do feel confident, also, that in our high school classrooms and beyond them in our rich extra-curricular program we have made substantial progress in creating conditions favorable to pupil "growth in personality, character, social responsibility and those other characteristics that are essential to the desirable citizen." The self-sacrificing devotion of the many teachers who are making this real education possible in our schools is worthy of the highest praise.

Essential to continued progress, however, is the increasingly better selection of teachers, not solely on the basis of mastery of subject matter, but through an evaluation *in a positive way* of qualities or personality so that all the members of our teaching corps may be in very truth worthy leaders of youth.

It is with this thought in mind that we look with interest to the publication of Part III of the report that will contain a study of the selection of teachers.

WILLIAM A. CLARKE,
Principal
John Adams High School.

SOME METHODS USED TO ACHIEVE THE IDEALS AND IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVES IN LEARNING ALGEBRA

PROBABLY the list of ideals and immediate objectives drawn up by the field committee of mathematics chairmen to be achieved through the learning of mathematics in the secondary schools is as comprehensive and as progressive a list as can be found in the literature on the theory of the teaching of mathematics. Unfortunately, the teaching of mathematics in the secondary school curriculum has undergone severe attacks by people who, if they were to read the above-mentioned list, would see how unfounded their arguments are. The teacher is a much more important factor in the teaching of mathematics in the secondary schools than the subject matter itself. It is the teacher who lends the necessary color to a mathematics course which will give meaning and value to the average pupil, rather than the mathematics itself. Unfortunately, the greater number of mathematics teachers have, in the past, considered mathematics as being of value for its own sake and have taught the subject accordingly. Perhaps they were justified in doing this at a time when secondary school pupils intended to use mathematics in the further study of the subject and its application to other subjects. However, with the advent of mass education and a new philosophy of education, they can no longer justify the teaching of mathematics for its own sake, but must seek to find in mathematics broader human values.

No longer can mathematics be taught only as a game to be played according to certain defined rules and by moves to be made in accordance with these rules. An attempt must be made to create in students certain ideals and attitudes which are important not only in mathematics, but in life, and which they will be able to use, not only in a mathematical way, but in solving the real problems of life. Many teach the subject, as the writer once did, by following a predetermined and fixed syllabus and teaching the materials to be found in that syllabus and feeling that the job was well done when the pupil mastered the subject matter. Of course, the subject matter is significant and important. However, is must be realized that such teaching is valueless for the pupil who is going to leave mathematics at the end of the second term of elementary algebra. If he is to gain anything from the course, he must achieve more permanent values than the value just mentioned. Many teachers have very vague ideas as to what they want to accomplish through the use of their materials, and no doubt the list of objectives given will help them to crystallize and vivify the goals to be achieved

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through the learning of elementary algebra.

The writer's methods have undergone gradual changes since the first day he stepped into a mathematics classroom as a teacher, and at this time he feels that his aims in teaching elementary algebra approximate those given by the field committee. He has, therefore, found it unnecessary to modify his procedures because of these objectives. The following procedures have been followed for the last two years, but will nevertheless be set forth because they are in accordance with the objectives of the committee.

It is the opinion of the writer that too much stress have been given to symbolic manipulation, and not sufficient stress to symbolic representation, its importance, and uses. Too many teachers consider the teaching of algebra as the juggling of symbols according to certain laws laid down as the basis of algebra. By this standard, one is successful in the mastery of algebra as one is able to master the technique of juggling symbols. This should not be the aim sought. Rather there should be taught the meaning of symbols, and, also, the power of the use of symbolism in proving general ideas which cannot be proved through one or several single experiences. To illustrate this point, the teacher should show the importance of the use of symbolism in proving a general proposition. Problem: Prove that the sum of any three consecutive numbers is equal to three times the middle number. The pupils naturally will take a definite example of 3, 4, 5, add the three and show that that sum is equal to three times four, the middle number, and feel they have proved the proposition. The teacher can immediately follow that up with the question: How do you know that this would also be true for the numbers 4, 5 and 6? How do you know that it would be true for the combination 6, 7 and 8? If the pupils insist upon going through the procedure with these sets of numbers, it is but a simple matter to show that they could spend a lifetime trying to prove this proposition and still not succeed, since there are always new numbers with which to extend the operation. They therefore realize the importance of being able to represent three consecutive numbers in a general symbolic way (x, x+1, x+2), which when added will give a sum of 3x + 3, which is three times the middle number. By this and other similar procedures the pupils can be taught to realize the importance of representing things in a general symbolic way and the power that such representation has in proving general propositions. This, of course, is only one of the procedures that might be employed to stress the importance of symbolic representation.

The unit of plane trigonometry gives a fine opportunity to show the various stages and the growth of organized knowledge. In teaching the idea of the tangent of an angle, several sets of right triangles are drawn on the board. In each set an acute angle of the first triangle is equal to an acute angle in every triangle of that set. The class then proceeds to measure the opposite side and the adjacent side to the angles mentioned, with a ruler, actually divides the length of the opposite side by the length of the adjacent side and gets a particular quotient. The class does this for the various triangles on the board and then begins to classify. The pupils notice that in the triangles which have the equal acute angles the ratios of the side opposite the angle to the side adjacent to the angle are always equal. This leads them to the generalization that in any two right triangles, regardless of their size, if an acute angle in one is equal to an acute angle in the other, then the ratios of the side opposite these acute angles to the sides adjacent to these acute angles would have to be equal. The pupils then proceed to write this relationship or generalization in symbolic form, commonly found in textbooks, and show how this relationship can be used in solving practical problems. The importance that these trigonometric functions play in astronomy and physics is always called to the attention of the class. An attempt is made to stress the important factors or rather stages of growth of organized knowledge through this last procedure, the same stages on would have to go through in solving a problem of life. Not only can this development be used for this particular lesson, but also for the sine and cosine relationships. Therefore, in teaching this unit in the trignonometry of the right triangle there is conveyed, not only mathematics, but also the inductive method of thinking. This idea can be brought out in many phases of the work in elementary algebra.

When pupils come to the high schools, the bring with them an inaccurate and vague notion of the number concept; of the meaning of number, of the meaning of fraction and of the meaning of integer. It is the duty of the algebra teacher to correct these misimpressions and crystallize the vague impressions into things more meaningful and real. The pupil comes with the idea that he knows every number and type of number in existence, for has he not spent eight years in the study of numbers? Yet were this student permitted to go into life with the strange notion of what number is, would he be prepared to solve the problems of life, based upon the meaning of number? Of course, the importance of an extension of the number concept for those who are going on with further academic work is evident.

Pupils in elementary algebra are stunned when they are told that the numbers which they know do not represent even a small fraction of those in existence. It is an astounding revelation to them, a fine opportunity for the teacher to instill the spirit of humility, which is so necessary in scientific research.

The growth of the number concept should be made an outgrowth of the work in elementary algebra. An example can be given in the field of irrational numbers. After the pupil has been taught to solve such quadratic equations as $x^2=9$, $x^2=25$, and feels that he is a master of that type

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or problem, challenge him with $x^2=7$. The response will be that there is no answer to that equation because it is impossible to find the square root of seven. At this stage one has an opportunity to develop the reason for the extension of the number concept and give meaning to the irrational number. The pupils should be told that the irrational number was so named because of the relationship of the word "irrational" to the words "crazy" and "insane," and that people who talked of such numbers were at one time thought to be insane, but that these numbers have become an integral part of our number system, just as 1, 2 and 3 are, and stress the importance of these irrational numbers in future work.

The function concept should be the basis of all work in elementary algebra. One cannot help quoting the words of Professor Keyser of Columbia University: "To be is to be related." These words should be familiar to every to every student of elementary algebra. It should be realized that all the problems of life depend upon or have an inter-relationship. Too much stress cannot be laid upon this idea in the teaching of elementary algebra. In teaching the first year of algebra one should emphasize the four ways of representing functionality: The sentence which states a law, the formula, the table, and the graph. One should stress the inter-relationship and the complete correspondence of these four methods of representing any one relationship; that is, to stress that any relationship can be represented in one of the above four ways.

This semester, in view of the fact that the pupils did not have to prepare for the Regents' examination, the writer spent a week in introducing a new unit of work, a unit on quadratic variation. All of the functions which had been discussed in class were of the linear type and as a result the pupils had achieved a very limited notion of variation, and perhaps thought that every type of variation would have to be linear in nature. To show that other types of variation and relationship exist and might be expressed, this unit of quadratic variation was decided upon.

The first lesson in the unit was begun by measuring the areas of squares whose sides were number 1, 2, 3, etc. The pupils were asked to give the relationship between the area and the side in terms of the side. They knew that the area of the rectangle equals the length times the width; since the length and the width of the square are equal they gave the relationship as follows: The area of the square may be found by multiplying one side by itself. They then expressed this relationship as the formula, $a=s^2$. Next they proceeded to graph the table which they had obtained and much to their surprise discovered that it did not give rise to a straight line, but rather to a curve. At first it seemed to them incredible. They thought that some error had been made in the table or in the plotting of the table. But when a check showed that the calculations and mechanics were correct, they decided to accept the fact as the truth.

In the study of this unit, the fact that a function may sometimes increase and sometimes decrease while the independent variable continually increases, was stressed; also that all relationships need not be linear. The relationship of the quadratic function to physics and practical problems was shown. The reason for having sights on a gun was explained. The path that a ball takes when thrown into the air was demonstrated through the use of the graphs of quadratic functions.

To bring the study of relationships closer to life, the pupil should be made to realize that one thing may be a functions of two or more other things, and that a definite change in the independent variable does not always bring with it a predictable change in the dependent variable. $A=bh$ can be used to illustrate this point. Pupils should learn that as b and h both increase or decrease a predictable change will take place in A; however, when b increase and h decreases, the change in A cannot be predicted, for it may remain constant, decrease, or increase.

It is impossible to give every detail in this study. But one cannot overemphasize the importance of relationships, the importance of being able to express them, and their application in life.

Analysis plays a very vitally important part in the teaching of algebra, even though it cannot be illustrated with as much definiteness as in geometry. Many pupils are frightened by a problem merely because of the involved language in which it is expressed. An attempt should therefore be made to teach them to digest the meaning of the statement, to break it up into simple units, to master each simple unit, segregate the important details from the unimportant, realize the relationships stated, and express them. A student who is a master of this method can with proper practice transfer the method of analysis from algebraic problems to life problems. In teaching a new type of problem this is the method to be used. However, when the type of problem becomes familiar to the student, he should be taught how to organize and correlate the data so that he can solve the problem on a lower thought level. But before standardization must come an understanding and appreciation of the method used in analyzing the problem.

In the average classroom too much time is spent on graphic representation of statistical material and not enough time on the interpretation of these graphic representations. There is no doubt that in life one is required to interpret graphs much more frequently than to make them, and as a result an attempt should be made to make the study of graphs not a purely academic and mechanical procedure, but rather one of interpretation. Once again, this is an outgrowth of the philosophy that meanings are the important things, rather than mechanics. One should prefer that pupils, when they pick up a newspaper, be able to interpret a financial graph, rather than that they know how it is made and not realize its implications.

In elementary algebra there is not much room for the development of

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spatial imagination. However, an attempt should be made to give the pupils as much of this concept as possible by showing them the meanings of various formulas which they are asked to use and manipulate, for example: $A=\frac{1}{2}h\ (b+c)$. The study of numerical trigonometry, with its angle of elevation and of depression, gives the opportunity to show the relationship of lines and angles in three-dimensional space.

Of course, no subject gives one an appreciation of the necessity for and the nature of proof as well as geometry, but no doubt there can be a little of this, even in elementary algebra. In teaching the solution of quadratic equations by the use of the formula, the teacher can present the formula without proof and state that this formula can be used in solving every quadratic equation. The writer has found it good practice to tell his pupils throughout the term that they need not believe any statement he makes simply because he makes it; he must be able to prove it. One pupil challenged him when this formula was presented and asked for the proof. Another pupil rose to the writer's defense and said that if the solutions which were obtained through the use of the formula checked the original equation every time the formula was used, then the formula must be correct. The first pupil accepted the defense. Before the end of the day, however, the teacher showed the class that even though one should work 999 equations and find that the solutions satisfied the original equation every time, this would not insure that upon the 1,000th time the solutions would once again check. This showed the pupils that one cannot generalize from a limited number of individual experiences, but one must have a more general way of solving the problem than the one given by the pupil. The class was told that in its stage of development it was impossible to show it the derivation of the formula and the proof necessary, but that in the study of intermediate algebra the formula would be proved to its complete satisfaction. However, the pupils were impressed not only with the nature of proof, but also the importance of a general proof. This idea can be brought out in a great number of situations in elementary algebra.

An attempt should be made to instill in pupils a confidence in reasoned conclusions. There is no doubt that that is a quality which too few people actually possess. Many in life are afraid to challenge statements of people who are supposed to know, even though they have come to reasoned conclusions which are directly contrary to the expressed opinions of those who are supposed to know. Usually, a teacher is to a class as these people are to the world. Pupils should be therefore encouraged to challenge the teacher's statements upon the basis of reasoned conclusions in order that they may challenge these authorities in the outside world. Pupils should be imbued with enough courage to say to a teacher, when he tells them that a conclusion which they have come

and which they have checked and know to be correct, is wrong, that beyond doubt they are right and he must be wrong. They should be taught to be firm when they are right, regardless of opposition. However, in doing this, one must be very careful to impress upon the pupils the necessity for supporting their statements with reasoned conclusions which have been checked and which they know to be correct.

The aesthetic and spiritual values of mathematics are neglected much more frequently than any other objective. One can develop, through the use of elementary algebra, a scientific spirit of open-mindedness. For example, after having taught in the field of factoring the common monomial factor and the difference between two squares, the teacher can place a factorable trinomial on the board. The pupils apply both tests for factoring which they have learned and find that these do not work. The natural conclusion is, therefore, that the problem has no solution and that the original expression is prime. Most of the class will feel that the problem cannot be done. The discussion can then be transferred to a similar situation in a scientific laboratory—a chemistry laboratory, or a physics laboratory—and the floor opened to discussion on what a scientist in such a laboratory would say and do when confronted by a similar problem. Before long the class will conclude that the fact that it cannot solve a problem does not mean that is insoluble. Perhaps even though it cannot solve it, there are others who can. The original question, then, resolves itself into these two: Is the original expression factorable or is it not factorable? If it is not factorable, of course there is nothing that can be done, but if it is factorable, what can be done about it? Shall it be left at that point, or should an attempt be made to discover the factors? Therefore this has been accomplished: There has been developed a spirit of open-mindedness upon this particular question and also an intellectual curiosity into the solution of the question, if it does have a solution. This preliminary discussion will take anywhere from fifteen to twenty minutes of a recitation period. But the writer honestly feels that this part of the lesson bears a much more vital message than the actual learning of the factors of a trinomial. It does not take a pupil in an elementary algebra class very long to learn to say, "I can't do it, but that doesn't mean that it can't be done; and if it can be done I ought to search for a method of solution." How important is this attribute of open-mindedness in life! How few stress this enough in teaching mathematics!

Permanence and invariance in mathematics should be given their due importance. The pupils should be impressed with the fact that an algebraic truth is true today, was true yesterday, and will be true tomorrow, and that time is not a factor. They should appreciate the fact that a problem solved mathematically, though done in five or six different ways, will always lead to the same solution and will notice that this is not true in other

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branches of science, particularly the social sciences.

This semester the writer used the monetary situation in this country as the basis for a comparison between mathematics and economics, showing that there were economics experts, who used different approaches to the same problem and arrived at varying and conflicting solutions, whereas in a mathematics problem five or six experts who used different methods of solution would always arrive at the same results.

The beauty of mathematical invariance should be pointed out to the student. Even an elementary algebra pupil can appreciate the beauty of the invariance of the ratios which are called the tangent, sine, or cosine of an angle. It should seem wonderful that regardless of the sizes of any number of right triangles, if one acute angle remains constant, the above mentioned ratios will be invariant.

If these immediate objectives are used, the writer feels that the ideals which have been outlined by the field committee can be achieved. Are these objectives and ideals worth-while? Most assuredly yes! Can each and every one of these be instilled in each pupil? Most likely not. However, each pupil should be affected by several of them. This can not come about with the old method of teaching. It is only through the coloring given by the instructor to the materials taught that these aims are attainable. The subject matter *per se* will not bring out these various objectives. It is only the interpretation and the method used by the teacher which can bring to the pupils such ideals as open-mindedness, reverence, and courage for truth.

ISIDORE DRESSLER.

Grover Cleveland High School.

THE ITALIAN-AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL GIRL

THOUGH we try to avoid the use of hyphens in writing of Americans, the fact remains that there are more residents of Italian origin in New York City than in any other city of the world. To what extent do they retain the characteristics of their race in language and customs? How much has their racial heritage been carried over in American life? How have they in turn been affected by the changed and changing environment of American civilization?

Staggering as the problem appears, I have attempted to arrive at some general conclusions which may have some interesting bearing in educational philosophy. Especially important is the problem in our day when the raising of the legal age limit for compulsory attendance in school has resulted in an increased enrollment of both girls and boys of Italian extraction. Ten years ago there were fewer girls of Italian extraction who reached high school and still fewer who completed high school.

It is generally admitted that boys and girls of Italian extraction present a problem to the high school teacher who has had little experience with their type. That they are a type different and distinct from the average is my thesis and I am attempting to discover some of the underlying causes for this.

The approach to this study was prompted by my teaching Italian in the Wadleigh High School. As a teacher of history my experience had been and is with mixed classes, mixed in the sense that there are different racial groups present, whereas in my Italian classes practically all the pupils come from Italian families. In such a homogeneous group the difference from the others in their reactions, responses, interests and efforts is more readily discernable.

Psychologically, the explanation lies possibly in their lack of training in "team-work" such as results from games played in America and in England. Specifically, there is no word in Italian for "sport" nor any equivalent for it. Interestingly enough, Mussolini is attempting to bring about a change in the psychology of Italians through training of the young by the introduction in the schools of American and English games. Stadia are being constructed and "sports" are becoming part of school life in Italy. Team-play and its connotations of "fair play," "good sport," "good loser" had been lacking in the Italian make-up. It will be interesting to note how far this element can change the temperament of a people.

Girls of Italian extraction present a different problem from boys. To what extent is the family, the new environment, the temperament of the race, religion, responsible. As Professor Kilpatrick has put it: "Everything in the community that affects the child influences and educates it. The home, the movies, the churches, all of these and more mold his thinking."

With this fundamental thesis in mind, I prepared a questionnaire of fifty questions and tabulated the answers in order to attempt to discover influences at work that make the Italian-American high school girl different in her thinking. "We must think of the whole child," says Professor Kilpatrick.

The following are the questions which were submitted to three classes. The pupils signed their names on the answer paper with questions 1 to 29, and did not do so in answers from 30 to 50. The latter are of a more personal nature.

QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE BE FRANK IN YOUR ANSWERS

1. (a) Last name. (b) Age. (c) Where do you live?
2. Where were you born?
3. Where was your father born, in U. S. or Italy? How old is he? (b) At what age did he come to America?
4. (a) Where was your mother born, in U. S. or Italy? How old is she? (b) At what age did she come to America?
5. Is Italian spoken at home?
6. (a) Is dialect spoken at home? (b) Is only English spoken?
7. Do Italians predominate in your neighborhood?

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8. Did your father graduate from elementary school?
9. Did your father graduate from high school?
10. Did your mother graduate from elementary school?
11. Did your mother graduate from high school?
12. Did either graduate from college?
13. Do you expect to go to college? Why not?
14. Does your father approve of going to school?
15. Would your parents approve of your going to college?
16. Would your parents approve of your going to college out of town?
17. How many times a week do you have macaroni?
18. Does your family do Italian cooking exclusively?
19. Does your family use more olive oil than butter?
20. Did you go out New Years Eve? Could you have done so?
21. Would your parents have approved?
22. Do you go to the opera. Do you go to the movies?
23. Does your father go to the opera? Does your father go to the movies?
24. What paper do you read when you do?
25. Do you have a radio? What do you turn to? What do your parents turn on?
26. Does your father play cards? Your mother? Do you?
27. If yes, which of the following: bridge, poker, scoppa, tre-sette?
28. Do you drink regularly at home: milk, wine, beer, black coffee, coffee and milk, and tea?
29. Does anybody at home have breakfast?
30. What does your father do for a living?
31. Is his work steady or irregular?
32. (a) Does your mother work at home? (b) Does your mother work out of the home?
33. Do you read novels outside of your regular school work?
34. Do you have a library at home?
35. Do you know the words and music of 6 Italian songs not learned in school?
36. Do you know the words and music of the most recent popular songs?
37. Have you a victrola at home?
38. Do you play it more than the radio?
39. Have you more opera than popular records?
40. Do you possess an English dictionary?
41. Do you go to the library often?
42. Do you go to the library to study?
43. Would you rather marry than follow a career?
44. Would your parents rather have you marry than choose a career?
45. Does your mother vote?
46. Do you belong to any school club?
47. Do you play a musical instrument?
48. Do you study singing?
49. Does anyone at home play or sing?
50. Do you go or listen to band or orchestra concerts?

Of the group questioned all but four were born in the United States, practically all in the neighborhood in which they now live. On the other hand, in practically all cases both parents were born in Italy, nearly all from Southern Italy. Add to this that these parents of girls at present attending high school came to this country at an early age, mostly all before the age of six, and we conclude that they were not imbued with the Italian culture that those who came at a mature age would carry over with them.

Let us go into this a little further. History shows us that the great wave of immigration from Italy was in the period between 1890 and 1914. Those who came earlier, in the early nineties had children born in Italy, and although the children brought little of the Italian culture with them, they received it from their parents who had been brought up in Italy. However, the parents of the present generation attending high school carried little or nothing of Italian culture directly, except as transmitted through their parents in a diluted form modified to no uncertain degree by the schooling they received here.

The answers to questions 5, 6, and 7 show that, whereas only in a few cases (1 out of 10) is grammatical Italian spoken at home by some member of the family, in most cases dialects are usually spoken in the ratio 15 to 1, and in still fewer cases is English only used. The import of these findings is very significant. It best explains to me why Italian-American students do not receive higher I Q ratings than they do, a survey of the I Q ratings of these girls having been made. The intelligence examination given them can be criticized on the grounds that unfamiliarity with the language used would lower the score.

That in the ratio of 3 to 1 they live n neighborhoods in which Italians predominate is indicative of the gradual breaking up to so-called concentrated Italian-American sections within the city, although on the other hand the tendency to live in groups still persists. And from the other questions (17, 18, 19, 20) there seems to be a carrying over of certain established family customs characteristic of Italian families. But these points do not add or transfer to American culture important elements of Italian culture, such as appreciation or creative work in the arts and music.

The results from questions 22 and 23 seem to support this conclusion. Of the pupils, only 7 have been to an opera, whereas, as was to be expected, all frequent the movies. The parents made a slightly better showing in this respect. It would be interesting to contrast these results with those in Italy. We know that open-air band concerts and open-air operas still bring these within the reach of the masses. The moving picture industry is still in its infancy over there.

A large proportion in skilled trades (mostly building and garment trades) does not indicate a cultural background, especially when we note the relatively few in the professional field.

That there is a 3 to 2 ratio in regularity of employment is an important factor in the outlook of the girl. It is the duty of the teacher, of the school, to take this into consideration in judging and planning the child's school work.

Out of 55 cases tabulated only 3 of the mothers were gainfully employed. This reflects an important characteristic, that the woman's place is in the home. It is interesting to contrast the answers to question 43 where 32 girls would choose a career to marriage. This, I believe, is a distinct effect of the new social environment in which girls of Italian parentage are brought up.

In questions 35 and 36 I attempted to find out whether the influence of the old culture was stronger under a changed environment. Fifty-six girls admitted knowing words and music of recent American popular songs and only 3 did not, whereas 37 did not know words and music of Italian songs and operatic arias while 21 did.

Forty-three did not play any musical instrument and 16 did, compared

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with 55 who did not have vocal training to only 2 who did. If this ratio persists on a large scale, we shall still have to import talent for our opera stars and musicians. Possibly the explanation may be here that men have contributed more to creative music than have women.

In the field of music appreciation the ratio is about 2 to 1. Thirty-eight have never attended or listened to a band or orchestra concert and only 20 have. In Italy, even in the small towns, concerts in the open air, in the "piazza" are very popular and contributes in no small degree to music appreciation.

As regards participation in social or community activities, the answers to questions 45 and 46 indicate a passive attitude toward social and group activities. The ratio of mothers not voting to those voting is 3 to 2 (33 to 26), and 44 girls who do not participate or belong to a school club as compared to 14 who do. A possible explanation is that in this case the girl can not take part in extra-curricular activities because she may have to hurry home to help the mother. If this be the case, the girl is denied whatever benefit may arise from club activities, such as *esprit de corps*, sharing of effort, and coöperation.

Taking all in all, there thus seems to be a persistence in the carrying over of language and customs modified only slightly under the circumstances of the new environment. The influences of their racial heritage seems to be practically nil because of the fact that there could be no direct transference inasmuch as the parents of the present generation attending high school came to this country at an age when the older environment could not have molded their thinking. The restriction of immigration strengthens this position.

The changed American environment, though penetrating through many established customs and traditions, seems to be making more permanent inroads. An interesting study was made, for instance, on the effect of English speech in homes where Italian or dialect was spoken. Curiously enough, many new words have appeared, hybrids, which are neither Italian in dialect nor English, such words as "la groceria" for grocery, "la pipa" for pipe used for water or gas. The list is long. It may be that the blending of the two cultures may lead to one neither American nor Italian, but still smack of both in a superficial way.

The question raised recently by Professor Kilpatrick in his address before a group of elementary school principals gathered at Teachers College sums up what the future may hold in store: "Is the school to wait until society has changed and then adapt itself to the new civilization or shall the school have some positive part in bringing about and directing these changes? We cannot assert how much the school can do in bringing about these changes, but we can direct the lines along which this new civilization develops."

The introduction of the study of Italian in the high schools coupled with the increase of the number of students of Italian extraction who are choosing Italian in larger numbers, gives the school an opportunity of bringing closer together contributions of Italian and American cultures—a "new" civilization. Through the courses in Italian there can be a transference of the racial heritage more so than is the case through the family under the circumstances noted in this survey. Of course, the fact that the environment under which the child lives cannot be brought under the control of the schools makes the assimilation less effective, the racial heritage is thus transmitted in a diluted form, resulting possibly in only a veneer. Experience would thus be vicarious and not real, the environment limited to the classroom, not in all the phases of their every-day life. It makes a difference.

MAZZINI S. LAPOLLA.

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ADAPTATION OF INSTRUCTION IN GERMAN TO ILL-ADJUSTED PUPILS

THERE was a good deal in the newspapers a few days ago about the nineteen-month-old twins, one of whom was "conditioned" while the other was allowed to spend his time as most babies do. As I read the reports and the comments of Professor Dewey and of Dr. Stewart Patton it seemed to me that the treatment of the "conditioned" baby is comparable to what we teachers must do: we must "condition" our pupils, i. e., provide stimulus and environment that will quicken and strengthen each individual child. However, our task really involves a re-conditioning, for the children come to us when a multitude of habits have already taken deep root. Our task demands of the teacher imagination, alertness, resourcefulness, friendliness and the practical knowledge of human reactions that only experience can give. We are often discouraged, but we are not dismayed except when we are faced with classes so large that individual contact is almost impossible. If the city is sincere in its desire to improve the instruction in our city schools, classes of moderate, reasonable size are the very first necessity, incomparably more important than material equipment.

USUAL METHODS IMPRACTICABLE

In our department of German there is such a small number of pupils that it is not practicable to form classes on the basis of ratings in intelligence tests. In our classes the bright, the average and the dull sit side by side. For the same reason it is not possible to divide the pupils according to the various courses offered by the school. Therefore our help to the ill-adjusted pupils is dependent upon acquaintance with the individual girls, but some group treatment has also been developed.

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Effect of the Changed Aim of Instruction, Especially on Slow Pupils

The possibilities of our influence upon our pupils have been materially increased by the fact that the city has changed the aim of foreign language instruction. Emphasis is now placed upon comprehension of the language, knowledge of the life, customs and country of the people speaking that language. Much less time than formerly is spent on translation and on formal grammar. This changed aim makes possible an entirely different appeal to pupil interest and pupil ability. Groups of pupils who were unable to cope with the abstractions of grammar can be, and are, interested in the customs and ideals of the peoples under discussion. We have found it most helpful to have the duller pupil bring in material in English bearing upon cultural aspects of our language study. While she is being encouraged in this interest she is also becoming accustomed to the atmosphere of the foreign language class. The strange sounds become less confusing. One common interest has been established; the next step does not seem quite so formidable.

Slow Pupils Helped by Encouraging Intelligent Questions

We have found that one of the greatest helps toward winning the confidence of the different pupils is to encourage them to ask questions. From the first day we discourage indiscriminate volunteer answers and urge pupils to ask to have statements, answers and words explained. We make it clear that if no questions are asked, we assume that everyone in the class understands. We praise pupils whose questions show that they have been reasoning, comparing or observing closely. Since we allow so much questioning, we maintain that no pupil has the right to delay the class by answering: "I didn't understand that." We find that this method helps three groups that are sometimes a problem:

1. Slow pupils feel that there is no disgrace in not understanding at once. They find that apathy leads to trouble.
2. The merely inattentive, lazy pupils find that the class resents their causing delay and breaking the stream of interest.
3. The bright pupils who sometimes tend to grow restless if too much time is devoted to the dull or inattentive are given an incentive for intensive study and are thereby helped to attain a scholarly attitude.

Study Helps for Pupils Lacking Initiative

Each week we assign a certain portion of text to be read extensively. We found that the duller pupils were confused and discouraged when they had to tackle an assignment without class preparation. Thereupon we devised for each bit of extensive reading a study guide. These guides vary in form. For example, they may be:

1. A brief introduction in English.
2. An outline, directing pupils to complete sub-topics indicated.

3. Vocabulary lists, directing pupils to state significance of words in the particular text.
4. False-true tests, directing pupils to quote from text the authority for their answers.
5. Matching exercises.
6. Multiple-choice exercises, with directions as in 4.

We found that these study helps transformed the attitude of the duller pupils toward the assignment. They succeeded and gained interest and encouragement.

Chorus Reading for Shy Pupils

Chorus reading helps timid and slow pupils to overcome their difficulties. They gain confidence. The whole group receives more practice than would otherwise be possible.

Committee Work

Many an able girl has become a problem because her native ability has not been given a satisfactory and purposeful goal. In classes where there is a group of active, bright girls in with a number of slow pupils, the bright girls are in danger of losing interest and of becoming restless. We have been successful in setting such groups to work as committees on various projects.

Plays for the Superior but the Restless; Also for the Shy

I. Plays: A committee is given a suitable text. The girls are told that the play must be simplified and shortened to meet the limitations of the recitation period. This point is important, because by this means the girls are given a four-fold task. They must not only memorize, but also discriminate, understand and use their acquired skill in the foreign language. The girls profit greatly by the drill they give each other and later on give pleasure, inspiration and practice in comprehension to their slower comrades, when these plays are presented in the classroom or at club meetings. This device has also been of help to the diffident, studious girl. She is too shy to act, but enjoys collaborating with the others and later can serve as prompter. In this way she becomes an active member of the group. We have observed that participation in such plays reacts favorably on pupils' classroom work.

Current Events

Usually it is the brighter pupil who brings clippings and pictures for the bulletin board. However, we find that we can capture the interest and coöperation of the restless, dull pupil by allowing her to arrange the bulletin board. She likes the activity and involuntarily becomes interested in the pictures she handles.

Scrap-Books for More Active Types

The interest of many an ill-adjusted pupil has been secured through scrap-book work. With a little direction, really interesting material is intelligently assembled by slow and dull pupils. It is best to appeal to the child's vocational or avocational interests. For example, dressmaking girls: Scrap-book of traditional peasant costumes, contrast with modern cos-

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tumes. Vocabulary of clothes. Art course girls: Scrap-books of modern German architecture or modern German furniture or landscapes by German painters. Musical girls: German composers. Commercial girls: German trade centers.

Special Help for the Individual Pupil

Homework assignments are modified to meet the limitations of the slow pupil or the handicapped girl in various ways. One device worked out especially well this term. Lillian T., of German 225, complained of being confused in her work because of a weak foundation. She was excused from regular assignments but was told to re-read her German text as she would read a novel, starting with page one, and to write only those exercises which required blanks to be filled in. She wrote this work in a special notebook, which the teacher corrected daily. The improvement was very satisfactory.

Correlation with Work in English

Pupils are urged to find good English translations of German poems and compare German texts with English books of similar content. Although it is usually the brighter girl who contributes such material we have had several cases where this appeal reached the dreamy, inattentive girl who likes to read but shirks definite class routine.

Help for Different Types

Pupils who are absent frequently because of ill health are put under the wing of a bright girl. The latter mails her the homework assignments and goes over the absentee's homework when she returns.

When we have spelling bees, vocabulary contests and similar rather mechanical work we select one of the dull, discouraged girls to ask the questions. She is always immensely pleased and feels greatly encouraged. Of course the reaction is purely psychological, but it often leads to renewed effort.

We give the restless girl an outlet for her energies, putting her in charge of the housekeeping. One of our teachers makes a practice of creating a pause before starting a new topic. She has the window opened, desks cleared, and asks the class to prepare itself to enjoy something new.

One of our teachers makes a practice of glancing at the homework before it is handed in. She has carelessly written and badly corrected work rewritten and emphasizes the correct technique for preparing such a lesson.

There is a deaf-mute in one of our German classes and several totally deaf girls. For these we prepare special cards with blackboard assignments to occupy them while the class reads. Often they formulate questions on the text that the class is reading. The other girls read, amend and answer these questions. Recently I tried the experiment of letting one of the deaf girls ask the questions in a vocabulary bee. She read her classmates' lips and was very happy to find that she could join them successfully. Of course, we

place deaf girls where they can watch both the teacher and their classmates.

Stutterers are helped by being told just what passage they are to read aloud in class on the following day. This gives them opportunity for special preparation and relieves them of the strain of suspense and surprise. We call on them for short passages, but call on them every day.

We find that it helps to make private "contracts" with the extremely shy, nervous girl. For example: in the main we discourage volunteer answers, but we tell these very diffident girls to give us a signal when they can answer. Or we tell them that we shall call on them at the very beginning of the hour, to relieve them of suspense. After the ordeal of reciting is over they are able to relax and attend to the rest of the recitation by other members of the class.

Many dull children who cannot reason are able to memorize. We encourage them to learn by heart anecdotes, riddles, verses. In this way they do acquire something and contribute to class interest.

The girl who loves to show off, but is not accurate or persevering is often stimulated to do better work by participating in club work. If her singing or acting is praised she often feels "appreciated" and can be made to sense that greater opportunity lies ahead of her if she will learn to use the tools offered by classroom instruction.

The child who is "different" is often unhappy. If the teacher finds girls in her group who have come to America only recently she can do much to help them and at the same time add to the knowledge and interests of the whole group. This term Anna F., whose mother runs a German employment agency, brought German newspapers and bills of fare; Marie G., who still speaks English with a decided accent, brought her German school books and illustrated story books; Paula H., brought her German translations of Uncle Tom's Cabin and Little Women; Regina W., told about the Gymnasium in Vienna. The attitude of the class and of the girl of foreign birth is changed by this interchange of experience.

Effect of Success in One Field on Other Subjects

One of our teachers whose major interest has been French and who teaches both French and German classes states that she finds the correlation between success in German classes and in French classes is perfect. A 90 per cent French student almost invariably receives an equally high mark in German; a girl failing in French almost always does poor work in German. If a failing pupil can be given a greater interest in one language, it always improves her grades in the other.

Success As Measured by Promotion

Our department statistics show a rather small percentage of failure. We have an average of 88 per cent promotion. Of those who fail (largely

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due to excessive absence), never more than one per cent drop the subject. At the end of the third year we require all the girls in the class to take the Regents' Examinations, whether they need the credits or not. Our Regents' results for the past five years have averaged 95 per cent.

No new type of work is in progress, but we are planning to devise more study helps and enlarge the scope of committee work among our pupils.

Probable Success of Our Methods if Tried Elsewhere

The devices outlined above have been adopted by several teachers who visited our classes. Two teachers who have been appointed to other schools have told us that they tried some of these things in the new environment and found them successful. Of course, the sincerity and alertness of the teacher is more important that the technique.

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GESTALT PSYCHOLOGY: A SURVEY

Upon entering an old cathedral one senses the total effect much before taking up into oneself, in broad outlines, the spatial arrangement. Only after viewing it for a longer time are the details and divisions perceived. And then only after lengthy research and close inspection is the plan disclosed by which the architect and artisans, apprentices and laborers brought the cathedral to completion—how the large blocks must carry the walls; how the stone is joined to stone; how the filling is inserted and the mortar binds; how the sleek thrusts and strong piers carry the arches; how high windows break into the architecture and let the sun pour in through its polychromatic glass and play on mosaic and color; how the noble form and light tracery and ornamentation join and compose the *raison d'être* of the entirety.

Thus it is the purpose of this paper to give that first sense of the whole field—an orientation into Gestalt psychology. With a sense of the total, after maturation, the many ideas and implications of the system may be discerned.

It is only within recent years that a system of psychology has been proposed from which neither mind nor body is excluded. Both are reduced to energy. The immediate origin of Gestalt psychology, as an organized system, began with the work of Max Wertheimer (1912). Yet many of its principles may be found clearly stated and discussed by biologists, theologists, psychologists and pedagogues during the 19th century[1] and suggested hundreds of years earlier, even in St. Augustine.

Gestalt psychology is part of the new conception of Nature, just as relativity and organismic biology. Indeed, ethics and religion must join this change which has been taking place in all branches of human thought. Its position states that the whole response of the integrated dynamic organism is the determinative factor in the psychology of human beings and of higher animals.

Gestalt may be expressed in English by the words *form, pattern, whole, configuration* or *shape*. Gestalts are, according to V. Ehrenfelds, those phsychic conditions and those phenomena the characteristic peculiarities and effects of which are not constructable from the peculiarities and effects of their so-called parts. It is the descriptive unit which applies the logic of relativity.

Based upon experimentation and studies of animals (chickens, goldfish, rats and apes) and of human beings, the Gestalt psychologist rejects the methods which destroy the properties of the experiential wholes with which individuals actually deal in their lives.

This new conception, the organic whole, must be viewed not as a problem or fact, but as a solution or principle; something in terms of which to explain. The concept of a whole naturally implies the concept of parts or members and raises the question of relationship between the whole and its parts. There are theories which imply that the parts explain the whole, but they neglect entirely an important feature of the whole, namely, its organization or unity which its parts alone do not possess. When parts combine into wholes, new phenomena come into existence and the parts lose their identity. The whole, with its inherent organization, must be assumed in the beginning. All experience from the moment the individual is conceived is patterned. The properties of the wholes are in no sense summative. The mere addition of one thing to another never gives a pattern. If two previously unrelated objects are brought together within the visual field, they may produce a pattern—a total meaningful whole, but the whole will be different from the two objects brought together. Any experience or phenomenon may be an example—the atom; salt (NaCl); a mathematical formula; the human face; music; the creative arts, and the like.

Parts, on the other hand, derive their properties from the whole. Warmth, for example, exists only in terms of coldness and *vice versa;* in fact, either one does not exist by itself. Each is derived from the organization of the field. Logically, the parts of every whole are dependent, since it is contradictory that there can be parts without a whole. It is the whole that determines the behavior of the parts. Even the individual cell depends upon the surrounding field properties for its function, speed and tendencies of growth. The relative segregation of the parts within a larger whole is interpreted as differentiation or individuation.

[1] James Croll: "What determines molecular motion—the fundamental problem of nature." *Philosophical Magazine*, 1872.
S. Haughton: "The Principle of Least Action, illustrated by animal mechanics; being three papers delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain in 1871."
G. J. Romanes: "Thoughts on Religion," 1879.
J. Paley: "Natural Theology." (Chapter on Relations.)

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The pattern which exists may evolve into another pattern—but wholes always emerge as wholes. The unity of the organism throughout its growth is always maintained. Before movement is possible, however, a dynamic whole provides the beginning, the direction and the end of the movement. These three points of reference are implied in the principle of least action. In applying this principle to particular modes of behavior, use of the concepts goal and pattern must be made because action takes place with respect to a remote end, within a given configuration of stresses.

Any movement and all behavior is ascribed to a differential of potentials of stresses or tensions as the case may be, and proceeds over the quickest and shortest route to the point at which an equilibrium is established. The particular organization determines the position of the end and the direction of the action. The end of any performance of the organism is the point at which an equilibrium (of tensions) is established. "Behavior is an effort of the organism to relieve tensions." (R. H. Wheeler, "Readings in Psychology," 1930.) As long as the goal is not attained the organism strives toward it.

It has been attempted above to present generally the universal laws of the dynamics which govern wholes as they are found in nature. The human being is a part of nature and is governed by it—and by the same laws of dynamics.

To teachers, that problem of psychology which is most interesting is learning. Here, too, the universal laws of dynamics must be applied. The system of energy (the learner) must be examined and the actual factors that disturb that system in any given state must be determined before learning may take place.

In order that learning may occur, the learner must be under tension toward some goal. The equilibrium of potentials must have been disturbed. This disturbance is caused by the growth potential for "there is no activity of man that does not depend upon the growth potential." (R. H. Wheeler, "Science of Psychology," 1929.) Thus, for learning to occur there must be maturation, external stimuli, and the desire to learn.

R. H. Wheeler, in his "Science of Psychology," summarizes the laws of learning. They are restatements of the laws of dynamics. They are quoted here because they have been completely and tersely stated.

Law I. "The law of field properties states that the whole is more than the sum of its parts."

Law II. "Parts derive their properties from the whole of which they are members."

Law III. "The whole governs the activities of its parts."

Law IV. "Skill along any line comes about through the individuation of specialized movements from mass action.

Law V. "Wholes evolve as wholes in the learning process."

Law VI. "Learning follows the law of least action."

Law VII. "Learning follows the law of maximum work." (Movements once acquired are not forgotten so long as stimulation continues.)

Law VIII. "Learning is a configurational response."

Learning, then, occurs when the equilibrium of tensions within the learner (a system of energy) is disturbed. It takes place according to the laws of dynamics. Thus, when tension is created by outward stimulation no learning takes place until the goal, in its configuration, is perceived. *When the end and the direction thereto is perceived learning takes place.* This perceiving of one detail of a situation in its relation to the total situation is called insight. This insight is an illumination, an *Aufblitz*, an instantaneous intuition into the essential relational structure of the whole. It is immediate, sudden and in a sense timeless; as soon as it is complete it is immediate, and it does not exist at all until it is complete. If the relations are not perceived by the learner, no learning will take place. Learning, then, is a growth of insight. This growth of insight must be stimulated in accordance with the rate of maturation in the learner.

More practically, Gestalt phychology offers pedagogical means which must be taken into account in our methodology. Motivation, for example, no longer presents a problem. There is need for a scheme of rewards and punishments. Learning is its own reward or there is no learning. Every performance has its own end or there is no performance and this end in itself is the sole motive for learning. "Give meaning and worth to the task itself and you have motivation." (A. W. Lay, "Experimentelle Didaktik," 1897.)

Then, too, there is suggested the principle that learning is doing. This is the guiding principle of the German *Tatschule* as opposed to the *Sitzschule*. It is this conception of the activity of the human being who wants the opportunity to resolve his growth potential and who is always looking for action to relieve tension that produced *Gesamtunterricht* and *ganzheitlichen Unterricht* in Germany.

The universal laws of dynamics and the particular rendering of the laws of learning by Gestalt psychology are applicable to every activity of man and every school subject in the curriculum. No work has yet been published in English, with the set purpose of applying Gestalt psychology to pedagogy or to the didactics of classroom subjects. Dr. Abram Lipsky, in his article "*Gestalt* in Language Pedagogy" (HIGH POINTS, November, 1932) indicated some of the possible applications.

In March, 1933, there was published in Potsdam "*Theorie und Praxis eines ganzheitlichen, analytisch-synthetischen Unterrichts*" by Dr. Johannes Wittman, who is the director of the psychological institute in the university at Kiel.

Professor Wittman says that in order to fulfill the task of education the mental life of the human being must be understood from a new "or-

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ganismic" viewpoint. To quote from page XX of his Introduction:

"The development of scientific psychology has now led to the recognition of one fact, namely, *that all mental life arises in wholes, expires in wholes, strives for the creation of new wholes, yet is determined in this by previously constructed and effective mental wholes which are capable of being reproduced in the present.*"

Professor Wittman then proceeds to divide the development of the youth into three stages; the first stage continues until the child is 8 or 9 years old; the second stage until about the beginning of pubescence; and the third stage is that of the adult.

In this work Professor Wittman restricts himself to the first stage and here only to the instruction in perception, knowledge of the homeland (Heimatkunde), arithmetic, reading and writing. There is no general book on pedagogy from this viewpoint and no work in any particular school subject, such as the high school subjects, English, mathematics, natural sciences, modern languages,[2] social sciences and the graphic arts.

Before concluding, an important question in the mind of the reader might be anticipated. The reader might ask, "What need is there for the application of Gestalt psychology to the teaching of particular school subjects? Why should I change the method? All of the students have passed the examinations given, and the Regents' examinations, too."

That the student passes a teacher's test or a Regents' examination there is no denial. Yet, exactly what do these tests measure? The construction of the ordinary classroom quiz or end-term test is usually a haphazard affair. The technique of test-making is an involved process of construction and checking and the practical teacher usually does not know the technique or has neither the time nor the inclination to make a reliable and valid test. Besides, tests are usually constructed to suit the method and are limited to the specific *method and material in the form taught*. If the standards of the test are lowered and adjusted, as they usually are, to the group tested, any method will assure passing the examination. But is this to be considered as a measurement of success or failure in learning? Indeed, with bright pupils who have the desire to learn and good material any method will be successful. However, this type of testing, including Regents' examinations, is not a valid indication or measurement of the success or failure of the method of instruction.

In addition, there is the, unfortunately, little-known principle of economy and hygiene of learning (Professor Paul Radosavljevich). It recommends the least expenditure of psycho-physical energy on the part of student and teacher. Granted that a school subject may be learned by means of any method whatsoever, that one must be chosen which will afford the desired results most easily, efficiently and hygienically. To be sure, the material, the age of the pupil and the rate of progress in exercising are essential conditions in the process. Those methods now in use which have been established by tradition must give way to the new organismic approach if it can be shown to be preferable. And indeed it can. Teachers must become familiar with this new concept in their particular subject. They will soon find that they are adjusting their classroom instruction—with a view to the total unity: beginning, direction and goal.

[2] There is a text in elementary German now being used in manuscript form at Seward Park High School written by Dr. A. Lipsky and Miss E. Reifler which embodies the principles of Gestalt psychology.

There is appended to this paper a suggested bibliography, the purpose of which is to enable the reader to find sources for the Gestalt theory in general and its implications and, further, for its particular application to given fields of knowledge.

It is hoped that some insight into the Gestalt problem as a whole has been gained and that this small effort will be supplemented by papers dealing more specifically with the application of Gestalt principles.

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EMANUEL SCHWARTZ.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

HIGH POINTS

Personality Testing

On December 7, 1932, Grover Cleveland High School experimented with a personality test entitled "What Kind of a Year Are You Having?" by Professor Percival M. Symonds of Teachers College, Columbia University. The particular type test used was Form A. In order that it might be given under uniform conditions, it was given during the Health Education period, classes being seated in the gymnasiums. All together, 4,066 pupils took the test.

The test is one of a series developed by Professor Symonds for measuring the personality adjustment of high school pupils. He was particularly interested in trying it out on a large group such as we have in our school, in order to see what effect it would have on the standardization of his material. The particular nature of the scale used is such that it can be applied to test the morale of the school as a whole or of individual cases. It has value also for revealing by a quickly accomplished survey, pupils who are badly adjusted in the school and who need more detailed study. By permission of Professor Symonds the test was printed in our own print shop. This made it possible to conduct the test despite the limited financial resources of Grover Cleveland High School which is still a very young school.

The individual scores obtained on these tests were noted on the permanent record sheets of the students and were referred to as the P. Q. It was our purpose to repeat the test at various intervals to see whether the P. Q. is permanent or variable and also to find out, by referring to the pupil's character records, whether there was a close correlation between the P. Q. and disciplinary cases. According to the rating scale, pupils with high scores are in one way or another discontented and unhappy, this by their own admission. It was remarkable that the test, given to 4,066 pupils, showed that there were comparatively few such cases among our student body. The scores range from 0 to 9.5. The mean score is 4.55. We have no other students with whom to compare this, but considering its position in the scale as a whole, it seemed to indicate that for the most part our children are contented with home and school environment. Out of the entire number there were only fifteen outstanding cases of children who admitted they were unhappy. The accompanying Exhibit A shows the form of the test; Exhibit B shows the score and frequency of scores; Exhibit C is the scale value of each item of the test.

In January, 1934, we decided to re-test the seniors who were candidates for graduation. Although a little more than a year had elapsed between the first and second application of the test, a rather surprising uniformity was shown by the results, the difference in many cases being a very small decimal.

SENIOR CLASS—JANUARY, 1934

Difference between original and subsequent scores

1	5.	to	5.49	
1	4.5	"	4.99	
2	2.5	"	2.99	
1	2.	"	2.49	2
9	1.5	"	1.99	6
9	1.	"	1.49	9
20	.5	"	.99	15
20	.0	"	.49	18
	.0	"	.0	3

Number whose score increased, Total—63.

Number whose score decreased, Total 50.

Number whose score remained unchanged, Total 3.

It is seen that 76 cases or 56.88% of the total showed less than one unit change after one year.

This test, therefore, seems to have sufficient reliability to indicate fixed situations and to find out any situations which have shown a marked change. In the cases of only seven members of the senior class did the test show evidence of a serious change since the test was first given. There were some individuals in the graduating class who did not take the original test and hence admission of new pupils accounts for the increased register.

The conclusions from the results indicate that this test is a working instrument for getting a bird's eye view of the student body as a whole and for ascertaining the relation between the unhappy pupils and the general student body. To what extent this apparent adjustment of students is due to inertia I am at present unable to state, but since our student body is rather alert and critical, I am inclined to believe that it represents a fairly good picture of the attitude of our pupils toward life.

C. A. TONSOR,
Principal.
Grover Cleveland High School.

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EXHIBIT A

WHAT KIND OF A YEAR ARE YOU HAVING?

A Series of Statesments of Pupil Adjustment Attitudes

By PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS, Teachers College, Columbia University

Name _____ Date _____

School _____ Class and Section _____

Age _____ years Last Birthday _____

Home Address _____

On this sheet are statements that pupils have made concerning their school and home. Place a CHECK before each statement that you could truthfully have said about yourself. Place a CROSS before each statement that you are certain does not apply to you. Place a QUESTION MARK before each statement about which you are doubtful. DOUBLE CHECK the one statement that best describes your point of view. If none of these statements exactly or completely expresses your own point of view write a brief statement beneath them that tells in your own words what kind of a year you are having.

The purpose of this sheet is to help evaluate the work of your school and home in providing a satisfactory educational environment for you.

_____1. This year is the most eventful year of my life, but not all of it is roses. Both winter and summer have been new experiences.
_____2. My life is sometimes happy and sometimes blue, but on the whole I'm quite cheerful.
_____3. This year is the happiest I have ever lived as far as school and home life are concerned.
_____4. School at the present time is very enjoyable. My outlook on life is one of hopeful expectancy and desire. This year is a bit easier than other school years.
_____5. Life is O. K. Outside of a few minor troubles life is rather bright.
_____6. On the whole I really consider this year the best of my life so far.
_____7. Interesting. Am getting older so I realize that there are more responsibilities.
_____8. Life for me this year hasn't been quite up to the mark.
_____9. Happiness and good fortune have been almost constant companions this year.
_____10. Life is neither so good nor so bad.
_____11. It has been a happy one for the greater part of the year, but in one place very, very unhappy.
_____12. Life is getting too fast for me.
_____13. This year is one of the happiest and most satisfactory of my life.
_____14. Such a life is not worth living.
_____15. This year seems to be one of my worst years.
_____16. This year is in some ways better and some ways worse. It is about average and could have been worse.
_____17. My attitude toward life this year has been varied. There have been specific times when everything seemed to go wrong. Then, at times, I feel perfectly content.
_____18. I hate my life.
_____19. I am thoroughly disgusted with my life this year.
_____20. Outside of school life things are terrible.
_____21. My life isn't at its best this year. I grow bored often and wish things at home looked better for the future than they do.
_____22. I think this is a most uninteresting year.

_____

_____

_____

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EXHIBIT B

Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency
.0	3	5.0	84
.9	2	5.1	78
1.0	2	5.2	122
1.1	0	5.3	70
1.2	1	5.4	38
1.3	0	5.5	86
1.4	0	5.6	72
1.5	3	5.7	84
1.6	4	5.8	43
1.7	6	5.9	47
1.8	6	6.0	30
1.9	19	6.1	27
2.0	9	6.2	24
2.1	20	6.3	14
2.2	46	6.4	30
2.3	16	6.5	19
2.4	33	6.6	15
2.5	53	6.7	8
2.6	58	6.8	5
2.7	32	6.9	12
2.8	75	7.0	6
2.9	66	7.1	6
3.0	87	7.2	4
3.1	85	7.3	8
3.2	86	7.4	2
3.3	74	7.5	1
3.4	104	7.6	4
3.5	118	7.7	1
3.6	119	7.8	2
3.7	140	7.9	0
3.8	132	8.0	4
3.9	122	8.1	2
4.0	97	8.2	2
4.1	115	8.3	2
4.2	92	8.4	0
4.3	158	8.5	3
4.4	132	8.6	0
4.5	134	8.7	0
4.6	149	8.8	0
4.7	126	8.9	0
4.8	109	9.0	1
4.9	156	9.5	1

Key—Accurate Scale Values
(To be used where use is made of individual scores)

Item	Form A	Form B
1	2.9	4.4
2	4.3	3.1
3	0.6	9.6
4	2.1	3.6
5	3.2	1.7
6	1.0	8.5
7	3.5	5.6
8	6.5	7.6
9	1.4	7.1
10	5.5	4.3
11	4.6	9.3
12	7.3	10.4
13	0.8	0.6
14	9.5	10.2
15	9.4	2.9
16	5.3	0.8
17	6.2	6.3
18	10.5	1.1
19	10.2	2.2
20	8.6	5.0
21	7.5	6.3
22	8.3	8.5

Report on a Science Project Exhibit, January, 1934

An exhibition of projects done by pupils in General Science and Biology in DeWitt Clinton High School during the term ending January, 1934, was held in the Exhibition Hall of the school during the third week in January.

This was all voluntary work. The number of exhibitors, 473, indicates the wide-spread interest in individual project work on the part of the pupils. No prizes were offered and the an-

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nouncement of the exhibition was not made until a few weeks before the date set, and after the majority of the projects were either completed or well under way. Accordingly there were no artificial stimuli acting. The fact, however, that many pupils of some teachers and few pupils of others engaged in project work indicated that the encouragement, attitude, and spirit of the teacher undoubtedly had much to do in kindling the enthusiasm of the pupils.

The projects in General Science were chiefly made either to illustrate topics being taught or to illustrate application of principles that were further afield, suggested, perhaps, by reading or discussions with fellow pupils and the teacher. Most of the projects in General Science were construction projects. The projects were mostly done at home or in connection with club work. Some of these projects of the General Science pupils (first-year pupils) were crude and some were quite elaborate, but all these projects bore the ear-marks of individual thought in adapting material at hand to illustrate a principle. Almost every conceivable material was used in constructing Bunsen burners, and many devices employed to control the mixture of gas and air. All had to pass the test of actual use. In like manner there was exhibited a variety of fire extinguishers.

The project room, a room set aside for the first time during this term for work of superior boys in Biology owed its success in large part to Miss Dorothy Tuthill who also has been invaluable in arranging and managing the exhibition. She has been asked to tell of the projects engaged in by these boys, and by the boys in the biology clubs. Many of these boys are more mature than the General Science pupils and the projects instead of being largely constructional are chiefly experimental in character.

Here follows Miss Tuthill's report:

The exhibition was divided into three groups: the project work done by pupils in General Science, the projects carried on in the project room, mostly biological, during the term, and experiments and problems carried on by members of Biology clubs.

In the General Science group the list of projects included, besides many Bunsen burners and fire extinguishers, Cartesian divers, maps of time belts of the United States, models of gills of fish, dissected gills of fish, fireless cookers, radio receiving sets, balanced aquaria, crushed tin cans to show the effects of air pressure. Specially noteworthy exhibits were a working model of a draw-bridge, a hand-made microscope, and a long section of a piston to show the stroke cycle. This last model was electrically lit from behind so that the light followed the stroke, being blue for the spark, red for the actual explosion and white for the intake and out-take strokes. Another good model was a balloon with the car made of a "lily" cup.

The Aero Club exhibited some beautifully made small scale models of various airships, and a silver cup won at a previous exhibit. One of the Annex air clubs exhibited a collection of flying models. These were strung on a wire across the center of the room so that they hung over our heads. They attracted much favorable attention and comment.

The Biology Project Room exhibits were all individual. These projects are undertaken because the boy really wants to carry on a given problem. He selects his own problem, and, under guidance, his own methods of work. A written report on every project is required to be filed. Only those projects which attained a certain standard of excellence were accepted for exhibition. Each pupil was responsible for his entire entry—set-up, labels, getting the project in place, and caring for it (in the event it needed care, as in the case of live animals and plants), and for removing it after the exhibition. The range of problems undertaken was quite wide. Each project shown was well worked out and of value. It would be impossible, however, in a short review to do more than touch the high lights.

The problem of inheritance according to Mendelian laws was undertaken by a number of boys working with different organisms and with different characters. There were two entries in breeding mice. One showed complete dominance of the "agouti" character; the other showed the incomplete dominance of a color over albinism. These animals were exhibited with typed legends explaining the experiment and showing the results attained.

In the plant field, yellow, green, smooth-coated, and wrinkled-coated pea seeds were placed in small glass vials mou... priate labels. The plan... was worked out for color alone, ... character of coat alone and for the two characters together.

A set of clay models to show the stages of development of the egg from the one-celled stage through the gastrula stage, each stage with its own label, was much admired.

A variation, growing out of the problem of Mendelian characters, in plants, dwarfness and tallness, furnished the basis for another experiment. Peas from dwarf plants and peas from tall plants were grown. The seedlings were taken up, cleaned, and mounted in preservative in jars. The place of variation causing dwarfness or tallness was located as the internodes of the stem.

Another experiment was modelled after that of Dr. Asa Shafer, of the University of Kansas, to show the comparison of the wanderings of lost men and paramoecia. The boys carried out the details of the experiment on fellow students, tracing their paths when they were blindfolded and told to walk in a straight line.

The effect of heat on the growth of bacteria was the topic of an experiment to show environmental effects.

The stages in the development of the bean seed were displayed in another exhibit. The seeds were planted and cared for by the pupil. Every time a new development appeared a seedling was taken up, cleaned and mounted in a test tube. The series ran from the seed through the two-leaved stage with the cotyledons all absorbed.

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The test tubes were fastened on a card background on which the labels were placed. The whole was set on a wooden base.

One of our boys conceived the idea of portraying the animals of past ages. He took two very small museum jars. In these he pasted typed labels denoting the geologic ages and the approximate number of years ago that the age was current. Above each label he placed flat against the glass a clay model of the dominant form of animal life extant at that time. The jar was then filled with white sand which provided a very good background for the clay models and also for the labels. Since everything is inside the glass it is a very usable demonstration for class work and we expect to put it to use during the coming term. The accompany this the same boy made a solid black wheel with a double window on one side. Through the top window the characteristic form of life are shown. Through the lower window the name of the geologic age appears. As the wheel revolves the succession of ages with their characteristic life forms is unrolled.

The experimental production of rickets through diet control furnished the basis of one of the problems. The rat under observation was fed a diet lacking the necessary vitamin, the control rat was fed a normal diet.

Exhibits from the biology clubs were almost uniformly good.

A demonstration was set up of drugs used in medicine and a lay-out of the various materials used and the steps in actually using a new combination of hypnotic and anaesthetic worked out by two boys was of much interest. They have tried the combination out on laboratory animals and have very good results.

One of the boys arranged in a group on a table in the center of the room, plants which had been grown in our plant room and which he had had the care of for the term. These plants included a begonia with a spread of 15 inches, a dracena, pipe-plants, ivies, and some others.

An exhibit of the materials used and the steps in making agar-agar medium for the growth of bacteria was very well set up. A series of microphotographs of various bacteria accompanied this. There were also microphotographs of various algae found in the lot back of the school and in the nearby woods of Van Cortlandt Park. The photographs were all made by the exhibitor from slides prepared for the most part by one of the other Biology Squad members.

One club set up again its winning exhibit from the Childrens' Science Fair. This comprised two series of microphotographs, taken over a number of terms. One series dealt with the cell as the unit of structure; the other, with the cell as the unit of reproduction.

An apparatus from one of the Annex clubs demonstrated the correct set-up for taking microphotographs.

A collection of leaves from the southeastern part of the United States was arranged by an Annex biology field club.

There were also normal tadpoles and those fed with pituitrin. The results showed tadpoles much larger than normal, but still tadpoles, not frogs.

Two very excellent exhibits were the articulated skeletons of a fox skull and of an entire chicken.

One of the boys in the Biology Experimental Club demonstrated a moving picture reel which he had taken of the circulation in the tail of a fish. The film was very good.

A collection of insects — mostly moths and butterflies—was set up by the Biology Field club at the Main building. In a cabinet they also had a collection of the leaves and small branches of common trees of this locality.

The attendance at the exhibition was unexpectedly large. The first two days there were 796 and 780; then our attendance dropped to 700, 648, 615. On the first two days of Regents' week our attendance was 435 and slightly under 200. On the Tuesday night of Regents' week the exhibition was opened to the members of the Parents'-Teachers' Association.

Much interest was expressed by the boys—many voting it the best exhibit we have ever had. We felt that at least a part of their interest lay in the fact that they and their friends had made or gathered together the articles on exhibit. Perhaps part of the parents' enthusiasm may also be due to the same feeling. The feeling of personal participation is stimulating. Our exhibit was also visited by chairmen and teachers of neighboring high schools. The chairman of the Science Council was also an interested observer. They expressed themselves as very favorably impressed.

We feel that our venture has been more successful than we at first believed it could be. Instead of having difficulty in filling the hall we could have used more space had it been available. We are looking forward to holding another exhibition this term and hope to make it even better than this one.

EDGAR S. BEDFORD.

DeWitt Clinton High School.

Student Reaction to a Reading Experiment in French

The experiment was conducted with two classes in French 3, having a combined register of 70 pupils. The reader used was "Le Pari d'un Lycéen," by J. Chancel (Charles E. Merrill Co.). The story is an Alger-like account of the adventures of a high school boy who spends a year in Paris trying to prove to his father that he has sufficient education to make his way in life without any assistance. The book consists of 56 chapters of about a page and a half each, with questionnaires and exercises on each chapter. I had previously used the same reader, but could cover only 25 chapters.

For the experiment, I decided to sacrifice accuracy of translation for speed and comprehension. Instead of reviewing in class only the reading that had been assigned the day before, I instituted the procedure of quickly reviewing the content of the chapter assigned and reading an additional chapter in class. The value of this

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procedure lay mainly in the fact that the student was repeatedly a witness to a model reading procedure, and was compelled to concentrate during the class period, knowing that he would be hopelessly behind if he did not try to keep the pace. The students were told that they were to expect a written examination on the reading at the end of every ten chapters. Each examination consisted of ten sentences in French to be marked "Oui" or "Non" (. g. Edouard état un fils unique . . . Oui.), and ten sentences in French to be completed (e. g. M. Mescar veut envoyer Edouard à . . . Nice . . . en automobile.). To discourage guessing in the first part of the examination, double credit was deducted for a false answer. In the second part, if the student did not recall the French word, he was given four points out of five points for writing the English instead. The same credit was given in case the French word was misspelled. Thus the emphasis was on comprehension, rather than on knowledge of grammatical forms. The fact that the test was entirely in French made it necessary for them to have assimilated a minimum vocabulary, to be able to understand the questions.

At the end of the term I asked the pupils to fill out an anonymous questionnaire.

Questionnaire on Le Pari d'un Lycéen

1. How did you like the story?
   1. Not at all..... 3
   2. Rather well.....58
   3. Very much..... 9
2. Would you prefer reading only half the book and translating carefully?
   Yes 14
   No 53
3. How did the completion and true-false tests measure your comprehension?
   1. Very accurately..... 8
   2. Inaccurately 10
   3. Generally accurately.....48
   4. Very inaccurately..... 2

   If inaccurately, the tests were too easy..... 2
   Too hard 10
4. How many pages of the *Le Pari d'un Lycéen* were you able to read in 25 minutes?
   At the beginning of the story?.....2 pages
   At the end of the story? .....3.2 pages
   (60 % improvement)
5. Approximately how many minutes did you have to spend on each chapter?
   At the beginning....23 minutes
   At the end.....16 minutes
   (44% improvement)
6. Do you think that we should have spent more time on grammar review and less time on reading?
   Yes 27
   No 38

JACOB MILGRAM.

James Madison High School.

The Reading Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages: More Thoughts Thereon

In an article in HIGH POINTS for January, 1934, entitled "Thoughts Provoked by the Reading Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages," Mr. Rosenthal discusses the problem of teaching grammar in realizing the new reading aim. He says he does not see any practical difference between active and passive grammar and cites a number of sentences in the foreign languages in which a knowledge of grammar is indispensable to correct comprehension. He concludes that the best way to teach pupils to recognize grammatical distinctions when they meet them in reading is to give them "definite concrete drill sentences from English into the foreign language" embodying the principles to be mastered—in other words, the good old-fashioned grammar-translation method.

I agree with Mr. Rosenthal that a certain amount of grammatical knowledge is indispensable to correct comprehension of the foreign language. So does the city syllabus, as he has pointed out. I do not agree with him in several respects: 1. That there is no difference between active and passive grammatical knowledge; 2. That the only or the best way to teach the grammar necessary to understand the foreign language when it is read, is to drill in translation from English into French; 3. In the implication that in reading the foreign language for comprehension one requires the same knowledge and technique as he requires to translate English into the foreign language.

The first sentence which Mr. Rosenthal used to demonstrate this need for a grammar-translation method was: *Je viens de parler à l'homme que connaît votre père.* In this sentence the skill that the pupil needs for correct comprehension is to distinguish *que* used as the object of the verb from *qui* used as the subject, and to recognize the inversion of subject and verb frequently seen in clauses introduced by *que*. It seems reasonable, if our aim is to develop these skills, to give the pupil twenty or thirty sentences in French, some with *qui* as the subject and others with *que* and inverted word order and let him practice translating them into English correctly or picking out the subject in each relative clause. Such a drill would be purely *recognitional* as the problem is *recognitional* and would focus all the attention on the point to be mastered, besides giving incidental vocabulary review. Let us now see what would happen if we pursued the method suggested by Mr. Rosenthal.

The pupils would have to translate to French: "I have just spoken to the man whom your father knows." In this process he would have to recall; 1. That *have just* is not *avoir* but an idiom; 2. That the idiom is *venir de*; 3. That the present tense of the verb *venir* must be used; 4. That it is irregular; 5. That the first person singular ending must be used; 6. That *spoken* which sounds like a past participle must be the infinitive because of *de*; 7. That *à* has a grave accent when it is a preposition; 8. That *whom* is the object of the verb and *que* is used for *whom* when it is a relative pronoun though not when it is interrogative; 9. That *to know* in this sentence is not *savoir* but *connaître*; 10. That

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knows is present tense third singular; 11. That this form is irregular; 12. That the social form of *your* must be used; 13. That *père* has a grave accent; 14. That the subject *may* be placed before or after the verb in this particular construction.

It is evident that by this method the pupil's attention is distracted from the main point by many difficulties and that it is next to impossible to focus it on the problem of inverted word order, because the normal word order is also acceptable and is the one which the pupil will tend to use because of its similarity to English.

It may be objected that there are difficulties which I have not mentioned in translating French to English or in any other exercise testing comprehension of this French sentence. This is true, but these difficulties are fewer and less serious than those of the other process. For example, in the sentence under discussion, the problems of verb endings, spelling, accents, of distinguishing relative from interrogative pronouns, and deciding between *savoir* and *connaître*, are entirely eliminated. The remaining problems involve recognition instead of recall. It has long been conceded by psychologists, and is borne out daily by our teaching experience, that the former is much easier than the latter. But even were the difficulties equal it would still be true that a technique which centers attention on comprehension, the skill we want to develop, is more desirable than the translation-to-foreign-language method which can only, at its most optimistic, claim to drive home principles which it is hoped will carry over into the reading knowledge. This means that we must rely on transfer of training which is a pedagogical principle of exceedingly uncertain repute.

Before concluding I should like to mention briefly a few grammatical topics in which the difference between active and passive knowledge is most obvious. For instance: the dullest pupil could learn to recognize *le* as masculine and *la* as feminine in one lesson, but he must spend weary years learning to recall the gender of every noun that he has to translate in French. The same is true to a considerable extent of agreement of adjectives, agreement of past participles, and irregular feminines and plurals. It would also apply in respect to gender and number to demonstrative and possessive pronouns. As for object pronouns, their chief difficulty for the student, that is, the word order, is practically negligible on the recognition level.

I should say then that there is a world of difference between active and passive grammatical knowledge, if we assume by active knowledge the ability to apply grammatical principles in translating English into French and by passive knowledge the ability to recognize grammatical distinctions that affect the meaning of French that is read or heard. Because there is this great difference there is a need, not to discard grammar entirely, but to revise our grammatical syllabi, and especially our techniques in teaching and testing grammar in the light of the reading aim.

CHARLOTTE B. FARQUHAR.
Julia Richman High School.

Die Schenste Lenkwech, or French as She Be Spoken*

Respectfully dedicated to Eugene Jackson

You may be in New York or Marseille,
You may hope to win the Grand Prix.
Think what you may, whatever you say
Your own tongue's not the tongue of Paris.
You have all, it is true, a père and a mère,
Grand frère or petite soeur, mayhap two,
Your father's no peer, your mother's no mare,
Too bad that such words confuse you.
Shoes, good or bad, are all made of cuir;
When tired, you may be toute lasse,
But in French, it is queer, cuir means not queer,
Though you speak of a lass as toute lasse.
In Lyon, Marseille or Bordeaux
When you're hungry you know you have faim;
But try as you may, it's surely no go—
The pain will not go with the pain.
The French, I fear me, will always deceive,
Hence conception may be a deception.
But I know, mon vieux, it is hard to believe
Your disappointment will be a déception.
En été, je le sais, il fait bien chaud,
In winter, we're sure it is cold.
But turn on when thirsty the tap marked "eau,"
Chaud for cold—you'll be a bit sold.
I hope that now to me you'll attend,
I don't want to make you attendre;
The skies you may fend, your clothing all rend,
Still you can't make fender mean fendre.
So whether in Paris or Lyon,
In New York or Kalamazoo,
The language you seem to be tryin'
Ain't French, you may believe me—c'est tout.

D. C. ROSENTHAL,
Chairman, French Department.
James Monroe High School.

* Evidently inspired by "German Is English," HIGH POINTS, January, 1934, page 49.—EDITOR.

The Inter-High School German Glee Club of New York as a Cultural Project

Under the expert guidance of Professor Frank Mankiewicz, formerly of James Monroe High School, the Inter-High School German Glee Club of New York was organized in February, 1931, by the present writer. The Glee Club has been active since that date as a musical, cultural and social organization of city-wide scope. Each year the Club enlists between three and four hundred members who are students of German in the various high schools of Greater New York. Those able to play a musical instrument receive training from Mr. Albert A. Becker of the Music Department of the James Monroe High School, and constitute the orchestra of the Inter-High School German Glee Club. The remaining pupils constitute the Glee Club proper under the executive and musical directorship of the undersigned. Invaluable service was rendered the Glee Club by Miss Sarah Wolfson of the French Department of the James Monroe High School in her capacity of accompanist, until June, 1932. Mrs. Rebecca Bridge of the German Department of the New Utrecht High School fills that position at the present time with unusual success. The orchestra and the Glee Club convene for rehearsals on Saturdays throughout the academic year in the auditorium of the School of Business of the Colloge of the City of New York at 23rd Street and Lexington Avenue, from 1 to 5:30 P. M.

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Members coming from any one school constitute a chapter of the Glee Club. Each chapter elects two representatives at a meeting held in the home school, and these representatives, in turn, elect from among their own numbers the officers of the Glee Club each year. The various chapters carry on an individual existence in their home schools in the form of German Glee Clubs.

The activities of the organization fall under two main headings: social and cultural. As a social organization the Glee Club has maintained itself as a successful experiment in meeting the needs of ill-adjusted pupils; as an organization giving training in the rendition of German vocal and instrumental music it has opened new vistas for and has effected great changes in numerous pupils.

In terms of a recent questionnaire distributed by the Board of Education the work of the Inter-High School German Glee Club may be summed up as follows:

I. Was the Purpose of Introducing This Type of Work One of Adjustment?

While the desire to instill a love for German vocal and instrumental music and, indirectly, for German literature was the primary purpose in establishing the Glee Club, the value of the organization as a social group wherein adjustments could be made was clearly foreseen. All members are given the opportunity to engage in some useful form of activity. To cite an extreme instance, even those who are utterly unable to express themselves musically find ample opportunity to be helpful in clerical capacities, such as checking attendance and distributing song-sheets.

II. Was the Course Complete in Itself or Was it a Core Surrounded by Related or Correlated Subjects?

The work of the Glee Club is not complete in itself. The organization depends on the German class as a recruiting station for members and as a means of imparting the necessary linguistic fundamentals. In the German class, too, the initial interest in the work of the Glee Club is implanted.

III. What Was the Actual Basis for Assigning Pupils to this Particular Group?

Membership in the Glee Club is entirely voluntary. Each year application blanks are sent to German classes in the various high schools, and no pupil expressing a desire to join has ever been turned away.

IV. How Many Subjects did the Pupils Carry and How Many Periods Per Week for Each Subject?

The Glee Club meets on Saturdays. It does not, in any way, affect the number of subjects pupils carry in school.

V. How Were These Pupils Made to Become Interested in This Work?

The interest in the Glee Club of teachers of German, whose coöperation is essential in securing new members each year, begets the interest of the pupils. In urging pupils to join, these teachers stress the pleasant and profitable nature of the work, the opportunity for social intercourse with pupils from all parts of the city, the opportunity to appear at numerous public performances, and the desirability of sharing in the favorable publicity which attends the work of the Club. The members themselves, of course, also induce many of their friends to join. But, since membership in the Glee Club is entirely voluntary, the basic reasons for attendance are to be found in the pupils' innate social, emotional, or cultural desires. The joy of achievement acts as the greatest stimulus to further effort and sustained attendance.

VI. To What Degree Were the Pupils Successful in This Work?

a. There is a Grand Concert given each year. Receipts thus far have been turned over to the "School Relief Fund" and to the "Junior Year Abroad" fund of the College of the City of New York.

b. Additional concerts are given in coöperation with German-American choral societies.

c. National and international broadcasts, particularly at Easter and Christmas time, are featured by the leading Radio companies.

d. The Club appears in "short subjects" prepared for the screen by leading motion picture concerns.

e. Theatrical evenings are staged.

f. Socials and dances are tendered the Club by its friends.

g. German "singing circles" and similar cultural units have been organized and are maintained by members of the Club throughout the city.

The written and telegraphed testimonials of parents, of newspapers, of listeners in distant places, of former members, all serve to inspire the Glee Club to even greater effort. The appearance as speakers at the various public performances of the Club of leaders in the educational world and of other notables serves not only to dignify these occasions, but also to raise the self-esteem of the pupils participating in this work.

Lists of speakers and of musical selections heard at a few of the concerts given by the Glee Club are submitted here in the hope that they may prove of interest and may serve to illustrate some of the points made:

Speakers

1. Dr. Harold G. Campbell.....Superintendent of Schools, City of New York
2. Hon. Maurice Deiches.....Board of Higher Education, City of New York

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3.	Dr. Henry E. Hein	Principal, James Monroe High School
4.	Dr. Otto Kiep	Former German Consul General of New York
5.	Dr. Frank Mankiewicz	Professor of Education, College of the City of New York; Sponsor of the Glee Club
6.	Dr. Frederick B. Robinson	President, College of the City of New York
8.	Dr. Paul Schwarz	Former German Consul of New York
9.	Dr. Gotthard E. Seyfarth	President, Arion Society of Brooklyn
10.	Hon. William J. Weber	Vice-President, Board of Education, City of New York
11.	Dr. John Whyte	Professor of German, Brooklyn College of the City of New York

Selections Rendered by the Glee Club

1.	Als die Römer frech geworden	Scheffel-Kommers song
2.	Aennchen von Tharau	Dach-Silcher
3.	Bauernlied	Schubart
4.	Das gibt's nur einmal	Gilbert-Heymann
5.	Das Waldhorn	Schmid-Silcher
6.	Das Wandern	Müller-Zöllner
7.	Der Asra	Heine-Rubinstein
8.	Der Bummel-Petrus	Popular song
9.	Der geheilte Bursche	Fink
10.	Der Jäger aus Kurpfalz	Folk song
11.	Der Kuckuck auf dem Baum	Folk song
12.	Der Leibarzt und der Trinker	Schubarth
13.	Der Tod von Basel	Folk song
14.	Die Arche Noach	Müller-Schneider
15.	Die Trummen	Folk song
16.	Ergo bibamus	Goethe-Eberwein
17.	Est ist ein harter Schluss	Guild song
18.	Est ist ein Schnitter	Folk song
19.	Est war ein Knab' gezogen	Folk song
20.	Fünfmalhunderttausend Mann	Folk song
21.	Grad aus dem Wirtshaus	Mühler
22.	Hab' mein Wage'	Folk song
23.	Heidenröslein	Goethe-Schubert
24.	Heidenröslein	Goethe-Werner
25.	Hoch vom Dachstein an	Dirnböck-Seydler
26.	Ich ging emol spaziere	Folk song
27.	Ich schiess den Hirsch	Schober-Folk tune
28.	In deinen Augen	Rotter-Stolz
29.	In Wien	Rotter-Stolz
30.	Landsknechtmarsch	Folk song
31.	Muss i' denn	Folk song
32.	Phyllis im Garten	Folk song
33.	Reiterlied	Folk song
34.	Romanze von den Schneidern	Folk song
35.	Rosenstock	Gilbert-Heymann
36.	Schön ist das Leben	Folk song
37.	Spinn, Spinn	Minne song
38.	Wach auf	Folk song
39.	Warum ist es am Rhein so schön	Folk song
40.	Wenn die Soldaten	Folk song
41.	Willst du denn mein Söhnchen haben	Guild song
42.	Zu Regensburg	Rotter-Stolz
43.	Zwei Herzen	

Selections Rendered by the Orchestra

1.	Air for G-string	Bach
2.	Concerto Grosso	Handel
3.	Die Mühle	Raff
4.	Eine kleine Nachtmusik	Mozart
5.	Emperor Variations	Haydn
6.	Krönungsmarsch	Kretschmer
7.	Surprise Symphony	Haydn
8.	Zug der Frauen	Wagner

Small Ensemble Work

1.	Bassos: Im kühlen Keller	Müchler-Fischer
2.	Double Quartet: Es waren zwei Königskinder	Folk song
3.	Piano Quartet	Beethoven
4.	String Quartet: Märchen	Komzak
5.	String Quartet: Volksliedchen	Komzak

Solo Renditions

1.	Cello: Abendstern	Wagner
2.	Soprano: Sing mir dein Lied	Green

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VII. What Changes, If Any, Were Effected in the Pupils As the Outcome of Their Activity in This Field?

It will seem evident by this time that through association with the Glee Club many pupils gain a permanent interest in a cultural activity. Further, the Club has on file data to show that pupils who by reason of their mental or physical maladjustment offered great problems to their teachers and parents have become happy citizens in this cosmopolitan society. In the Glee Club they were able to make new contacts and feel themselves spiritually and socially rejuvenated; they found a new interest and new friends. Many pupils whom the collegiate or business world had claimed, or who had joined the army of the unemployed, and who, thereafter, still remained members of the Club, testify, by their mere presence in the organization as "post-graduate members," to the fact that the interest which the Glee Club arouses and maintains is one that does not readily die.

From the pedagogical viewpoint it is worthy of note that in the Club the pupils' innate love of music finds a satisfying and useful form of expression and that their notoriously hostile attitude toward memorization is overcome with success. Over a period of two years, forty-three German songs, most of them containing four stanzas or more, were committed to memory quite readily by the entire membership of the Glee Club.

VIII. Did Success in This Activity Lead the Pupils on to Other Activities of the Same General Type? If So, What?

German-American choral societies look upon the Glee Club as a logical source of supply of new blood for their own organizations; many former members of the Glee Club join these societies. But it is perhaps more important that there is evidence at hand to show that the Club prepares its members for the worthy and intelligent use of leisure. The "singing circles" to which reference was made above convene for rehearsals during the week throughout the city. These groups, composed of members of the Club, devote many an evening to the singing of German songs. Their immediate objective is to qualify as an ensemble worthy of a place on the program of a public concert. But failing in this ambition, they find ample solace in the popularity which they gain at parties and in school by virtue of their unique accomplishments. Members of the Orchestra form similar groups, and find great joy in the performance of chamber music. There are also small reading and theatrical groups, welded together by their common love of German literature.

It may also be added that, according to all experience, work in the Glee Club affects class performance most favorably.

IX. Did Success in This Field Bring to the Pupils a Desire To Take Up and Succeed in Other Fields?

Many talented members of the Glee Club and, particularly, of the Orchestra who received added training and instruction in the Club have since been able to convert their musical ability in to a sole or added source of income. Further, it seems justifiable to assume that many pupils, fortified by the success attending their work in this field, were able to succeed in other fields because they had become bettr social beings and had gained in culture.

X. Did Any of These Pupils Ultimately Qualify for One of the Regular Diplomas of the School?

Ultimate qualification for one of the regular diplomas in our schools on the part of members of the Glee Club is rather the rule than the exception. It may be assumed, however, that this activity, "extra-curricular" in the strictest sense of the term, generously contributes, by virtue of its aforementioned qualities, to the measure of success which the pupils attain in citizenship and scholarship.

XI. Write Anything Else Based On Your Experience With This Work That Would Be of Service to Other Teachers Faced With This Problem. Make Your Suggestions As Concrete As Possible.

It is hoped that teachers of languages other than German will find the nature and scope of the work of the Inter-High School German Glee Club stimulating and suggestive, and that Inter-High School French, Spanish or Italian Glee Clubs will soon come into being. It is further hoped that based on the experiments and achievements of these clubs-to-be this city-wide German Glee Club, which doubtless bears the defects of most pioneering ventures, will be able to adopt methods and procedures which will tend to increase the scope of its service to the High School pupils of New York.

L. Leo Taub.

James Monroe High School.

Some Impromptu Realia Work in French

One day near the middle of the term, during a routine lesson in French VI, the classroom door opened, and a pretty little girl dressed in a gay Breton costume came to the desk and said:

"The chairman of the department would like to know if I may show your class this peasant bridal dress of fifty years ago."

Then very informally she turned to the girls and showed them the lovely work on the skirt; the many beads, each secured by a single thread; the gay apron with the name of the long-ago bride worked in the belt. She had a Bishop's coif, and she told the class the legend that explains its mitre-like shape.

By this time, one by one the class had left the seats and had gathered in a circle around her—fingering the material, exclaiming over the thousands

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of stitches in the wool embroidery, and wondering at all that patient work on a background of humble red flannel. And then the questions came.

"How many dresses like this would a girl have?"

"For what occasions were they worn?"

"Would a girl who had a dress like that be of a rich family or a poor family?"

After the girl had gone on her way to another class, the teacher was besieged with questions. We talked about the economic life of the peasant, and how he differs from, and how he resembles our American farmer. The girls wanted to know what sorts of homes French peasants had, and the teacher drew on the board a diagram of a peasant home in which she had once enjoyed a friendly bowl of milk —a home in which the family and the animals had economically shared the same roof. One or two of the class suggested books that they had read with just such a background. Just by chance, a text with colored illustrations of other Breton costumes was at hand, and we passed it around the class. It was pointed out that perhaps la petite Marie of *Mare au Diable* might have worn a similar costume when she married Germain.

This shows that some of the most effective work in realia is that which develops spontaneously. This student had brought the costume to her teacher after reading a story about Brittany. The teacher casually mentioned it and the chairman of the department then suggested that other classes might enjoy seeing it.

The uncoached little talk of the living model created for us a bit of authentic French atmosphere. The delight and interest of the class were of a degree rarely obtained as the result of laboriously planned exposition.

MARJORIE MCCLINTOCK.

Walton High School.

Interesting Latin Club Projects

When I assumed the responsibility of acting as Faculty Adviser of the Latin Club of the George Washington High School, I realized that I had before me a truly Herculean task in attempting to make the club one of the most outstanding in the school.

Successful club activities demand not only the harmonious coöperation of all the club members in the various club projects, but also the creation and development of spirited and ingenious ideas to stimulate and foster a genuinely sincere attitude on the part of the members. It seems to me that a great many clubs are doomed to a comparatively brief existence because they fail to set forth a vital motive or motives for their perpetuation. We cannot have a club without members, and we cannot have members in a dull, inactive club. The very fact that most High School clubs meet after school, makes it doubly essential to "give something worth-while" to induce students to abandon an interesting baseball game or a roller-skating group.

To anti-Latinists, the name, "Latin Club" bears the stigma of the so-called "dead language." Nevertheless, I firmly believed that I could eradicate this point of view from the minds of these individuals, and in Caesarean spirit, I set forth to conquer.

The Latin Club, at the outset of the term, consisted of a small group of devoted Latinites, who were, "Semper Fideles." I enlisted the services of these students in circulating the time and place of the first meeting of the term. With a number of students I planned a tentative program for the entire semester, subject to the approval of the club members. Our club meets weekly, and the frequency of meetings necessitates a varied type of program. I do not approve of conducting a club as though it were an after-school class, in which the students are assigned subjects to prepare every week and are then called upon to deliver their findings before the club. Such a procedure may be occasionally used to "fill in" a club period when the members and Faculty Adviser have been unable to arrange a more individual program, but should not predominate in the meetings.

At this point, I might say a few words about the officers of the club. Instead of electing a president, we elected two Consuls, a senior and a junior Consul. By so doing, we made the club resemble the Roman state. In addition, we chose a Scriba to serve as secretary, two Curule Aediles, two Plebeian Aediles to perform the duties of an entertainment committee, an editorial staff in charge of the club publication.

Our first project was a trip to the Classical Service Bureau at New York University which is under the supervision of Miss Frances Sabin. Trips of this nature almost always enlist the interest and enthusiasm of the students because visual impressions are usually more effective than auditory. At the Classical Service Bureau the club had the pleasure of enjoying a delightfully illustrated lecture on Roman Life and Customs. In addition, there were a number of slides on interesting and unusual words. The derivation of such words as *muscle*, literally meaning "a little mouse," since the Ancients believed that the quick action of a muscle resembled the action of a mouse; an *infant*, meaning one who is unable to speak, and others too numerous to mention, fascinated the students. There were also a number of splendid reproductions of Roman camps and homes, a variety of attractive picture books, school magazines, and Latin games on display. The club members were especially interested in the originality of many of the club publications of the different schools, and they determined to produce so outstanding a publication that they would also be able to send a copy to Miss Sabin.

The second club project was devoted to the presentation of two plays at different meetings. The first play called, "Saccus Malorum," by Schlichter, was presented in the form of a radio broadcast. One of the boys brought a toy microphone to school

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and the senior Consul acted as announcer. The first version of the play was in Latin, the second, in English. A great many students were able to get the idea of the plot almost perfectly from the Latin version. The English version clarified those who had been unable to grasp the Latin as effectively. The second play, "Rest Takes a Holiday," an entertaining playlet by a Hunter College student, was presented in costume, and was a sensational success, judging from the hilarious laughter and applause of the audience. The playlet deals with Vergil, Juvenal, Quintilian, Horace, Martial and Catullus, who decide to leave the Elysian fields to make a visit to the various classrooms in the George Washington High School to see how they are faring in the hands of the modern youth. What was heard made the poor souls stagger back to Hades, livid in the face.

The third project was a moving-picture entitled the "Gorgon's Head," dealing with the adventures of the hero Perseus in his quest of Medusa of the snaky locks. The picture was obtained from the Metropolitan Museum of Art. The film, being a parody of the well-known myth, proved highly amusing.

The fourth project was the Latin Club party presented before the Christmas holidays. A delightful program, consisting of the club's version of the above-mentioned parody, singing, and piano-playing, was prepared by our Aediles. Dr. Bice, our beloved chairman, addressed the club, complimenting the members for their splendid and whole-hearted coöperation in the several club activities of the term.

The last and by far the most important project was the Latin Club publication. I felt that since we are all in the spirit of President Roosevelt's "New Deal," the idea might be carried across to our paper. Accordingly, the paper was named the "Novus Romanus Amicus." The cover was done in red, white and blue. In the center, was an eagle with two bundles of rods and axes and a laurel wreath. In the center of the eagle was the motto, "Partem Nostram Facimus." The publication deservedly bore the NRA stamp, for every member of the club contributed his bit. The magazine was a huge success, graphically as well as financially. Twelve dollars, obtained from the sale of the paper, were donated to the school charity fund.

By stimulating active interest in the various projects of our Latin Club, not only did our students become more club-minded, but they became decidedly more Latin-minded. By our interesting club projects, Latin was brought into direct and practical contact with the world of today. In the minds of the students, Latin was no longer confined to classroom declensions and translations, but was associated with outside activities. Our club publication, perhaps more than any other project, helped to create and stimulate this favorable attitude. Such articles as "The Modern Argonauts," "Valterus Vinchellus On The Appian Way," "Quis Lupum Magnum Malum Timet" by their very titles indicate the close relationship between the Ancient and the Modern. It seems to me that if we ardent Latinites hope to restore Latin to the position that it deserves to occupy, the Latin Club is one of the most important and vital means of accomplishing this end.

FLORENCE E. ARONSON.

George Washington High School.

The Classical Society at the Townsend Harris High School

The Classical Society of Townsend Harris High School, the preparatory department of the College of the City of New York, has built up a flourishing organization on the slogan "Facta Non Verba." It has grown in a year's time to a membership of one hundred and twenty-five; there are approximately six hundred students taking Latin. Weekly meetings are held at which prominent classicists frequently speak. For example, professor R. V. D. Magoffin, in charge of the Latin Department at New York University, gave an illustrated lecture, "Vistas along the Highway of Classical Education," before a gathering of five hundred students and teachers, comprising nearly half of the School's enrollment, on March 8; Professor Charles Knapp, eminent classicist of Columbia University, spoke on "Roman Business Life as seen in Horace," March 22, before an equally large audience.

A point system is in practice. Points are awarded for a bewildering variety of activities carried on by the members. Competition is very keen. Ten prizes are awarded at the [illegible] term to the high-standing members; certificates of merit, to others winning a certain number of points, at present set at one hundred; these members become the élite and form the inner circle of the organization. Points are awarded for holding office; winning contests (first ten usually counted); attending meetings; high scholastic standing in Latin Classes (first five in each section); taking part in the various activities such as entertainments, Latin play, declamations, debates, club paper, and the like.

CONTESTS

1. Advertisement Contest — securing advertisements containing words of Latin or Greek origin. In this way, literally thousands of advertisements have been collected and mounted on large cards for exhibition purposes.

2. Drawing Contest—on Classical Subjects.

3. Workmanship Contest—Models of Tormenta were the most recent contributions.

4. Declamation Contest—on Classical Subjects.

5. Essay Contest—on Classical Subjects.

6. Newspaper Contest—all words of Latin or Greek origin from, say, the front page of the "New York Times."

7. Word Contest — Latin words from, say, "Facta Non Verba." One is also held for English Words.

8. Derivative Contest—English derivatives from Latin words. "Cedere" was taken this term.

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9. Latin Vocabulary Match, conducted as an old-fashioned spelling match, by dividing the Club into two teams. An old-fashioned English spelling match is also held.

10. Clippings Contest—articles and cartoons appearing in the papers.

11. Geographical and Proper Name Contest—English names of places and proper names of Greek or Latin origin.

The Club runs a paper called the *Tuba;* gives a Latin play each term (last term a humorous classroom scene in Latin was staged to the great amusement and entertainment of a large audience); has two entertainments featuring recitations, skits, musical numbers, and so on, always with refreshments; holds debates and open-meeting discussions (on any subject whatsoever); enjoys occasionally a meeting of games.

The program of the club is so arranged as to touch every possible type of student. The greatest good for the greatest number. Practically every member takes part in one or more activities. The spirit of the club is to *play* while you learn to do, not merely to talk.

RUSSELL F. STRYKER.
Townsend Harris High School.

The Use of the Tellurometer

THE PROBLEM

An absolutely incurable disease, paresis, is now being conquered! Doors open at our approach, without human aid! Metal alloys are produced that are rustless as gold, light as aluminum, and stronger than the finest steel! Paints that are glasslike in the hardness of their finish are produced commercially! A fleet of airplanes crossed and recrossed the Atlantic! What marvellous times we live in! What progress man has made to control and vanquish nature! Yet, in the past twenty-five years no simple, practical, and inexpensive apparatus has been produced to facilitate the instruction or comprehension of certain principles or conditions taught for generations in the study of mathematical geography!

Here are a few common questions in this subject, merely samplings of a large field. As teachers we probably know the answers, but how are we situated when we try to teach pupils the content? Even this may not be considered to be difficult by some teachers until they try to explain and rationalize the facts and principles of mathematical geography involved in the answers. Let us glance through the list, at the same time trying to think how we would proceed in teaching and rationalizing the content.

1. What is meant by the vertical, perpendicular, and tangent rays of the sun? What are their effect on the earth?
2. Explain why the Arctic and Antarctic Circles and the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn are located where they are.
3. What part of the earth receives the vertical rays of the sun at some time or other during the year? Why? What part never receives the vertical rays? Why?
4. How much of the earth is always lighted? How much is always in darkness? Why? What is the circle of illumination? What is its size?
5. What is the location of the circle of illumination on about the 21st of March? 21st of April? 21st of May? Why?
6. Explain why days and nights are of varying length in the northern hemisphere. Is this so for the southern hemisphere? Explain.
7. Why is summer the warm time of the year north of the equator?
8. What makes our winter time the cold season? Explain.
9. Why are the seasons reversed in the northern and southern hemispheres?
10. What would be the effect if the earth's axis tilted any degree between 23° and zero, or between 24° and 45°? Prove your answer.

To summarize, then, we can state our problem thus: "How can we teach mathematical geography so that the pupils may easily learn and understand some of its great principles and facts?"

ELEMENTS IN THE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM

The study and teaching of mathematical geography is not difficult. This is so no matter where it is being considered—in elementary school, junior or senior high school, teacher training school, or in college. Likewise is it true no matter in which class it is prescribed — geography, general science, physiography, or meteorology. The only difference that we do find in the teaching of the subject is a variation as to the amount of content and degree of rationalization according to the school or class.

Teachers will readily agree that if two factors could be emphasized in the classroom, the study of mathematical geography would not be as difficult and uninteresting as are several other subjects in our curriculum that are not so considered. These factors are: (1) Better support for and utilization of the imaginative powers of the pupils and (2) opportunity to permit maximum pupil participation and activity in the actual learning process through (a) manipulation of imagination-supporting devices, (b) directed individual laboratory work, (c) undirected individual experimentation providing opportunity and means for individual re-discoveries, and (d) pupil demonstration paralleling teacher demonstration.

THE USUAL SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM

Teachers will probably say, "We do just that. What is new in these statements?" In reply, let us consider what is thought to be an excellent method for teaching some of the problems listed, for example 7 and 8, which deal with differences in temperature between summer and winter.

In the introductory phases of the lesson the teacher develops the ac-

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elements of a good lesson which will include motivation, organization of a proper apperceptive mass—place of the earth in the solar system, rotation, revolution, axis inclination, and so on. Then he provides himself with an adjustable globe, generally one foot in diameter. Next he procures an oblong cardboard the width of the globe. Along its length he draws lines spaced at equal distances. Using one short end as a diameter, he cuts out a semicircle the width of the globe. He develops the fact that the lines on the board represent the rays of the sun. Placing the globe in the winter position (north pole facing away from the sun) he holds the card in a horizontal position and fits it on the globe along one meridian. Then he selects a definite region in the northern hemisphere (probably the arcs between two given parallels) and counts the number of rays reaching the earth at this place. He repeats the process with the axis pointing toward the sun (summer position) and shows that in this case there are more rays striking the same region in summer than in winter. He may possibly try to show the variation in heating power between vertical and tangent rays. Basing the instruction on these and other related facts he develops his lesson to the known conclusion.

If he is a good teacher, he will take into account the fact that this is all finely detailed work and he will assemble the class about his demonstration table to insure better vision. Picture the situation—the inconvenience, the conduct of the students, the poor learning conditions—when this takes place in the typical present-day crowded classroom. In fact, since he is a good teacher but is limited as to the time at his disposal, he will go further; he will have several pupils go through the process in the same manner that he did. But what of the other pupils who did not have the opportunity? What would be the cost to provide each student—or even every two students—with similar apparatus so that they could do the demonstration themselves? Has each school storage room for the amount of globes that would be needed? Would it be easy to arrange for the transportation of these globes from storeroom to the various classrooms? Consider the ease with which the apparatus can be damaged, even a single demonstration globe! Remember that the lined board must be held absolutely horizontal to insure proper results. How many teachers must "force" the demonstration when the earth's axis has not been tilted accurately or when the board was not held properly? Even when the full equipment is given to each student, what opportunity has he for repeating the demonstration properly or to make his own discoveries, when we consider these difficulties?

How can this apparatus give and explain the answers to other problems, where other facts must be shown vividly, e.g., the circle of illumination, the vertical and tangent rays as they touch the earth; conditions of lighting at any particular time of the year; length of day and night; effect of the atmosphere surrounding the earth, and so forth?

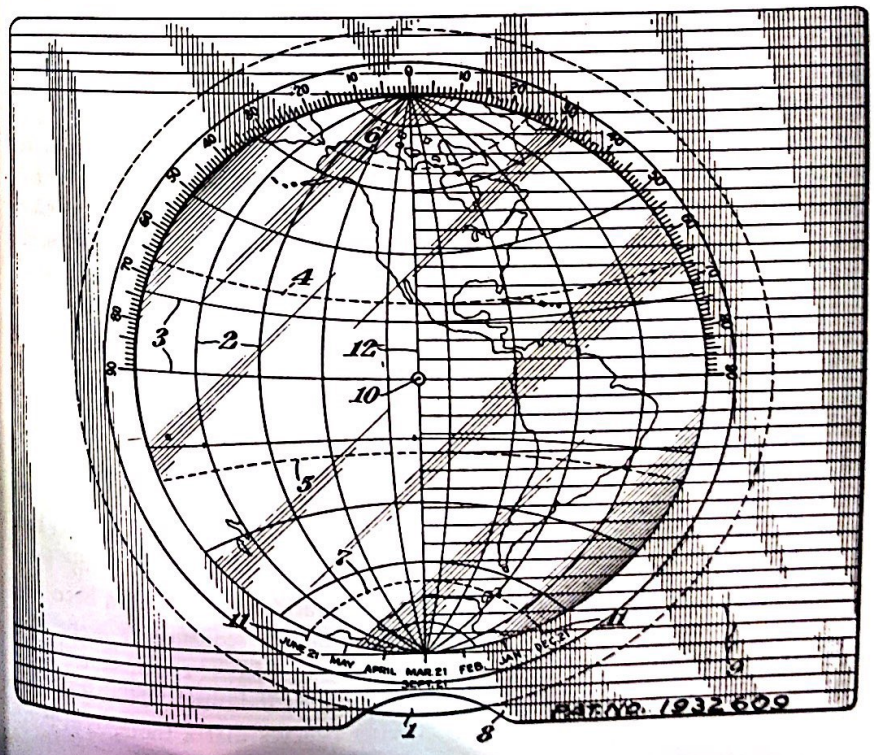
Description of the Tellurometer

A tellurion is an appartus for showing the motions of the earth on its axis and around the sun. The Tellurometer, patented by the author, is an apparatus for measuring and demonstrating the effects of these motions. The type shown in the illustration consists of three pieces: a base cardboard, a top piece containing a transparent center with lines on the whole of it showing where the sun's rays are; and a circular piece between these two containing a map of the western or eastern hemisphere. A pivot in the middle holds the three pieces together. Tape binds the top and bottom pieces at the edges to form an envelope for the circular piece.

Solution of the Problem by Using the Tellurometer

Now let us consider how the same lesson would be taught, this time using the Tellurometer.

In this instance, likewise, the teacher develops the usual initial factors of a lesson until the main part of the lesson is reached. Each pupil or pair of pupils is provided with a Tellurometer. The teacher may have one of the same size that the pupils are using or a large wall-size Tellurometer. By questioning, the teacher can review certain facts, explaining them with the



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aid of the Tellurometer, e.g., (1) so little of the sun's light actually reaches the earth and the sun is at so great a distance that, for all intents and purposes, the sun's rays may be said to be parallel to each other; (2) the earth revolves while the sun is stationary in respect to it; (3) the sun's rays may be said to be stationary; (4) the earth, since it is spherical (almost), always has half of its surface lighted at one time; (5) the polar axis tilts 23½° from the vertical.

By studying the Tellurometer the instructor will teach that: (1) the parallel lines are rays of the sun; (2) they are on the portion of the apparatus that cannot be moved, which shows the stationary quality of the sun and its rays; (3) no matter how the earth is moved, half of it is always lighted; (4) the line of separation between nighttime and daytime is the circle of illumination (on the Tellurometer it is merely a straight line, but compare it with a line of longitude); (5) the earth's polar axis is always tilted 23½° from the perpendicular to the ecliptic.

Place the earth's axis at the 23½° mark toward the sun, the June 21st position. In order to consider a definite locality in the Northern Hemisphere, select an area between two given parallels. Count the number of rays that strike the earth here at the rim of the circle. Compare this with the number when the North Pole of the earth faces away from the sun, the winter position. The difference is marked. Place the earth in the summer relationship. On the edge of a sheet of paper placed on the rim of the circle surrounding our selected area, mark the space between any two adjoining rays. Place the earth in the winter relationship. Do the same with two adjoining rays that now reach our selected area. Note that the space is now much larger than during the summer position. Develop the fact that beyond our atmosphere any unit of sunlight has the same amount of heat as any other similar unit. We have actually seen, then, that in summer a unit of sunlight heats a small area but in winter a similar unit must spread its energy over a greater area. Move a finger along one of our selected parallels, clear across from left to right, while the earth is in the summer position. Note where it moves for a longer distance, in the dark or lighted region. On the same parallel do the same for the winter relationship. Note how vividly we see that daytime is longer in summer than in winter. Thus, the northern hemisphere receives the sun's rays for a longer time in summer than in winter. Finally, recall the absorptive and dispersive features of the atmosphere in respect to the sun's rays. When does a ray travel longer through the atmosphere, in summer or in winter?

The reader will readily see that this lesson has been described only in a sketchy fashion. Gaps have been left in the proper sequence of steps and in several places conclusions have merely been indicated. However, the writer believes that a thoughtful consideration of what has been stated so far will show how marked are the advantages of using a Tellurometer in teaching mathematical geography.

Advantages In Using the Tellurometer

Let us take an inventory of what we have accomplished in this lesson. It was possible for the teacher to make the demonstration and have the pupils duplicate it on their own apparatus. The teacher could have asked developmental questions which the students answered by experimenting with the Tellurometer. The pupils used simple, visible means to support the imagination. The apparatus is of such a nature that there is very little likelihood of the student becoming more intrigued with its working than with the instruction that is intended. They participated in the actual learning and teaching process. In fact, we can leave it to the reader to decide whether opportunity was given to permit maximum pupil participation and activity in the actual learning process through (a) manipulation of imagination supporting devices; (b) directed individual laboratory work; (c) undirected individual experimentation providing opportunity and means for individual discoveries; and (d) pupil demonstration paralleling teacher's demonstration.

The cost of the Tellurometer would be so small that it cannot be compared with that of even a good six-inch globe which would be very poor indeed for our purposes. A stack of twenty or even forty Tellurometers would only be from five to ten inches high, occupying a shelf area of about 9"x11". Any child could lift the entire pile and easily carry it to the classroom where they are to be used. No extraordinary care is needed by teacher or pupil to set up properly the needed relationship in the Tellurometer. It is possible to keep the class in its regular organization; no exceptional problems of discipline can arise because of the nature of the class activity. Each pupil can have his own apparatus which he can employ according to his own physical (e.g., visual) and mental characteristics. Interesting, spontaneous, and vivid drill work can be readily accomplished. There is very little possibility of damaging the apparatus or destroying delicate adjustments.

Every one of the problems given at the beginning of this article can be easily answered and the principles rationalized through the proper use of the Tellurometer—and this only samples the field of its use!

David J. Swartz.

Haaren High School.

"Kulturgeschichte" in High School Work

By choosing a charming story of the Middle Ages, *Das Peterle von Nürmberg* by Blüthgen, we came quite accidentally upon a novel and a much more interesting way of presenting Realia than those generally followed. The background is the Nürnberg of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

At first, of course, we followed the usual routine of Realia in the class-

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room. We examined objects collected by the teacher in the course of her travels through German cities where there were traces of life in the Middle Ages, such as pictures of cathedrals, castles and the Torture Chamber. We looked at views of the cities as they appear today. We traced the similarity of some of our armories to ancient fortresses in Germany. And, of course, we described Nürnberg from our personal observation, even relating a few amusing incidents of our travels that related to the topic.

But all that did not reconstruct for the students the life in this city as it was six hundred years ago, in the period preceding that of Hans Sachs and Dürer.

One of the students volunteered to look up the great men of the time. Another then suggested reporting on the history of this ancient city. Encouraged by the interesting details found, we proceeded to increase the number of topics. Now we are preparing approximately twenty topics, such as The Development of Towns, Travel and Transportation, Religion, Amusements, Costumes, Customs, Music, Education, Superstitions, Architecture and Furniture Guilds.

At first the report in English was read to the class—and forgotten. With the new plan the students present their topics by means of five or ten minute lectures, for which they often come prepared with their own illustrations, as on Dress and Architecture. At some time toward the end of the term they review their material and take a test on the notes which they have taken in class.

Since there are several classes doing the same work, the students vie with one another in bringing reports and interesting illustrations. After the mid-term examination, we organize a committee to sift the work. The material this term will be typed, illustrated as far as possible, and bound as their own "History of the Middle Ages in Germany."

Another form of project? Perhaps; —but an exceedingly interesting one and quite valuable for our work.

TSVIA H. GILL.

Walton High School.

"The Ladder"—Analysis and Synthesis

How often have we heard the statement, "I understand it perfectly when you teach it and when we do them in class, but I can't do them myself when I come home?" *It* and *them* refer to originals in geometry.

That comment more than once impelled me through an investigation of text-books, and through discussions with other teachers of geometry classes, to discover what is being done to simplify this task for the student.

The more recent the text-book, the more frequently do the words "plan" and "analysis" play an important rôle. From other teachers I learned that they, too, have their classes "plan" and "analyze" the problem. But this did not satisfy me, for I believed that I had been doing likewise.

I therefore set out to try to find a more satisfactory way of presenting geometry, so that the pupil who attempts an original exercise at home will be his own teacher and enjoy his work. The following is the result of my quest. The name I give to this method is "the ladder," which the student must climb, step by step, from the lowest rung. He may not turn back until he reaches the top rung, which is a different one for each exercise.

Given—BC=DF
AD=CE
Angle 1=Angle 2
AE is a straight line

Prove—AB is parallel to EF

Plan — Angle A=Angle E

12.	AD=CE	Given	13.
11.	CD=CD	Identity	14.
10.	S) AC=DE	If equals are subtracted from equals, the results are equal.	15.
9.	AE is a straight line	Given	16.
8.	Angle 2=angle 1	Given	17.
7.	Angle 4 supp. angle 2	If two adjacent angles have their exterior sides in a st. line, they are supp.	18.
6.	Angle 3 supp. angle 1		19.
5.	a) Angle 3=angle 4	Supp. of equal angles are equal.	20.
4.	S) BC=DF	Given	21.
3	Triangle ABC is congruent to triangle EFD	Two triangles are congruent, if two sides and the included angle of one triangle are equal resp. to two sides and the included angle of the other triangle.	22.
2.	Angle A=Angle E	Corresponding angles of congruent triangles are equal.	23.
1.	AB is aparallel to EF	Two lines are parallel, if their alternate interior angles are equal.	24.

I insist on a written plan. I insist on one example on a page, for though it may appear to be a waste of paper, it is, in the end, a saving of mental energy which more than compensates for that waste. The children in my classes are not allowed to set up the proof as follows:

1. BC=DF	1. Given
2. AD=CE	2. Given
3. Angle 1=angle 2	3. Given
4. AE is a straight line	4. Given

and then wonder, "What next?"

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They must, on the contrary, analyze, starting with their conclusion as the first statement, and proceeding as follows:

I can prove that AB is parallel to EF, if I can prove angle A equal to angle E. (As each statement is spoken, it is also written). I can prove angle A equal to angle E, if I can prove triangle ABC is congruent to triangle DEF. To prove triangle ABC congruent to triangle DEF, I must first look for a pair of equal sides. And so on. This line of thinking continues, orally in a class recitation, at home silently, until the student has found all his necessary tools. These having been obtained, he may descend the ladder, giving a complete sentence as a reason for each statement.

My own mind has been set at ease a little as a result of the use of this method of presentation.

GOLDIE SCHOR.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

Just Sign Posts

For five years the school library has tried to introduce books in their twofold relation to students, as tools for subject advancement and as bait for the development of intelligence. Few school collections are adequate for either task. It is imperative, therefore, to take young people beyond the shelves into the realm of book consciousness. They should grow to use public libraries faithfully, explore book stores with discrimination, and acquire a pleasant curiosity in regard to books and authors. Book reviews, criticisms, or advertisements stimulate a healthy interest in the subject. All this may be set in motion within the school library.

After all this pointing the way to books, what, if anything, does the high school student prefer to read? For several terms we have tried to arrive at an answer to this question by means of a project given to students during the last term of high school. The problem may differ in wording from term to term, but it is always a test of book selection. Lists and catalogues may be used and are consulted freely.

Let us compare the lists of two eighth-term groups, each given the same problem, "List the books you would purchase for your own library if you were given fifty dollars to start your collection." One group of 36 students wrote in November, 1932; the other, of 38 students, wrote in June, 1933. The following table makes comparisons easy:

	November 1932	June 1933
Number of students	36	38
Different Titles Mentioned	282	509
Dictionaries chosen	32	19
World Almanac	14	7
Other reference books	0	24
Fiction titles	84	72
Biographies	33	62
Plays, poetry	42	82
American History or problems	24	76
Number of titles in School Library	153	129
Average of different titles per student	7.8	13.4
% in school library	54%	25%
% of fiction titles	30%	14%
% of plays, poetry	15%	16%
% of titles dealing with American history and problems	9%	15%
% of reference other than dictionary and World Almanac	0%	6%

It is felt that a growing awareness of books is shown by the comparison of lists.

In the September, 1933 term, the question was worded, "What books would you buy for fifty dollars if you were spending a year in the Maine woods?" Briefly, answers were given by 82 students, who chose 859 different titles. Of these 81 were nature books, 53 were books of travel, 61 were biographies, 51 dealt with vocations or occupations; many poems and 28 books of plays were mentioned; cook books were chosen 15 times; religious books, including the Bible, 20 times; 5 books of military science were listed; 43 reference books, such as dictionaries, or almanacs, were named. First and second rate fiction was plentiful, mysteries and thrillers were there, hobbies and curiosities. Of the total number of books mentioned, 159, or approximately 19%, were in the school library. This represents a further advance in the awareness of books, when we compare it with 25% of the June, 1933 lists.

The aphabetical arrangements of the list by authors not only brought queer book neighbors together but indicated the graphic wording of today's titles. "New York Is Like This" (Brock) and "Cash Item" (Brody), "Beware of Imitations" (Jeffcott) and "Give Your Heart to the Hawks" (Jeffers), "Self-Cultivation in English" and "Murder on the Black Board" (Palmer)—these were odd pairs. No less amusing were the biographies ranging from "Scipio Africanus, Greater Than Napoleon" to Eddie Cantor's "My Life In Your Hands."

Today's problems appear many times: "A Girl Ought to Work," "Money Making Methods for These Times," "What's the Matter With New York?", "This Community of Yours," "Prohibiting Poverty," "Religion of Man," "Government Not Politics," "If I Could Preach But Once."

Certain students asked permission to include a subscription to periodicals such as "Current History," "Golden Book," or "National Geographic."

Life in the Maine woods, for a year, with a shelf of books supplied by any number of students would be filled with mental and physical recreation, useful occupations, and hours of worth-while browsing among great books.

Examples may be seen in the following lists, the first by a practical boy, the second by an interesting girl.

First List

Title	*Author*	*Price*
Webster's Collegiate Dictionary		$3.50
New Census Atlas of the World		3.50
National Cook Book	Sheilia Hibben	3.00
Electrical Guide (10 Volumes)	Hawkins	10.00
Outdoor Sports	(Published by "Popular Mechanics")	2.00

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First List (Cont.)

Title	Author	Price
Fuller's Earth	Carolyn Wells	2.00
No Witness	C. Fitzsimmons	2.00
World Almanac (cloth bound)		1.00
Wonder Book of Knowledge	H. C. Hill and W. H. Johnson	2.50
Human Body	Logan Clendenning	1.00
American Chess Player's Handbook		1.00
Hoyle's Games		1.00
A Man Must Fight	Gene Tunney	2.50
Owen D. Young	I. M. Tarbell	3.00
Laughing Torso	Hammet	3.00
Cut Throat	C. Bush	2.00
Shudders and Thrills	E. P. Oppenheim	2.50
Find the Motive	J. Woodford	2.00
Crime of Inspector Maigret	G. Simmons	1.50
Rope to Spare	P. MacDonald	2.00

Second List

Title	Author	Price
Autobiography of an Ex-Colored Man	James Weldon Johnson	$3.00
Anthony Adverse	Hervey Allen	2.50
The First World War	Edited by Laurence Stallings	3.00
Laugh With Leacock	Stephen Leacock	2.50
Barretts of Wimpole Street	Rudolph Besier	2.00
Tristan and Isolt	John Masefield	2.00
Dark of the Moon	Sara Teasdale	1.50
God's Trombones	James Weldon Johnson	2.50
The Weary Blues	Langston Hughes	2.00
Love Is Enough	Francis Brett Young	5.00
Christ at the Round Table	Sir Stanley Jones	2.00
If I Could Preach Just Once	Bertrand Russell	2.50
The Cradle of God	Llewelyn Powys	2.50
Religion of Man	Thakura Ravendranatha	2.50
Adventurous Religion and Other Essays	Harry Emerson Fosdick	2.00
The Meaning of Prayer	Harry Emerson Fosdick	1.50
Towns of Destiny	Hilliare Belloc	1.00
The Good Earth	Pearl S. Buck	2.50
The Dark Journey	Julian Greene	2.00
Scarlet Sister Mary	Julia Peterkin	1.00
The Cross Bearers	Alexander Moriz Frey	2.50
Cimarron	Edna Ferber	2.00
Mrs. Browning's Complete Poems	Students Cambridge Edition	3.50

J. E. Pavis.
Port Richmond High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

"Mors Ultima Linea Rerum Est"*

I stand here, a humble spokesman of the student body, with the hope of adequately expressing and revealing their thoughts and emotions at this, a commemorative assembly, for the death of a man who was our Principal.

Now that time has softened the overpowering shock of the sudden news of his death, and the first sharp pangs have become less painful, and stunned sensibilities have somewhat recovered, we can look back and appreciate more keenly and more profoundly how deep a wound and how great a void his death has left.

What limit is there to the extent of our loss? None within the power of my words to measure! None which your own feelings would not disavow! Why?

We, as students, both need and demand for our Principal, a man acquainted with our urgent needs, not alone of the immediate present, but those of a distant and removed future. We need a man who will recognize us as individuals, with instincts and emotions that cry out for guidance and direction, and we demand something more than being considered receptacles for mere knowledge and rudimentary information. We want a man well versed in the powers, the responsibilities and the prerogatives of both the student group and the faculty body. We need a man who will nourish and enrich our spiritual lives. In short, we need, we want, a man who is a combination of heart, of conscience and of brain.

Such was the man our school has lost and such the man for whom we all so deeply mourn. Speech has its limitations and words cannot reveal how much we respected and admired this man who filled and satisfied our requirements so well. We shall always look upon him as guide and mentor. We shall always serve and revere his ideals and precepts; we shall try to have the seed of his kindly teachings bear decent fruit and flowers—and we hope that they shall survive. We students feel the sacred obligation to live up to his hopes for us; and we must not, dare not, evade those obligations!

As for the memory of Mr. Norr, that is well guarded! Physical and spiritual properties of the school have not escaped his imprint and bear the stamp of his influence. The man himself lives in our hearts. That shall forever be *our* property and *our* solace!

SONIA STEINMAN.

A Pupil of Evander Childs High School.

* Delivered at the Memorial Exercises for Dr. Henry I. Norr, Principal of Evander Childs High School, March 11, 1934.

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Health Through the Ages

This booklet by C. E. A. Winslow and Grace T. Hallock is published by the School Health Bureau, Welfare Division, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

"Health Through the Ages" is intended to give boys and girls of high school age a sense of the agelessness of man's search for health. This booklet begins with the medicine men and the magic of the Stone Age and traces, through various historical periods, the story of how man has learned to protect not only his own body but that of his neighbor.

The conclusion of the story deals with certain aspects of the medical science of modern times. It ends on the note that many secrets about the human body and its effective protection against disease remain unsolved, but that the scientific method which has led to the discovery of many natural laws can be depended upon to unveil new possibilities of health and happiness and efficiency for the people of the future.

This booklet is furnished free of charge for use in junior and senior high school classes on the basis of ten copies to every one hundred pupils.

The chart, *Light and Shade*, is a pictorial supplement to the booklet "Health Through the Ages." Its object is to show graphically and in brief compass what a use of the scientific method has been able to accomplish in decreasing superstition and guesswork about the causes and treatment of sickness and in increasing a knowledge of the natural laws by which the human body is governed. This chart makes no attempt to show the relative values of the contributions made to medical science in the various periods of history pictured. Its chief aim is to give boys and girls an appreciation of that spirit which entered medicine nearly 2,500 years ago in the person of Hippocrates—the spirit of Science with its handmaids, experiment and observation.

The basis for the free distribution of this chart is one copy to a classroom.

Character Development

"Our high respect for a well-read man is praise enough of literature," said Emerson. May we not paraphrase that and say, "Our high respect for a man of good character is praise enough of education?" For, after all, the development of character is the chief purpose of modern education.

Just what, however, is meant by the "development of character?" I believe that it means the development of those traits which will enable students to fit themselves not only for earning their living but also for association with others. Of all forms of education, speech has one of the greatest opportunities for developing character.

Speech, by reason of its many facets of interest, appeals to students in so many ways that it is possible to reach practically everyone and to make some attempt to inculate ideals in each. The place of dramatics in this development is so obvious as scarcely

to need mention. The student learns coöperation when he finds that an entire scene may be disrupted because he has not been punctual or because he has been unable to keep quiet when others are talking. Not only in dramatics but in most other phases of speech work, the student learns coöperation and, therefore, consideration for others. In voice training and the study of phonetics, it is essential that the student work with the teacher if any improvement is to be discerned. Coöperation may be taught through public speaking, too, because the child learns to bear his share of the work needed to prepare a program or a speech. In almost every speech activity, lack of coöperation on the part of the student inconveniences not only his teachers and his classmates, but also himself. It does not take him too long to perceive this and in a very short time, he has seen the necessity for coöperation.

Responsibility may be developed by means of careful classroom management as well as by means of dramatics and public speaking. Students can be taught to take care of his own disciplinary problems by incorporating in their club constitutions laws governing the treatment and punishment of offenders. If students are given the task of passing papers or books, of keeping the classroom clean, of erasing boards, of posting notices and articles on the bulletin board, they learn not only to do well assigned tasks but also to assume tasks whenever opportunity offers. In dramatic work a student is required to remember when and where he enters, which "business" accompanies certain words and to depend on himself if anything goes wrong on the stage. Public speaking develops a sense of responsibility because the student is thrown on his own resources in the matter of acquiring, organizing, and delivering material.

Perseverance is a characteristic brought out by almost any phase of speech work. To correct errors in pronunciation, to improve one's voice or cure one's defects of speech, to characterize a person in a play, or to learn to present and deliver a speech requires persistent, endless effort which must develop the desired quality of "stick-to-itiveness."

Self-effacement, on the other hand, is a trait not to be despised. By self-effacement I do not mean a sense of inferiority, but rather the ability to forget one's self in consideration of others or in the successful accomplishment of one's task. When reading poetry aloud or when speaking lines in a play, the student must be taught to express the idea of the author, not his own, and to suppress his own personality while doing so. In voice-training, the student must overcome his consciousness of self if he is to effect any improvement in his voice.

Two desirable qualities are open-mindedness and tolerance which can best be developed by dramatics which acquaint a student with the people and customs of other countries and other localities. By vicariously experiencing some one else's emotions and thoughts, he acquires a greater understanding

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of human nature—an understanding which should make him more tolerant of differing viewpoints and of people who differ from his own standards. This same effect may possibly be obtained from the oral interpretation of poetry where the student must understand the author's ideas and feelings in order to present them adquately.

There are other characteristics which may be developed by speech training—too many for me to mention them more than briefly. Patience, punctuality, carefulness in performing assigned tasks are but a few of them. The student who has had speech training, particularly in extra-curricular activities, should have developed these traits which will enable him to love and work with others. He will at least be on the way to becoming "a man of good character!"

EVELYN C. MAHER.
Bryant High School.

A Stand for Science

It has been stated that scientific discoveries and inventions have advanced so rapidly that they are quickly overtaking the advancement of man himself and will probably destroy him. Therefore, all scientific studies should cease until man himself catches up with the present status of the subject. What would happen to the new civilization which man has created if he were to pursue the dictates of this remark?

"There is hardly a single detail of our common and collective life, whether in transportation of persons and goods, in modes of communication, in household appliances and conveniences, in medicine, in agriculture, and in all the varied forms of productive industry that is not what it is today because of what science has discovered." The inventor, the engineer and the business man are forever occupied with translating what is discovered in the laboratory into apppliications of tool, machine, and other devices which have largely revolutionized the conduct of life in the home, on the farm, and in amusement as well as in industry. These are just a few of the things unknown fifty years ago that are now everyday necessities.

It is science, which, through its practical applications, has produced the possibility of plenty and of ease and security for all. There is no person in any civilized country today who does not come in contact with the products of the scientist in almost every act of his life. When we see what science has done for us, how important it is to our comfort, and how we depend upon it, most of us would rather be living in a scientific age than in one where scientific discoveries had been prohibited.

According to Dr. Millikan, there can be no liberal education without science; an education which has left out the sciences has lost the most vital element in all education. This statement is the opinion not merely of a prejudiced scientist, but has been defended by eminent men in other fields, like Professors Dewey and Thorndike, who believe that it is pure science and mathematics "that train men in orderly and objective thinking as no other subject can." Science has altered human nature by giving it a sense of responsibility and power. Professor Millikan says, "Twenty-five years ago, many of us would have answered in the negative the question, 'Would you intrust practically every grown man in California and part of the women and children with a three horsepower locomotive which might be driven through crowded streets?' " Today, this is what has happened.

While it is very true that science has increased man's capacity both for construction and destruction by giving him with the same hand x-rays and machine guns, modern surgery and high explosives, anaethetic and poison gas, yet without it, man probably could not have adapted himself with such wonderful success to the change in external conditions. Education, therefore, has one single purpose—to keep the spark of curiosity burning and to pass it on for the "life enrichment" of the future generation, and this, through science.

SUSIE LIEBERMAN.
Haaren High School.

From the Secretary of State

The American Association of Teachers of Spanish recently adopted at its annual meeting the following resolution concerning the teaching of Spanish in the United States:

"*Whereas*, His Excellency the President of the United States in his first address to the Board of Governors of the Pan American Union solemnly dedicated his administration, actuated by the high principles of the New Deal, to the policy of 'the good neighbor' in inter-American relations, and

"*Whereas*, there can not be good neighborliness without thorough mutual understanding, and

"*Whereas*, it is generally acknowledged that a much more widely spread knowledge of Spanish and appreciation of its cultural content in this country than at present exist would constitute a genuine and effective contribution by the people of the United States to this new inter-American understanding sought by the administration of President Roosevelt, and

"*Whereas*, a statement to that effect in behalf of the administration by the Secretary of State, this country's representative on the Board of Governors of the Pan American Union and its Chairman, would help immensely to apprise the American people of the great importance such a demonstration of real interest in our neighbors could have for inter-American friendship, therefore

"*Be it resolved* that the American Association of Teachers of Spanish requests the Pan American Union to bring this resolution to the attention of the Secretary of State."

The Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull, said:

"The Association has asked for an expression of my views and I am glad of this opportunity to say that I am in accord with the general sentiment of the resolution favoring increased cultural and intellectual interchange

1. Dewey: "Science and Education," Vol. 18, No. 1, February, 1934.

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among the nations of the Western Hemisphere. I am heartily in favor of all appropriate means for the promotion of better understanding and more friendly relations between the United States and the other republics. I believe that a wider and better knowledge of the Spanish language,—the language of eighteen of the American Republics—would contribute effectively to this end and along with this a better appreciation of the historical, cultural and economic development of those countries.

"It is my earnest hope that there may be a greater dissemination of information and a better understanding of the countries, the people, and the civilizations of the American republics. Not one of our twenty-one countries should neglect the opportunity to convey to the others the best results of its civilization from an artistic as well as from a scientific and economic point of view."

—*Release of the Department of State*, March 7, 1934.

REVIEWS

Geometry Professionalized for Teachers

By H. C. Christopherson, Ph.D. Teachers College Publications.

The teaching of demonstrative geometry has undergone considerable change in the past half century. What was formerly considered mathematical rigidity has given way to a more psychological approach and organization of the materials of geometry. Theorems that were once considered indispensable are now being postulated and a greater emphasis laid on the development of the reasoning power of students as exemplified by the stress in work with originals.

Christopherson's study is designed to give the teacher or prospective teacher of geometry a mastery of subject matter, and simultaneously to train him in the method of teaching the subject. This integration is effected by using the technique advocated in presenting what the author calls the "Essential Theorems" of geometry. The selection of these theorems is based on an analysis of all the theorems and constructions in the report of the National Committee on the Reorganization of Mathematics, and are selected on the basis of the frequency of their use in establishing other subsequent fundamental theorems.

An excellent detailed study of the analytic method and the indirect proof as used in elementary plane geometry, forms a major portion of the text. It includes a discussion of converses and partial converses that is very clear and helpful.

The book concludes with a chapter on Modern Euclidean Geometry containing a selection of important theorems in this field. Assuming that the prospective teacher is unfamiliar with the pedogogy of the subject, he is to be faced with the experience his students go through in absorbing the methods and material of elementary plane geometry.

HENRY MAYER.
James Madison High School.

Spanish Science and Invention

By J. WARSHAW

University of Missouri; American Association of Teachers of Spanish, New York Chapter, 1934, 30 pages. (Monograph No. 3 of the Chapter Publications.)

"Sea serpent, ahoy!" shouts a sailor. But he of the master's license scans far horizons and replies, "On! Sail on!" Only a worthy successor to Columbus could steer through the oceans of literature, concerning all Spanish sciences in all ages, and compress this encyclopaedic information into thirty pages. That this busy teacher and executive could give us a little appetizer of present-day Spanish achievement, whisk us quickly back through Roman, Mediaeval, and Renaissance Spanish achievement, with a running comment of "first" this and "greatest" that, with an occasional citation of a present-day authority or primary source in support of assertions, and conclude with a quantitative analysis of the publications of the *Sociedad española de historia natural* (Spanish society of natural history) as at present constituted —such can only be a *tour de force* inspired by a real love of learning. Thorough appreciation of the contribution involved is to be expected only from those who have hoped to inform themselves easily concerning Romance-American science and turned to books like the author's *New Latin America* (1923, 415 pages) to find in the index "Science and scientists in Latin America, 277-278." But two pages! Since the tone of the author's 1934 pamphlet is that of a champion, the reviewer hastens to add that the term "Romance-American" is not used because the reviewer is incurably a romancer, but lest great universitarians to the North should say, "Dinna forget the French speech of a quarter of our country's population," and Twentieth-Century followers of Magalhaes should cry "Pois nao!" concerning "that great division of the world which Spaniards discovered and developed" (page 22), and all this while the author of *Spanish science and invention* hurls charges of colossal injustice regarding "the meaningless term 'Latin America.'"

May an Incognito Magnificent be found who will supply the needed assistance for the publication of a revised and enlarged edition of this fine commencement. And may an editor be found who will pull key quotations out of the footnotes and place references to authorities for each statement in the footlights; who will rearrange the chemicals, drugs, anthropoids, stars, stones, sticks, teeth, and figures (pages 6-8) in a taxonomic sequence, or point out that the author has arranged the individual biographies according to his opinion of their relative importance; who will discourage (page 5) "the fanaticism of persons who

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know only English, French, and German," by impelling such persons gently toward Hispanic mysteries through the medium of indigenous Spanish titles for institutions and publications, followed, as above, by the English translation in parentheses (page 6) "for the convenience of readers not familiar with Spanish"; who will consider why the botanical garden —which Dr. C. S. Gager, in the Encyclopaedia Britannica (14th ed., v. 3, p. 945), says was founded in Pisa when Philip II of Spain was 16 years old—why this de Medici garden was any less "first genuine" (page 18) than the Spanish one at Aranjuez; who will ask an addition to the author's excellent summary of Mohammedan, Jewish, and Catholic contributions to Spanish scientific achievement, as to the Republican effect on continuity of work at the *Observatorio del Ebro* of the *Societas Jesu*, who will tell us from the German *Minerva Jahrbuch* under what auspices Argentine mathematical research is undertaken (pages 7-8); who to the author's legal-style numbers of paragraphs will add bold-face catch-words and give us tables, with subject "boxes" down the left side and centuries across the top, to present a graphic, chronological picture of Spain's complex scientific development.

True it may be that Spain may not have her last full measure of credit in horticulture. But surely this is not rank discrimination against the gallant Cavanilles! Botanical roots have ever been adventitious. Else why should the English say "Irish potato" and the Spanish, "English potato," for our aboriginal American product! As scientific linguists and articulate scientists let us beware of "world's greatest" (page 6). The fact that Dr. Carrel has given the United States a world reputation for being a chicken-hearted nation does not mean that we are *faint*-hearted about recognizing the unusual in histology and nuerology at home, nor in France, nor Italy. When Switzerland has an important message to place before the nation she needs must publish it in parallel columns of French, Italian, and German. Such only is "law" with her. Were a Comacine serpent to rear its head in her waters, the chances are that she would not worry as to which coil came after which, or as to whether reports in Gaelic on the Ness would outdo her French-Italian-German reports of the distinctive visitor.

After all, the stronghold of her national genius would be a margin of intrinsic utility broad enough to overcome any *lapsus linguae*. For such reptilian startlers of the Garden of Eden are their own inevitable self-advertisements and not for worlds would an intellectually curious person be deprived, by the obstacle of a few irregular verbs, of reading about these creatures "in the original."

Is not the answer to international rivalry *bigger and better sea serpents!*

MARIE K. PIDGEON.

Curtis High School.

Selected References in Education, 1933

Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 41. University of Chicago Press, 95 cents.

This monograph consists of eleven hundred references carefully winnowed by almost forty recognized specialists from the staggering annual output of educational literature. Each reference is succinctly but adequately annotated. The material is listed under twenty separate headings covering practically the entire field of education.

This service was formerly a part of the "Record of Current Educational Publications" published by the United States Office of Education, but discontinued as an economy measure. At present, no other agency is affording such a comprehensive survey of current educational literature. It serves as a very necessary point of orientation in the confused welter of contemporary educational activity. To the classroom teacher or student of education, interested in professional progress and development, it is an invaluable aid.

A. H. L.

The Technique and Administration of Teaching

By Noble Lee Garrison, Ph.D. American Book Company. $2.50.

"Education," says Dr. Garrison, has but one aim, the "building of pupil personalities." This development of "well-rounded, integrated personalities" must proceed in three directions: (1) Growth in independence and power of achievement through the development of certain personal traits; (2) Growth in control of worth while subject-matter; and (3) Growth in the use of desirable learning techniques—methods of study and work." Only through pupil activity, adequately motivated, centered on worthy objectives, and efficiently directed, can these ideals be achieved. Thus the pupil's methods of study and work, and his learning activities assume crucial, and central importance in the teaching scheme. The teacher exists only for the pupil. Full, free, deep, and balanced growth of the pupil must be the guiding principle of his teaching. Towards this end, all his skill and ingenuity must be devoted.

The "administration of teaching" is concerned with creating a learning situation in which a maximum of such growth can take place. The "technique of teaching" supplies the student with the means suitable to the desired ends. Thus, the "project" and the "socialized recitations" are "administrative" procedures for carrying on learning and teaching techniques so that the pupils may gain "the most valuable and extensive development which the learning situation is capable of producing when effectively handled." The "technique" of teaching guides pupil growth in problem-solving, drill, appreciation, and the like. Both the "technique" and "administration" of teaching must function reciprocally in every instructional plan, if teaching is to attain its fullest possibilities. This distinction is no

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idle one. To grasp its essentials is to clear away most of the confusion now surrounding the almost meaningless concept of "method."

Part I of the book presents an acute and illuminating analysis of techniques of teaching—appreciation, drill, problem solving, acquisition of skills, and so on.

Part II deals with some of the more popular and widely-used "administrative" procedures which these techniques function—the Socialized Recitation, Supervised Study, Winetka Plan, Morrison Plan, and the like.

Part III gives practical and concrete illustrations of fruitful application of the technique and administration of teaching in actual classroom work.

Its clearly enunciated point of view and its logical organization make this volume of great utility to the teacher who is anxious to formulate a consistent philosophy of education which will give unity to his own theory and practice and realize the utmost in pupil growth.

A. H. L.

Articulation of High School and College

By P. Roy Brammel. Bulletin 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education. Monograph No. 10. For Sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., 10 cents.

Despite the heroic efforts of high school and college authorities to bring about a closer articulation between these two institutions, the present investigation reveals that there is still much confusion here.

Much of the activity of the "articulators," while well-intentioned, has been misdirected. "The problem of articulation does not center and is not to be solved at the point of transition from the secondary school to the college. It is more far-reaching than that. A great deal of the expensive research now being carried on to determine what entrance criteria are most effective or what subjects should be required, might well be turned to the task of solving the articulation problem at its source." The truth seems to lie in a somewhat different direction: ". . . the abilities, habits, characteristics of pupils ought to be studied during their secondary school careers, and on the basis of the determined relationships of these to subsequent scholastic success, pupils should be guided into or directed away from the higher institutions." This is a job essentially for the secondary school and involves more comprehensive guidance programs than are at present employed. The college, too, has the obligation "of increasing, through coöperative guidance work with the secondary schools and differentiated instruction in college, the chance of success in the higher institutions." Only by some such scheme can the number of tragic misfits and failures be reduced.

A. H. L.

Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public

By Belmont Farley. Bulletin 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education. Monograph No. 16. For Sale by Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., 10 cents.

With the austounding expansion of the secondary school in America, there is a vital need for interpreting this phenomenon to the public which must pay for it. The continued progress of our secondary school system depends upon the intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the taxpayer.

This study shows that the publicity programs carried on by schools covered in this survey react favorably on the public and prejudice them in favor of the schools. It therefore suggests that all the media of controlling and influencing public opinion be utilized more fully and more purposefully, with a view to creating an aggressive public consciousness of the importance of the secondary school in our national life. The analysis of methods of school publicity successfully employed elsewhere in the country offers many valuable hints to those engaged in the task of "interpreting the secondary school to the public."

A. H. L.

Instruction in English

By Dora V. Smith. National Survey of Secondary Education. Monograph No. 20. Bulletin 1932, No. 17. For Sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., 10 cents.

This survey attempts to chart the major tendencies in English instruction in America. It is by far the most comprehensive study of the present status of English teaching. Here, for the first time, we have a birds-eye view of what teaching techniques dominate today. The general direction seems to be distinctly "progressive." But the conservative forces have not entirely relinquished their positions. The hand of the past is still heavy upon us. The picture we have here is a very confusing one, indeed; the most disreputable anachronisms lie side by side with some of the most advanced practices.

This monograph is a very valuable one. But it has a value only as an indicator of currents in English teaching. Unfortunately, it attempts no evaluation of the bewilderingly diverse teaching procedures it lists. Those who cry for pedagogical bread are here presented only with meticulously ordered statistical stones. This is by no means a deprecation of the survey. It is merely a statement of the necessary limitations of any purely descriptive study. What the English teachers need is standards; not figures. Current practice is no infallible index of soundness. And what we want is the truth, not the degree to which errors of half truths abound.

A. H. L.

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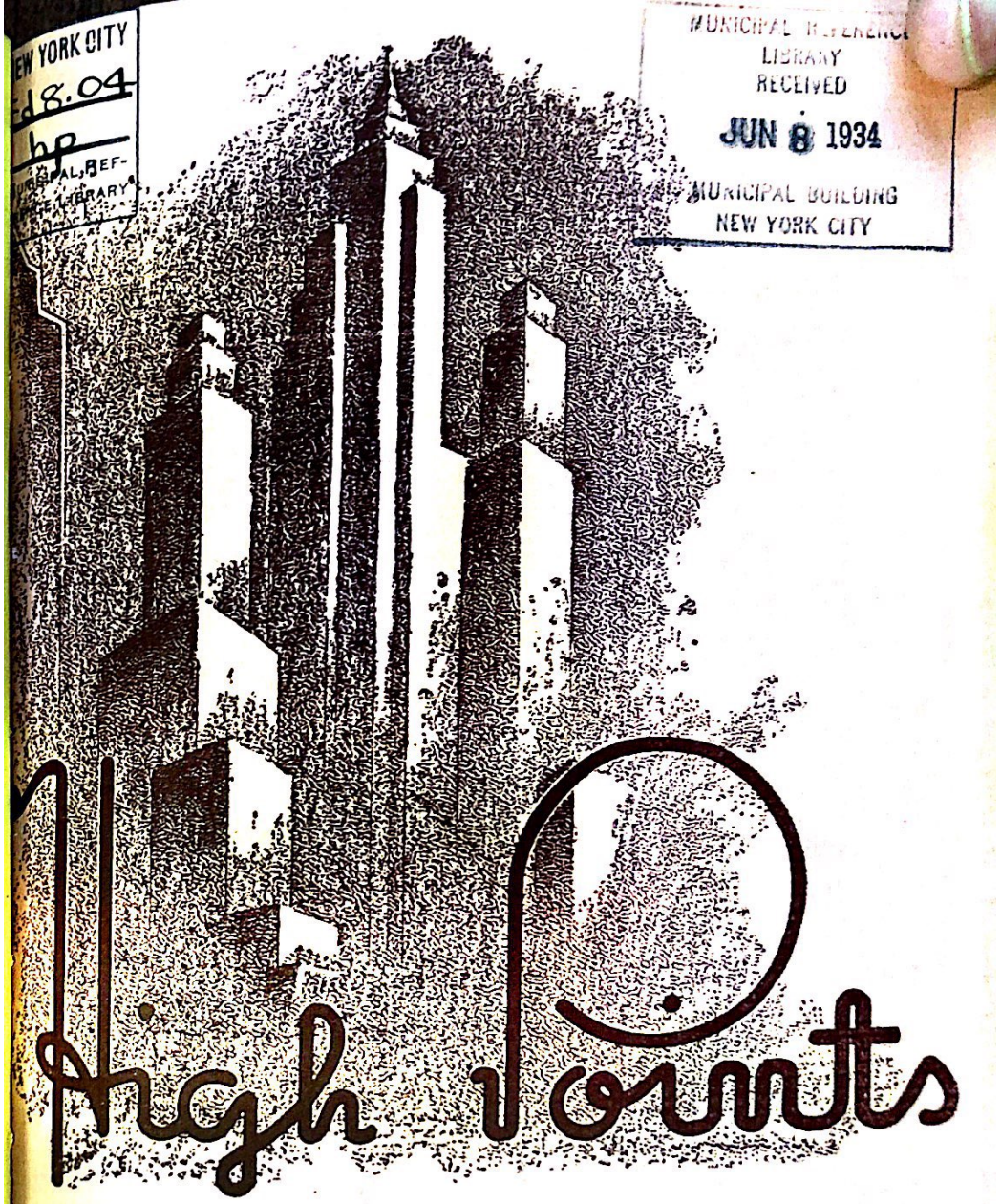

High Points

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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I do not believe we are going to get back where we belong in our relationship to the public until we ourselves regard it as just as much an obligation to educate the public as it is to educate the children.

There can be no standard plan for all communities because communities differ in size and makeup. But there can be a standard purpose and policy, which is that this thing I am talking about is essential. There can be a standard in the establishment of a department, headed by a man who has no other job than the conduct of the sales department of the schools. Place on the head of that department the responsibility for carrying it through just as the responsibility is on the superintendent for the general leadership of the schools. Once that is established and once we believe that it ought to be done, it will be carried out and we will have more constructive work of the type that is now found in a few centers of this country. That department's job is to inform the public constructively.

MERLE SIDENER

Advertising specialist, in a talk before the Cleveland meeting of the Department of Superintendence, N.E.A., February, 1934.

GUIDANCE IN THE LARGE HIGH SCHOOL

Is it possible for guidance to become a full-fledged reality in the large high school? Can it develop beyond the stage of uncoördinated fragments, phases, and beginnings, and grow up into a dignified service requiring no apologies for its youth in comparison with longer established educational services? Or must it remain forever a consummation devoutly to be hoped for, but never fully realized because of the difficulties that beset the path of the administrator who would attempt to give boys and girls the kind of training we know they should have?

There is probably not an educator in America today who does not subscribe to the idea that it is the duty of the public schools to assist every pupil in achieving his fullest and highest development. The principle of individual differences is generally accepted as the bedrock on which education must be planned and administered. It is an article of faith developing out of and consistent with the great American credo of equality of opportunity for the pursuit of happiness.

All over the country there is evidence of sincere desire on the part of public school administrators to accord more than mere lip service to their belief in the right of every child to the kind of schooling that is consistent with his own individual aptitudes, interests, and needs now and in the future. No brief is needed to establish the point. At this writing the newspapers quote Dr. Harold G. Campbell, Superintendent of the largest school system in the country, to the effect that the "individual child is the center of the educative process"; and Dr. John L. Tildsley, in charge of forty-two large New York City high schools, that a "start has been made toward the complete individualization of the educative process." These happen to come immediately to hand. There are others throughout the land that swell the chorus resting upon the same central theme—Individual Differences. A wide variety of services have grown up in the schools in the past twenty-five years which aim at satisfying the special needs of particular types of students, at adjusting either school environment or scholars to each other.

Certainly there is no place where the need for considering boys and girls as individuals is greater than in the secondary school, where interests become focused, where choices must be narrowed, and where drastic changes in objectives have recently occurred. The influx into the high school of a huge and heterogeneous student personnel has created a situation demanding adjustments. These adjustments cannot, it has been found, generally and reasonably be expected of the students themselves! Nor can the most well-intentioned high school administrator adapt the growing army of Toms, Dicks, and Harrys, of Marys, Janes, and Elizabeths, to a curriculum and a methodology which tend to head them toward a professional fu-

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ture for which they have no aptitude or inclination.

The only alternative to fitting boys and girls to high schools is, obviously, to fit the schools to boys and girls. Brave beginnings have been made, as for example the growing emphasis upon objectives other than the purely intellectual, even in academic strongholds. The change in emphasis from departmental or subject-matter aims, to the aims of education as a total process, with special attention to preparation for leisure time and home membership, and civic efficiency, has developed out of a new conception of pupils as total personalities instead of as mere repositories for quantities of unassociated learnings. The presence of these new developments increases the need on the part of high schools to make real and significant, practical and systematic, the consideration of individual differences.

Ironically enough, the larger the individual high school, and therefore the wider the diversity of curricular opportunities that might suit individual needs, the larger is the likelihood that the student will be lost sight of as an individual. To put it more simply, the greater the need for individual attention, the less likely it is that the student will receive it. Complexities of organization, double sessions, overuse of plant and the presence of three, four, or more thousands of distinct personalities in the school are often regarded as making impossible adequate attention to individual requirements.

Granting for the purposes of this discussion the existence of the desired curricula, how can the opportunity for "highest and fullest development" be granted to every boy and girl as a distinct individual in the large high school of today, the school, let us say, having a faculty of one hundred teachers with a corresponding student body of upward of twenty-five hundred? Is it possible to accomplish this—or must we go on making a feint at educating individuals rather than herds? In other words, is the systematized guidance of individual boys and girls a possibility in the large high school?

Most decidedly it is. And it is, by and large, without the increase of numbers on the faculty, if the principal will but make the necessary changes in organization. For it is by the reallocation of positions in the existing staff rather than by the addition of new positions that a guidance program can be created in a high school. And, the larger the high school, the easier is this of accomplishment. Before proceeding to substantiate this statement, it is necessary to discuss the meaning of guidance as it is being used here.

The distinction must be made between guidance as an idea and guidance as a function.* Guidance in the former sense may and should permeate the whole of the school process. Guidance in the latter sense is a specialized service. The guidance function is placed in the hands of particular individuals whose responsibility it is to bring the guidance idea, which in broad terms is nothing more nor less than the idea that students are individuals with individual differences, to every teacher and administrator on the faculty; and to make that idea function in classroom and club-room, in laboratory and shop. The principal who disposes of guidance with the breezy remark that guidance is the business of every teacher in the school is correct only insofar as guidance is identified with a point of view. If his teachers are guidance-minded, so much the better for the pupils of the school, for those pupils are being taught with respect to their own individual needs and possibilities. But what of the essential services that only an organized guidance program can assure?

If, at the other extreme, it is claimed that an adequate guidance service is provided because some features of such a service are being offered, the claim is likewise only partially true. To be sure, half a loaf is better than none. But, advising for college entrance, assisting the physically or mentally handicapped, study of school failures, provisions for part-time employment, case handling of truants or others showing symptomatic behavior, are fragments of guidance. They do not constitute a guidance program. The highest and fullest development of every boy and girl requires far more than provision for failures, truants, psychotics, and drop-outs.

Until to all the students of the school—of high and low I. Q. alike, able-bodied and crippled, socially low and high, ambitious and lazy, good and bad, professional and industrial in interests—until to one and all is granted the opportunity under skilled direction to evaluate his particular educational needs in the light of his entire personality make-up, until that time guidance as a specialized service, organized and systematized and functioning for all, does not exist. It is a series of incidental activities; it is not the major concern which it must be to fulfill its potentialities.

To be sure, such an ideal program of guidance does not spring up over night. To use the President's recent metaphor, the plan of such a structure provides for many pillars; and not all of them can be reared with equal facility or at equal rates of speed. But given a well-conceived plan and time, the foundation can be laid and the building proceed. And in time the various parts will emerge as an integrated whole because the builders were guided by a general plan and were careful to regard each addition in the light of the total results desired.

It is important that the plan for such a program provide for the acquisition by the school of certain types of information and for the employment of certain techniques and procedures. The writer's thinking on this subject, and working with it, up to the present writing suggest five types of information, with corresponding techniques

* For illuminating discussions of this distinction the following readings are suggested:

L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver: "Guidance in Secondary Schools," New York, The Macmillan Company, 1932, Chapter I.

L. V. Koos: "The Interpretation of Guidance," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, September, 1933, pp. 8-11.

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and procedures, essential to the administration of a guidance program. They are listed below with some brief discussion:

I. Information about the individual pupils of the high school.

If students are to be guided to the various courses, schools, colleges, and vocations to which their capacities and interests point, it is necessary to identify those capacities and interests. All the obtainable significant facts about individual students, therefore, are needed.

Until, however, a cumulative record becomes a reality, a guidance department can make an approach to the desired end by gathering together all that the school yields in information, though this may be sometimes spread over several administrators' offices. A guidance department adds to the findings the results of case study, which may include data from mental hygiene clinic, testing bureau, parent interview, home visit, teacher conference, and student interviews.

This guidance department record does not supplant the permanent record in the school's central office. It includes the significant information of that record. And the accumulation of this information is a continuing process inextricably bound to, and progressively growing out of, the uses to which the information is put.

II. Centralized and systematized information about educational opportunities of interest to individual students. This information falls naturally into two classes.

1. Within the school.

It is useless to talk about a student's *choice* of a school program unless he has an authentic picture of the school's total offerings. Special courses, coaching facilities, scholarship possibilities, opportunities for service to the school, relief facilities, clubs and athletic activities, employment assistance—these and more types of information concerning the school must, to be effective, result from continued gathering of such information and personal contact with the activities. The mere listing of such resources is not what is referred to, but rather a knowledge and understanding of each resource which makes evaluation of it for each boy and girl a reality. It seems beyond cavil essential that responsibility for gathering such information be centralized in one place in the school.

2. Beyond the school.

It is equally useless to talk about educational guidance unless significant information about the means of education—by which we do not mean college exclusively—is ready to hand. Reliable up-to-date educational information means organized data about colleges, to be sure, but also, and of equal importance, about apprenticeships, trade schools, business schools, private schools, technical schools, professional schools, graduate courses, and adult education in its many forms.

Discussions regarding future education are too often made on the basis of inadequate information so that they cannot properly be called choices at all, inasmuch as intelligent choosing implies the rejection of all other reasonable alternatives after due consideration.

The pooling of all such information as this grows very naturally out of the normal functioning of a guidance department whose counselors work continuously with the material, using it in relation to the actual problems of students. Through correspondence, personal visitation, and the follow-up of students, it is possible for counselors to evolve a fund of information infinitely superior to the mere content of catalogues because related to actual situations.

III. Centralized and systematized information about vocations.

The obtaining of authentic vocational information does not end with the accumulation of detailed occupational studies, but extends to keeping up-to-date on modern vocational life with respect to its demands upon individual workers, and its trends insofar as they are obtainable and ascertainable. Pending the time when the United States Department of Labor will fulfill the hopes and plans of Miss Frances Perkins in furnishing such information, it is an absolute necessity for every high school to have on hand as reliable data as possible concerning occupational life, occupational facilities, and even "pigeonhole occupations." More often than not an educational plan is dependent upon the educational requirements for entrance to or progress in an occupation. Students can hardly plan their secondary and higher education purposefully without consideration of the facts of vocational life. To consider such facts implies having the facts.

Again because this type of information is the raw material with which a guidance department works and because the accumulation of the information progressively grows out of the uses to which it is put, the responsibility for gathering, revising, and indexing it would seem to belong to this department.

Every teacher in the school, properly educated, can contribute to the process by turning in to the guidance office information that comes his or her way. The librarian, too, can be of great help. And parents are a too-often-forgotten source of valuable occupational information.

There is a large amount of pamphlet material available without charge that needs only to be gathered to form a nucleus for a vocational shelf or file. A good list of sources of such material is to be found in the Vocational Guidance volume of the series of studies published as a result of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, Century Company, New York, 1932. Some good system of indexing, such as the five-fold method of the late May Rogers Lane, or the one suggested in the October, 1933, issue of *Occupations* will provide the key for the school to all the occupational literature and other sources of help available.

IV. Information concerning current employment opportunities for the students and alumni of the school.

Because the placement of students of the school is widely accepted as a responsibility of the public school system, the high school should organize an employment bureau operating on good realistic employment principles. Such a bureau serves graduates, dropouts, and applicants for part-time and vacation positions. Its functioning is not limited to job-filling, but includes employment counseling and assistance in making satisfactory adjustments to the job.

The guidance department would, therefore, include in its personnel a placement or employment counselor whose duty it would be to secure for students as wide and varied occupational opportunities as the community afforded. It goes without saying that the counselor with such an aim would find the gathering and compilation of employment information a necessary concomitant of her other duties.

V. Complete information concerning the resources of the community.

Inasmuch as the high school constitutes but one type of social agency, it is frequently necessary to supplement its services to students. The doors

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of the school must therefore lead out, as it were, not only to further schooling and occupations but to every agency that can contribute to a pupil's development. The maintenance of coöperative relations with recreational agencies, child-caring institutions, hospitals, mental hygiene clinics, speech clinics, psychological testing bureaus, business houses, industrial plants, chambers of commerce, museums, libraries, research organizations, sheltered workshops, relief societies, summer camps, to mention the most obvious, is a *sine qua non* of guidance service.

Again responsibility for this type of service rests with the guidance department which is the logical clearing house of the school for community contacts.

It is noteworthy in the light of the thesis here submitted in favor of the establishment of guidance as a major concern in a high school that the five types of information set forth are the raw materials with which guidance counselors must work. At the risk of being repetitive, it has been said in connection with each of the five types that the collection of the information is a natural outgrowth and concomitant of the methods and techniques of the guidance process. The task of gathering the information, therefore, is not so colossal as at first appears. For one thing, every high school has, to begin with, a wealth of such information, which needs but to be gathered, classified, indexed, and continuously revised. The main point for the administrator seems to be to place responsibility for this upon the guidance department. Coöperation between it and the rest of the school in the actual performance of the work is a foregone conclusion, dependent to a great extent upon the principal's avowed sanction. Student assistance and teacher committees provide but two means among many of furnishing clerical and other forms of assistance entailed.

But provision for the accumulation and organization of the information described would avail little without provision for interpreting to each boy and girl that part of it which is significant to him and her. This implies more than the dissemination of information by traditional means, such as classrooms, assemblies, school papers, bulletin boards, home room periods, clubs, and group conferences. Over and above such valuable group means of using the information there is the necessity for bringing all the significant types of information to play upon the situation of each student, as a distinct personality, so that he may be made aware of his assets and liabilities. And what is more, aware of them in relation to his needs and to all available opportunities and possibilities for him. The aim is to make sure that his choices and his decisions have been and are purposeful, whether in the election of courses, the choice of a vocation, or the selection of a club.

At this point the high school administrator is wont to throw up his hands and exclaim "it can't be done," so huge does the task appear of providing the opportunity for individual consideration to several thousand students. There is no side-stepping the issue. If such individual consideration is to be given, the full time and energy of a sufficient number of people to give it intelligently are required. There has been developed as yet no snap method of learning individual abilities and limitations and of leading the possessor of them to awareness of their significance, even though techniques and skills are aids in the guidance process.

The very essence of organized guidance is the counseling of individual students. Painstakingly acquired information and the skill of specialists are not of much use unless both can be applied to the problems of the boy and the girl. The ideal is access to a trained, informed counselor at any time for every student who wishes to discuss a problem, to seek advice, to get authentic information, to weigh the pros and cons of alternate courses of action, yes, even to share a confidence or seek relief from anxiety.

Obviously this ideal cannot be reached immediately upon setting up a guidance service. But a beginning can be made. Teachers can be invited to refer in writing the names of students, with the cause of referral, who they believe need counsel. Students may be invited to apply for interview by means of a guidance office mail-box. Special groups of students may be specially invited, individually, for interview—new entrants, transfers from other schools, fourth-term students who have reached a mid-point, seventh-term students who are about to leave the school, leaders, truants, failures. The needs of the particular high school will dictate the best point of departure. And the number and expertness of the counselors will indicate where to draw the line. It is pretty generally accepted among guidance workers that the ratio of counselors to students should be not less than one to five hundred. These would represent pupils ranging all the way from severe "cases" requiring consistent interviewing and community agency tie-ups to those for whom a mild amount of direct psycho-therapy over one or two interviews suffices.

Volume can be controlled to meet the exigencies of the school's situation at any one time. And at such time as the guidance staff can be increased to accommodate all requests for counsel, and satisfy all need for it, the guidance program may be said to have reached its goal.

The only way to begin is to begin. And the important way to begin is to plan for expansion so as to avoid lopsidedness. The service must be seen whole, with larger goals and underlying principles well in mind if the program is to thrive. Let it start with two or three counselors, who will work towards the objectives though they cannot for some time to come reach the entire school or cover all the phases of the work. It is better to make haste slowly, so long as development actually proceeds.

Not only on general principles is it best to begin in a small way, but

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for very good practical reasons. To establish a new department in an existing institution creates strains that must later be compensated for, even though the new department were composed of thoroughly trained specialists. The situation of most high schools does not permit, in these days of retrenchment, the acquisition of even one trained counselor. Therefore, it is among the hundred or more members of the faculty that counselors must be sought—and trained. The training would in such a case be afforded on the job, with supplementing from the outside. The equipping of two or three teachers, rather than more than that number, to become counselors during the first year of guidance is therefore advisable.

Again, because extremely important functions of guidance are to integrate services of all kinds that bear relations to it, and to educate the entire faculty to the idea of guidance, it has been found wise to start in a small way, allowing growth to result from needs felt by the entire school. This is saying nothing more nor less than that it is better to develop a plan involving drastic change in procedures a little late as a result of socialized processes, than to impose the will of a specialist unsupported by faculty enthusiasm. The Secretary of Labor has said well that no reorganization in social relationships can be brought about effectively until the idea upon which it is based fully permeates the consciousness of individuals concerned. This applies no less to the reorganization of relationships in a high school than in the world of industry.

Guidance, even so modestly begun, becomes a highly specialized function requiring the full time and energy of counselors not only to answer immediate needs, but to plan for development of the service and for equipping themselves with appropriate skills, knowledge, and experience. No one high school situation is identical with any other. One school may find it advisable to begin guidance by concentration upon the vocational phase of it, another the educational. One may start by making acquaintance with community agencies, especially mental hygiene clinics. Still another will establish means for testing, either within or without the school—or both. One may emphasize atypical pupils; another the so-called normal or average pupils. But eventually, given sufficient time, all pupils and types of service will be provided for, not necessarily within the four walls of the school, but by a coöperative scheme between school and community. Then only may guidance be called a well-organized school service.

The happiest consideration in all of these plans for guidance in a large high school is the one mentioned near the beginning of this article—that, the larger the high school, the easier is it to establish a central service for it without adding necessarily to the faculty, but rather by re-assignment of positions within the existing faculty. In this connection it will carry more weight with principals of high schools if a principal, himself in charge of a large high school organization of two hundred-fifty teachers and seven thousand students, explains the point. John M. Loughran, Principal of Samuel J. Tilden High School, is especially well-qualified to speak, inasmuch as he has established a Guidance Department in that school, in the face of all the difficulties incidental to the curtailment of educational facilities. It was, however, precisely these exigencies that made guidance as a specialized service for individual boys and girls seem to him indispensable. He speaks as follows for the purpose of this article.

The withdrawal of a teacher from classroom work necessarily increases the load of the remaining teachers. In the face of prevailing larger class units than permit of proper individualization of instruction and socialization of recitation many of us are loath to introduce anything into the school that will necessitate still larger classes. The question resolves itself, perhaps, into one of relative values. From my point of view the returns of a guidance service in terms of benefit to students amply compensate for the relatively slight increase in class size. Also, the hundreds of adjustments that have been effected and the motivation of school work thus provided, with consequent improvement of classroom activity, more than offset the quantitative consideration.

In the large school elasticity of organization is very naturally present. This applies not only to questions where total numbers are involved, but to the more local questions for each school of departmental distribution, teaching personnel, etc. With these latter I am not here concerned, and shall dispose of them by saying that to date we have not found them to be insurmountable.

With respect to the increased pupil load of teachers because of the withdrawal of some for guidance work, the statement may be made that, the larger the school, the smaller the effect upon class size.

If, for instance, in a school of 101 positions, one teacher were assigned as guidance counselor, how would the class size for the remaining 100 teachers be affected? To make calculation easy, let us assume the pupil period load of each teacher to be 1000 (because five classes of forty students each are met five times a week). There is a total pupil period load of 101,000. Using one teaching position necessitates the distributing of her pupil period load of 1000 over the load of the 100 remaining teachers. Plainly, each teacher gets ten additional pupils over the twenty-five classes of the week, which may be interpreted as two-fifths of a pupil in each of her twenty-five classes, or more realistically as two additional pupils in one of her daily classes, or as one additional pupil in each of two of her daily classes.

If five teachers are assigned to guidance work in a school with 105 teaching positions, a pupil period load of 5000 must be distributed over the total pupil period load of 100,000 of the remaining 100 teachers. This represents an addition of two pupils to each class met during the week.

In the case of a school of 205 teaching positions (the numbers are chosen for convenience in calculating) the use of five teaching positions for full time guidance counseling results in the addition of one student to each class met during the week.

The following tables show the effect on pupil period load using the number of positions shown. They are not presented as being complete or as representing every type of organization. They are given only to furnish bases for calculation that can be applied to any particular school situation.

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Schools Organized on Basis of 30, 35 or 40 per Class and Having Approximately 50 or 100 Teaching Positions

School organized on basis of	Total Teaching Positions	No. of Positions to be used for Guidance Program	Total Pupil Period Load	To Be Distributed		Total Number of Classes	Number of Pupils Added to Each Class
				Pupil Period Load	Number of Pupils		
40 pupils per class	51	1	51,000	1,000	200	250	.8
	52	2	52,000	2,000	400	250	1.6
	53	3	53,000	3,000	600	250	2.4
35	51	1	44,625	875	175	250	.7
	52	2	45,500	1,750	350	250	1.4
	53	3	46,375	2,625	525	250	2.1
30	51	1	38,250	750	150	250	.6
	52	2	39,000	1,500	300	250	1.2
	53	3	39,750	2,250	450	250	1.8
40	101	1	101,000	1,000	200	500	.4
	103	3	103,000	3,000	600	500	1.2
	105	5	105,000	5,000	1,000	500	2.0
35	101	1	88,625	875	175	500	.35
	103	3	90,125	2,625	525	500	1.05
	105	5	91,875	4,375	875	500	1.75
30	101	1	75,750	750	150	500	.3
	103	3	77,250	2,250	450	500	.9
	105	5	78,750	3,750	750	500	1.5

Schools Organized on Basis of 40 per Class and Having From 51 to 301 Teaching Positions

School organized on basis of	Total Teaching Positions	No. of Positions to be used for Guidance Program	Total Pupil Period Load	To Be Distributed		Total Number of Classes	Number of Pupils Added to Each Class
				Pupil Period Load	Number of Pupils		
40	51	1	51,000	1,000	200	250	.8
	101	1	101,000	1,000	200	500	.4
	151	1	151,000	1,000	200	750	.266
	201	1	201,000	1,000	200	1,000	.2
	251	1	251,000	1,000	200	1,250	.16
	301	1	301,000	1,000	200	1,500	.133
	53	3	53,000	3,000	600	250	2.4
	103	3	103,000	3,000	600	500	1.2
	153	3	153,000	3,000	600	750	.8
	203	3	203,000	3,000	600	1,000	.6
	253	3	253,000	3,000	600	1,250	.48
	303	3	303,000	3,000	600	1,500	.4
	105	5	105,000	5,000	1,000	500	2.0
	155	5	155,000	5,000	1,000	750	1.33
	205	5	205,000	5,000	1,000	1,000	1.0
	255	5	255,000	5,000	1,000	1,250	.8
	305	5	305,000	5,000	1,000	1,500	.66

The increase in size of classes, therefore, as a result of withdrawing one, two, three, or five teachers for guidance counseling, varies in decreasing degree with the increasing size of the school. In other words, the larger school has an advantage over the smaller one in respect to the allocation of teaching positions for special work of this sort. By a particularly agreeable dispensation, it appears that whereas in the large high school the problem of compensating for complexity, heterogeneity, and size is greatest, the possibility of adjustment is also greatest.

The large high school offers another very obvious advantage in the increased range of personalities, abilities, experience, and attitudes represented by a larger faculty, making possible a higher degree of selectivity for the guidance department personnel. It is not the purpose of this article to discuss the qualifications of the guidance personnel beyond making a few suggestions that seem of great practical importance. Although broad powers of intellect, interest, energy, and enthusiasm are to be preferred to specific skills without these qualities, there are certain types of skill that it is advisable to provide for on the guidance staff. One of these is technical expertness in the matter of the programming of students. It would be futile to talk about the significance of program choices in particular cases without clear understanding of all the facts and implications of the program.

The other type of skill is the outcome of broad experience of a social sort, outside of the school, though perhaps related to it. The teacher who has been active in settlement work, who has led a Girl Scout troop, who is interested in community resources, who has had business or industrial experience, and who as a result sees school as related to life in its unacademic aspects—represents this best, perhaps. She has had experience with many sides of life, knows something about organization and human mechanisms, and can meet the community as well as the school. If two such people can be found, the selection of the others may safely rest upon basic qualities of mind and personality, professional attitude toward the job, and other necessary potentialities. This is not equivalent to saying that vocational guidance and placement and the interpretation of test data and case work and whatever else may enter into the guidance service in the particular school do not involve special training and techniques. It is merely stating what experience seems to suggest as important in the initial selection of a limited number of counselors.

Nor does it seem necessary to outline a detailed plan on which to start to work. Individual differences exist among large high schools as truly as among their students! Some basic assumptions apply, however, to all schools. It may be ventured that chief among them is the necessity for considering guidance an essentially coöperative enterprise among all members of the faculty and guidance counselors; that it cannot function well unless there is identity of underlying educational philosophy and of broad guidance principles among teachers, administrators, and counsel-

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ors alike. It would be useless to imagine that a handful of counselors can carry on or carry out a service that aims at the development of individuals through purposeful planning without the fullest kind of participation by every administrator and teacher of the school. Guidance, to be effective, must be more than a purple patch. It must be an integral part of the high school organization, closely coördinated with curriculum making, the teaching process, and extra-curricular activities. It is not a thing apart from anything in the rest of the school excepting in organization. Functionally it dovetails with all other agencies and activities in the school. But it always brings its peculiar point of view—insistence upon considering the educative process as one concerned with the best development of individual boys and girls—to bear upon every situation to which it is a party.

Likewise, guidance is a coöperative venture between the community and the school, bringing together for the benefit of students under counsel all potentially helpful agents in the community. How can that integration of personality upon which each individual's highest development depends be accomplished without genuine coöperation among the major agents concerned with the student? The considerations habitual with a guidance service are not hedged in by the four walls of the school, because counselors see clearly the interrelatedness of boys' and girls' lives as lived inside and outside of school. Hence, guidance stands in the same coöperative relationship to the community beyond the school door as it does to the school community beyond the guidance office door.

Other basic assumptions are the clear recognition that guidance is concerned with the needs of individual boys and girls who differ in capacities, abilities, and interests; that these needs demand assured, not incidental, attention; that attention to these needs, to be effective, involves the systematic accumulation of information of the kind outlined above, a kind which the school of tomorrow must provide to keep pace with social and economic change; that the process of accumulating this information is closely allied to its functional use with individual students; and finally that guidance as a service is rapidly developing standards and procedures that require the undivided time, attention, skills, and energies of counselors.

With some such convictions and several well-chosen teachers as counselors a large high school is ready to begin guidance. The time to begin is today.

ELSA G. BECKER,
Chairman of Guidance Department,
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

RESEARCH IN BOOKKEEPING

THE American high school is a growing institution. Since the organization of the first public high school in Boston in 1821, this type of secondary school has grown in number until there are more than 20,000 today. In addition to these public high schools there are about 2,500 private high schools and academies and more than 300 preparatory departments of universities and colleges. New junior high schools are added continually.

The number of public high school students has increased from 202,963 in 1890 to 4,000,000 in 1930—a growth of almost twenty-fold in a generation. If to the latter number are added those enrolled in private high schools, those in preparatory departments of universities and colleges, and those taking secondary courses in normal schools and teachers colleges, the total secondary enrollment for 1933 is over 4,500,000. No figures are available for 1934, but a very conservative estimate would place the enrollment over 5,000,000!

To a large majority of secondary students, the modern high school is their final school; to others it is a their final school, an intermediate step between the elementary school and college. Of every 1,000 students enrolled in the first five grades of the elementary school, 324 enter high school, 139 graduate from high school, and 72 go to college. For these 72 the list of accredited high schools is a necessity. For the other 67 who complete the high school course and do not enter college, and the 203 who drop out before graduation from high school, a well selected high school becomes a matter of vital importance.

The tremendous strides taken in the field of secondary education apply not only to enrollment but also to costs, teachers, buildings, and the like. These latter points are treated admirably by Dr. H. Updegraff in bulletin No. 5, U. S. Bureau of Education, and by the Bureau of Reference and Research, New York City.*

In New York City alone, during the past five years (1927-1932) the per capita cost for high school instruction ranged from $140 to $160. Out of approximately 400,000 students in the combined junior and senior high schools (1933), approximately 160,000 are taking commercial subjects or have elected the commercial course!

The need for a scientific revision of our commercial curricula is apparent. We should know *definitely* that we are including the proper subject matter, that we are inculcating the proper skills, habits and attitudes, that the time allotment per topic is commensurate with its importance, that the best method of approach is

* Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 91, 1919, Vol. IV; No. 20, 1916.

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being used, that the school assumes its responsibility in the teaching of certain duties, while the job assumes its responsibility for the others. The sum total answer to all of the above is: We do not *know* just what should or should not be done to turn out better bookkeepers; a community that spends about $30,000,000 for Commercial education in our high schools alone, must *know* and not guess at future dividends.

The writer, having read Dr. W. W. Chambers' and Miss I. B. Whitley's admirable work "The Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits," published by Williams and Wilkins, 1924, as well as the study made by Dr. F. G. Nichols of Harvard, "A New Conception of Office Practice," felt somewhat encouraged in attempting the "job analysis" as applied to bookkeeping in New York City.

The purpose of the study was to find:

1. What bookkeepers do.
2. Given the activity analysis,

(a) What should be the procedure and method of teaching in order to modify the existing course of study?

(b) What immediate recommendations are justified? The main purpose for initiating the study was to substitute for opinion and tradition, facts obtained scientifically. The study was restricted to the study of bookkeeping duties and was not carried on to the study of bookkeeping traits as was originally planned.

The first step in this duty analysis was the preparation of three mimeographed forms for the use of interviewers in making a collection of bookkeeping duties.

1. A preliminary list of duties.
2. A time chart.
3. Questions for use in the interviews.

Preliminary List of Duties

A tentative list of 420 duties was collected by the writer from his own personal knowledge and experience, from other bookkeepers in his classes, from a number of certified public accountants, from teachers of accounting, and from bookkeepers actually on the job. This tentative list was classified under eleven headings:

1. Types of books used for original entries.
2. Duties connected with books of original entry.
3. Books of secondary entry.
4. Type of business organization now employed in.
5. System of bookkeeping you are now using.
6. Statements.
7. Business papers.
8. Financial duties.
9. Mailing duties.
10. Filing.
11. Other clerical duties.

This classification, although a tentative one at the beginning of the investigation, was made permanent, as it included all duties mentioned by bookkeepers and no new duty had been found that could not have been classified under one of the above headings.

After this preliminary list of 420 duties had been classified and mimeographed, it was made the basis of approach for the collection of additional duties. A mimeographed sheet, headed "Directions for Duty List," was given to each bookkeeper interviewed, in order to obtain the information required quickly and accurately.

A second method of collecting duties was the time chart, covering the bookkeeper's work for the week, Monday through Saturday and from 8:00 A.M. to 6:00 P.M.

The third method of collecting any duties "lost" in methods one and two above, was "Questions for use in the interview."

These three methods of collecting the required information were quite satisfactory, as only fifty-nine additional duties were collected to supplement the 420 tentative ones. The selection of bookkeepers interviewed was based upon the occupational distribution found in the United States Census Report for 1930. An analysis of the answers to the questions asked by the interviewer is too lengthy to be discussed in this outline. They are on the whole extremely interesting and indicative. However, the first page of the Questionnaire containing the tentative list of 420 duties follows.

A word of explanation concerning Table I is pertinent at this point. Under the heading "Job" or "School" are found five columns. In the column entitled "Job" is given the number of votes in favor of learning the respective duty on the job. In the column headed "School" are the votes for learning the duty in school. In the column headed "Both" is found a number of cases in which it was felt by the bookkeeper questioned that the duty should be learned both in school and on the job.

In the column headed $\frac{S}{J+S}$ is given the percentage, the number of school mention is of the total mention. In calculating cases, where a figure is found in the column headed "Both," it is added to each of the figures in the two other columns. For instance, in the item "Do you use a Cash Book for all entries?" the numbers O — 5 — 1 follow; the percentage is determined by adding O plus 1, and 5 plus 1, and then reducing the formula to percent. In this case it would be $\frac{5\ (6)}{J-S\ (7)}$ or 86%. In the column marked Q, these percentages are ranked and arranged in quartiles, with the understanding that where the percentage is zero, the figure zero is inserted in the quartile column.

A similar analysis is made of the four columns making up the "Hard" and "Easy" vote, and also of the four columns making up the "Often" and "Infrequent" vote.

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TABLE I (SAMPLE PAGE)

Bookkeeping Duties

Types of Books Used for Original Entries

Do you use:	Job	School	Both	S / J + S	Q	Easy	Hard	H / H + E	Q	Often	Infrequent	O / O + I	Q
1. The General Journal exclusively, i.e., for all entries?	1	4	1	83	1	1	6	14	3	4	1	80	2
Do you use it in conjunction with:													
2. The Sales Book?	—	1	—	100	1	1	12	7	4	7	1	87	1
3. The Purchase Book?	3	8	—	73	1	2	18	10	3	8	3	73	3
4. The Cash Book?	2	6	—	75	1	1	17	5	4	13	3	81	2
5. All of the above books?	2	4	—	67	1	1	12	7	4	11	1	92	1
6. The Cash Book for all entries?	—	5	1	86	1	2	13	15	3	12	2	86	1
7. A separate Cash Book for receipts?	1	3	—	75	1	1	13	7	4	2	2	60	3
8. A separate Cash Book for payments?	1	1	—	50	2	2	12	14	3	4	1	80	2
9. A Notes Receivable Journal?	—	2	—	100	1	1	8	11	3	4	1	80	2
10. A Notes Payable Journal?	—	1	—	100	1	1	8	11	3	2	1	67	3
11. A Sales Returns and Allowances Book?	1	1	—	50	2	2	8	20	3	1	1	50	3
12. Purchases Returns and Allowances Book?	2	1	—	33	3	1	8	11	3	2	—	100	1
13. A Petty Cash Book?	—	3	—	80	1	2	8	22	3	10	1	91	1
If so, do you use it:													
14. Under the Imprest Fund System?	—	1	1	67	1	1	6	14	3	—	1	0	0
15. Under the Revolving System?	1	—	—	0	0	2	—	100	1	4	—	100	1
Do you use:													
16. An Expense Book?	2	—	1	25	3	1	8	11	3	8	—	100	1
17. A Memorandum Book at all?	1	—	—	0	0	—	7	0	0	10	—	100	1
18. A Voucher Register?	—	—	1	50	2	4	2	67	1	2	1	67	3
19. A Minute Book?	1	—	—	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	—	100	1
20. A Stock Certificate Book?	1	—	—	0	0	4	—	100	1	1	—	100	1
21. A Stock Transfer Book?	1	—	—	0	0	6	—	100	1	1	—	100	1
22. A Subscribers' Book?	1	—	—	0	0	4	1	100	1	4	—	100	1
23. Special Columns at all?	1	3	1	67	1	1	11	8	3	2	1	67	3
24. Special Columns in the General Journal?	1	4	—	80	1	1	10	9	3				
25. Special Columns in the Sales Book?	1	4	—	80	1	1	12	7	4	2	2	50	3
26. Special Columns in the Purchase Book?	2	6	—	75	1	1	12	7	4	4	—	100	1

After collecting, compiling and analysing the information obtained from the interviews through methods 1, 2 and 3, mentioned on page 3, a final duty list was assembled containing 479 duties, and summarized under the eleven headings already referred to. This was put in the form of a questionnaire and in order to eliminate the drawbacks of questionnaires, the following procedure was used:

1. It was tried on a number of bookkeepers and teachers of bookkeeping (44 bookkeepers and 25 teachers). This showed:

(a) Whether questions were understood.

(b) Time it took to fill out.

(c) Whether their answers were understood.

(d) Elimination of superfluous material.

2. The questions were made answerable by a check (√).

3. A very reliable basis for the written questionnaire was obtained by practically using the same questions orally on 44 bookkeepers and 25 teachers and accountants. This preliminary interviewing helped to clear up any misconceptions in the mind of the interviewer or the interviewee, as well as helping to make questions definite.

4. The sampling was quite varied, going from the $12-a-week bookkeeper to the college man—in all, about 900 cases. This distribution was based on the U. S. reports of occupational activities, so that all results would be proportionally divided.

5. Attitude taken was courteous and diffident. Appeal was made to the bookkeeper's interest, with the result that 35% answered the questionnaire and about 40% of these latter asked that a copy of the results be sent them.

The questionnaire containing the 479 duties referred to was then sent out to approximately 1,000 bookkeepers. It was made up of, a letter of explanation, a direction sheet for the questionnaire, a sheet of directions, and the questionnaire itself, which is similar to Table I, except that the 59 additional duties obtained through the interviews were included under the proper captions.

Of the 300 returns, three major groups of data were secured, namely:

1. An educational classification.
2. An occupational classification.
3. A frequency of performance tabulation.

These major groups are reflected in Tables II, III and IV. In so far as Table IV contains 13 pages of data, it was thought advisable to include only the first page of the table here. Many of the other tables and exhibits are also omitted for similar reasons.

TABLE II

Educational Classification

1. Trained in a college leading to a degree	125
2. High school training or graduate	90
3. High school training plus business training or evening high school work	45
4. Grammar school training plus business training or evening high school work	35
	295

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TABLE III

Occupational Classification

Occupation	*Number*	*Percent*
Manufacturing	137	.46
Jobbing	21	.07
Accounting	21	.07
Importing	17	.057
Wholesaler	16	.053
Retailer	12	.04
Building contractor	12	.04
General Mercantile	12	.04
Insurance	9	.03
Printing	5	.016
Banking	5	.016

And so forth.

In Table IV is found the frequency ranking of 479 duties by 300 bookkeepers. This table is read as follows: "Do you total cash receipts" duty No. 53, Table I, was checked 265 times (88%) out of a possible 300 and is therefore entitled to first rank. The next duty, No. 67, "Do you make entries for Cash" was checked 255 times (85%) and is second in rank. Wherever the number of checks for certain duties were even, the ranking was divided. Thus duty No. 54 and duty No. 218 both were checked 249 times (83%) and are ranked fourth, while the next duty, No. 69, is ranked 6th.

TABLE IV (SAMPLE PAGE)

Frequency Ranking of 479 Duties, 300 Times

Rank	*Number*	*Duty No.*	*Duty*
1	265	53	Do you total cash receipt?
2	255	67	Do you make entries for cash?
3	251	409	Do you use the telephone?
4	249	218	Are you using the Double Entry System of Bookkeeping?
4	249	54	Do you total Cash Payments?
6	245	69	Do you make entries for customers' accounts?
7	238	48	Do you use the Ledger Folio Column?
8	232	221	Do you take the Trial Balance?
9	228	55	Do you total the Sales Book?
10	226	72	Do you make entries for Sales?
11	221	207	Do you balance accounts monthly?
12	219	70	Do you make entries for Merchandise Return?
13	218	4	Do you use the Cash Book in conjunction with General Ledger?
13	218	183	Do you post to the General Ledger?
15	216	56	Do you total the Purchase Book?
15	216	109	Do you make entries for General Expense?
15	216	268	Do you check invoices as to correctness, etc.?
18	215	111	Do you make entries for stationery?
19	214	195	Do you use a Control for Accounts Received?
20	213	110	Do you make entries for rent?
21	212	282	Do you make out checks?
21	212	223	Do you take a Trial Balance monthly?
23	209	125	Do you make entries for Salaries (Gen.)?
24	205	3	Do you use the Purchase Book in conjunction with the General Journal?
24	205	50	Do you use the date at the side?

From this activity analysis certain conclusions are drawn concerning the following:

1. Time spent on the teaching of the general journal as against the subsidiary journals.

2. Cash Book as a unit as against the Cash Receipts Journal, the Cash Payment Journal and the Petty Cash Book as separate books.

3. The consideration of the Notes Receivable Book, Notes Payable Book, Sales Returns and Allowances Book, Purchase Returns and Allowances Book, Voucher Register, Stock Certificate Book and Stock Transfer Book.

4. Consignment Sales.

5. Payroll Book.

6. Bound Books as against loose leaf.

7. Use of the Ledger Folio Columns.

8. Shall we spend some time in teaching simple arithmetic computations in the Bookkeeping class, or relegate it entirely to the Arithmetic room?

9. Interest and Discount account versus Interest Earned, Interest Cost, etc.

10. Who shall make adjusting entries, closing entries, Trial Balance, Profit and Loss Statements, Balance Sheets, etc.?

11. Shall controlling accounts be restricted to accounts receivable and accounts payable?

12. What type of business should be emphasized in our text books for classroom use?

13. What place does the "Machine" play in teaching?

14. Where and by whom shall business papers be bought?

15. Who shall teach financial duties?

The above points and many others are drawn from the statistical factors given in Table IV. Conclusions are drawn tentatively in the light of this one study. There is, of course, a splendid opportunity for segregating each point and verifying it by further study. I am glad to note that this is being done by several students of research (Preparatory Bulletin, Research in Commercial Education), New York University.

A thorough analysis of the 479 duties listed will show them divided into three groups:

(a) Those to be taught exclusively on the job.

(b) Those to be taught exclusively by the school.

(c) Those to be taught by the school but supplemented on the job.

1. If the frequency of the duty is high enough and it is too difficult to be gotten by oneself on the job, it should of necessity be taught in school. If it is easy and the frequency is high, some time should be given to it in the classroom, but not so much as to the former.

2. There are some specialized duties which are quite difficult, but which cannot be taught in school for lack of time, interest, etc. These may be learned on the job.

3. If a duty is quite simple, such as "Receiving Mail," no time should be given it at all.

4. In general, teach those duties which the student does not know and will never know, unless actually taught. Also familiarize the student with a general procedure so that any *new* duties may fit in.

A thorough investigation of several courses of study and text-books, in the

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light of the 479 duties used and their corresponding frequencies, shows the following:

(a) That very few manufacturing or corporation exercises are given.

(b) That time allowed for this type of work is proportionally very small.

(c) That business procedure is neglected entirely or very little emphasis given to it.

(d) That there is a tendency to argue as to *where* a specific point should be taught, i.e., as to the term in which it should be taught, and whether it belongs to the particular course.

(e) That there is an over-valuation of some duties and vice-versa. (Balancing of accounts weekly.)

(f) That some duties found to be important in our frequency check, are left out entirely. (Address of customers.)

(g) That business procedure is not kept in view but rather passing of examinations.

(h) That a lack of practical illustrations and exercise is evident.

(i) That the text-books used keep pace neither with the course of study, nor with actual business practice. (Exceptions noted.)

(j) That a general course of study cannot be applied in its entirety to an entire state but has to be flexible enough for adaptation to the individual community.

(k) That there are not enough business forms, nor is there any agreement in their nature.

(l) That there is no agreement in the order of topical arrangement—method of presentation.

(m) That there is no agreement in the form of statements.

(n) That not enough variety of transactions is given.

(o) That the arithmetic of bookkeeping is often overlooked entirely.

(p) That not only is there no agreement as to *aims*, but the ends do not harmonize with these aims.

(q) That the reasoning process is neglected.

(r) That too much time is spent on some topics, while too little on others.

(s) That too much emphasis is laid on knowledge to be taught and too little on skills, attitudes, ideals, and the like, to be inculcated.

(t) That there is no great correlation between Bookkeeping and other Commercial courses of study.

The following suggestions are made as to the practical application of the study:

1. Select the first 10% of the duties ranked on the basis of frequency of performance (Table IV). Use these 10% as a basis for finding

(a) Time necessary for teaching of duty.

(b) Technique of teaching.

(c) Number of duties that can be taught in time allowed.

(d) Grouping of similar duties.

2. Eliminate from these 10% the duties that could best be learned on the job. Just retain the *S* duties. Methods that might be used to get this elimination are

(a) Opinion of commercial teachers.

(b) Commercial graduates.

(c) Experimental, controlled conditions.

(d) Arguments for and against the duties.

Wherever possible use "a," "b," and "d," since "c" is practically impossible under normal conditions.

3. After selection of duties and J or S possibilities, we should then determine the degree of difficulty of the duty. This may be obtained from

(a) Teachers.

(b) Graduates (recent).

(c) Standard tests.

A standard test is, of course, ideal, but at present there are none worth the name. In general, this Ease and Difficulty Study should guide us in

(a) Time to be placed on the teaching of the duty.

(b) Elimination of easy duties from the course of study, in case of time limitations.

(c) Mental ability of the learner which should vary with age, i.e., what is easy to the 25-year-old bookkeeper may be quite difficult to the 16-year-old child.

4. Although we are selecting the first 10% of the so-called frequency duties, we must not overlook one very important fact, namely, not included in these first 10% are many duties just as important and perhaps more so, than the first 10%. It would, therefore, be necessary to scrutinize very carefully this entire list of duties to get these important ones so that they may be classed with the first 10% in spite of their infrequency.

5. Assembling all factors discussed, the 10% frequency duties, the job or school duties, the hard or easy duties and the important duties, we would not be in a position to list the duties to be included in the curriculum, subject, of course, to modification.

6. After knowing the duties to be taught we are now ready for the best methods of performing them obtained through:

(a) Text-books.

(b) Experienced bookkeepers.

(c) Commercial teachers.

(d) Employers.

7. It may be advisable at this point to make a study of the traits necessary for each duty, which unfortunately is a long detailed process.

8. Proceed likewise with the second 10% or 20%, etc., to the end.

9. Determine whether this material is to be used for a one-year, two-year, three-year, or four-year course in school or after school—for the 16-year-old, or for the college man.

10. We are then ready to break this material up into teaching units for experimentation in the classroom and its final general use, if found practicable. It may be advisable in getting these units ready for bookkeeping instruction to get a committee of three or more working on it, to pick out what duties and traits should be taught in the Commercial Arithmetic room, Business English, Typewriting, and other subjects. The intrinsic importance of any duty depends not only on *frequency*, but also upon

(a) Ease and difficulty opinion of bookkeeper.

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(b) Job or school opinion of bookkeeper.

(c) Opinion of teachers.

(d) Importance to pupils.

Let us not forget that a duty may be performed only *once* a year, but nevertheless be very important, such as income tax, fiscal report of a company, and so on.

Coupled with the problems suggested above may be enumerated *additional problems:*

1. A study of bookkeeping traits.
2. A study of bookkeeping duties applied to other cities of the U. S.
3. Best methods of approach in teaching Bookkeeping.
4. Standardization of terminology.
5. Is a college trained bookkeeper expected to perform duties other than the grammar school graduate?
6. The part time plan of study and work as bookkeepers as against purely the study plan.
7. Would opinion of teachers, bookkeepers, and others be just as good as scientifically obtained information in this study?
8. Would results vary if 150 bookkeepers were interviewed and 500 questionnaires received?
9. Do our text-books approximate in any way our State Course of Study?
10. Can similar studies be made in Typewriting, Stenography and other Commercial subjects?

The attempt is a pioneer one. I trust that none of our readers will consider this the last word. As a matter of fact, many of the above suggestions have been followed and some of the problems raised have vanished! Let us go onward. Commercial Education is beginning to take its place in the sun!

BENJAMIN E. STRUMPF.

James Monroe High School.

YOUTH IN PERSPECTIVE

AS soon as a child begins to talk and walk, he becomes an adult in miniature. He begins to observe, think, and imagine in a stumbling, halting, loose sort of way. His thinking is muddled. His imagination is free and uncontrolled. In his attempt, crude and undisciplined, to develop a little manual skill, he becomes just as destructive as constructive, or a trifle more so. Not because he wants to be bad, but because he has not learned any social values. He does not know, and has no means of knowing, what is useful to himself and those around him and what is worse than useless. And for the same reason his attempts at make-believe and story telling sometimes earn him the title of "little liar," especially if the people around him have no sympathy or tact. It is at this stage that he not only should have his own rights respected, but should also be made aware of the rights of others.

His only activity is what the grown-ups around him call "play" probably because from their point of view it leads nowhere. But to the child I suspect it is really work; for he pours a great deal of energy into what he does and gets very tired doing it. He also takes his games very seriously. Most of these games concern themselves with "little models of articles used by adults, such as tools, furniture, dishes; and we might include here dolls and toy animals." According to Professor Woodworth, "the child's response to this class of toys is imitative." I want to state here that imitation is to be condemned only when it is slavish and parrot-like or when its model is not worth-while. When its model *is* worth-while—especially when that model is a technique or a method—imitation should be encouraged, for it is one of the finest aids to learning. Imitation need not be mere aping or mimicry. We may learn how to become inventive by imitating intelligently the methods of an inventor—if we have enough innate ability.

In these games of childhood, a good many of which are derived from the child's observation of what adults do, competition, a form of emulation, is made use of tremendously. And this too is a good thing if the players compete as teams rather than as individuals and think more of covering the team with glory than themselves with medals. The main difference between competition and emulation is that the result of the first is usually tangible while the result of the second may be a feeling or attitude. Both are honorable and commendable, or may be so under certain conditions, at any rate.

His toys and playthings and games give a child some very elementary lessons in selection and rejection, in appraisal and appreciation, in criticism and cynicism, and even in prediction. Through "trial and error" experimentation he learns to verify his pet ideas. Gradually he finds out which he must discard and which he may keep. All these activities he carries on more in the concrete than in the abstract; that is, his raw, untutored attempts at thinking and imagining, at exploration, discovery and manipulation are motor rather than mental. For the younger the child, the less he realizes the uncanny magic of language. But carry on these activities somehow or other he must because only by so doing can he attune himself to his surroundings and prosper.

This is why we must accept Dr. Adler's theory that at the age of three or four an individual reveals his "fundamental behavior pattern." The adjustments an individual makes to his environment at the early age of three or four foreshadow pretty clearly the adjustments this same person will make at the much later age of thirty or forty. In so far as character and personality are strands of the pattern, they too are revealed at an early age; and to that extent they too are unalterable. Character and personality, however, are also in part at least by-products of the attempt of a person to bring himself in tune with his surroundings; and to the extent that his surroundings are subject to modification, his character and personality are subject to modification also. In other words, "the behavior pattern" deter-

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mines the kind and quality of a person's actions, whereas character and personality are in part at least results of those actions.

Because the social sciences are in their infancy at present, we are unable to discover "the fundamental behavior pattern" of every child early enough and accurately enough to guide him to the goal toward which he is secretly striving. Nor can we so modify his environment that his character and personality will develop in harmony with that pattern and so insure ultimate success and happiness. As often as not, because we are mistaken about his inner nature and his ultimate goal in life, we expose him to an environment that fits him but poorly, watch him develop a warped personality, and throw up our hands in horror at the heart-breaking tragedy of a life that is wrecked even before it has begun.

We can, however, group individuals into classes. In the course of a review of "Heredity and Environment" by Gladys C. Schwesinger, which appeared in the *New York Times Book Review* in December, 1933, Professor Edward L. Thorndike described one of these groups. "If . . . the children born during the next seventy-five years all had intelligence as low as 10% of them will, most of civilization would vanish. Books on mathematics and science would be worshipped as fetishes or burnt as trash. Railroad trains, if run at all, would be run haphazard, like children's toys. Power plants and electrical instruments would have been destroyed by those who had not been destroyed by them, or left as curiosities at which the diggers of roots would stare. The island of Manhattan would be inhabited by a few score families whose flocks were kept alive in Central Park or who fished off the remnants of the docks. In vain would the present generation try to guard its witless offspring from degradation or disaster. What the latter were taught to do by rule of thumb would not enable them to make steel or gasoline, operate factories or shops, use schools, hospitals, churches and museums, or understand law, religion, are or music."

Fortunately, about 80% of the children born in the next seventy-five years will be average, or slightly above or below average. They grow up to do the work of the world. They are, therefore, of tremendous importance. They are essentially followers, not leaders. But without followers leaders are impossible. What they lack in intelligence they make up for in sheer weight of numbers. It is their applause and approval that encourage the 10% who are really superior in intelligence, character, and temperament. Without them leaders can do nothing; and without leaders they can do nothing. Other things being equal, the more educated and refined the average man, woman, and child is, the more progressive is the community and nation and the finer is the leadership. "The keener, the more penetrating, the more persistent, the more inclusive the operation of this mind is, the greater is the likelihood of the moulding of the world in which we live into an environment satisfying our needs."

The bulk of mankind is not creative, be they young or old; but they can share in the creative process vicariously. And even that they would not do if education as an organized institution were destroyed. Education so moulds average minds that they become capable "of taking and using the best that the world has given. Such minds must be well stored with information, free from prejudice, critical of new ideas presented, and fitted to understand the kind and quantity of proof required before they may adopt the pronouncements of the generals of the society of minds. To be sure a formal education is probably the first step in the career of these generals, but nature has already given them an endowment far surpassing that of the average man."

It is important to realize that within each group people differ from each other greatly. Yet our tests of intelligence, character, temperament, and physique, though they enable us to place children in groups with a fair degree of accuracy, are not delicate enough to enable us to catch the differences that exist between individual children within each group. Nor will we meet with much success here until we learn much more about the special aptitudes, the part such senses as hearing and sight play in their development, and devise tests which will discover their presence to us before they become actual and will indicate their degree of excellence. It will then be possible to predict the life course of a child at the tender age of three, four, or five and guide it along that course unerringly. At present all we know is that had the I.Q.'s of the world's great statesmen, authors, scientists, and artists "been determined when they were children, probably all would have measured over 130 and some as high as 200, but the tests would not have distinguished these great geniuses from the gifted child who is simply one of a hundred or one of a thousand." And it is only these great geniuses of the world who can properly be called creative.

Even if we had the skill to discover them at an early age, they would then be creative only potentially, not actually. For if they were creative actually, we would not need delicate and subtle instruments for finding them out. A genius is not a genius in kindergarten, elementary or high school, or college. At these stages he only gives promise of becoming a genius. According to Professor Woodworth, "boys and girls under eighteen seldom produce anything of great value, not having as yet acquired the necessary mastery of the materials with which they have to deal. The period from twenty years up to forty seems to be the most favorable for inventiveness."

Therefore the title of Hughes Mearns' book, "Creative Youth," applying as it does to students of high school age, is more a journalistic catchphrase than an actual description of fact. Yet Mr. Mearns himself does not go as far as some of his disciples. I think he realized that he was working with boys and girls who were superior in intelligence, character, and experience. Yet even they could not

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all write poetry and prose that he could publish. And of the poetry and prose he did publish, little will bear re-reading; that is, most of it is average or only a little above the average. They celebrate the dawn, the rising and setting of the sun, blossoms, princesses, city nights, the wind in April, red magnolias, and city trees after snow. Nor is their style or point of view startlingly new. Of Ruskin's "harmony of Apollo and the Muses" there is only one faint echo: Tom Prideaux's "Acrobats." Especially the lines:

"I wonder if they really comprehended
They've tickled Death along his bony rib?"

Mr. Mearns himself must have thought of this; for in outlining his purposes he places himself on safe ground. His object, he says, has never been to "produce the exceptional." He was not interested in making poets or writers. And he did not! His former Lincoln School pupils are now well out of their 'teens, and not even Tom Prideaux has turned out a poet. In fact he is interested more in art, music, and the theatre than in poetry. Professor Cizek also reports that his students go in for trade and the professions rather than art. This is only natural. In a school, a Hughes Mearns or a Professor Cizek can develop a hot-house atmosphere through artificial stimulation and motivation by means of magazines and approval or disapproval of the teacher and the group. In such an environment better than average pupils can produce better than average poetry or art. When they grow older these people find out that in the outside world better than average is not good enough to attract attention and stop writing, painting, or modelling.

When we turn to such a book as "Younger Poets," an anthology of American secondary school verse, edited by Nellie B. Sergent, we find a similar state of affairs. Every state in the Union, Alaska, and Hawaii are represented here. A wide enough field, to be sure, in which there are several million boys and girls attending high school. Yet the poetic efforts of only a handful, 270 odd boys and girls, were judged good enough to be reprinted here. Of the 375 poems in the collection about 35 are above the average, in my opinion, and of these 35, less than five can be called creative. The great bulk of the work is, as it should be, imitative, emulative, derivative, critical, and in a few rare instances, slightly cynical. Like the young Keats, these youngsters dash on daring colors so feverishly that the result is a blur; their rhymes are heavy and call too much attention to themselves; the rhythms are cumbersome and crude; there is too much obvious straining for the high notes. Character delineation and narrative skill are conspicuous by their almost complete absence. Throughout there are echoes of Coleridge, Sandburg, Cummings, Browning, Guiterman, and others. Because the writers are inexperienced, immature, and therefore in the apprenticeship stage, either the poetic idea does not fit the structure in which it is set forth or the other way about. This is enough to jar the harmony of Apollo and the Muses; enough to extinguish the life-giving fire which every poet tries so hard to strike up in his poems.

But in a few delightful poems the writers succeeded in kindling the fires of life and fanning them into vigorous flames. I shall quote a few stanzas from "Spartan Parents" by Mary Lindsley, a dramatic monologue in which the characters, background, theme, and language are all fully alive. Here "truth" in the form of the poetic idea and "beauty" in the form of poetic structure meet and become one. Again it becomes plain that a poet must not only be able to say something, but must have something vital to say. That art does not exist in a vacuum for its own sake alone. That vision is indispensable. That a poem is really a synthesis based upon an analysis, art issuing from science, creation proceding from thought. The mother is talking to the father on the night before their child is to be taken from them, to be brought up as a soldier of Sparta.

Softly, my lord, he's sleeping. Do not wake him.
What care I if his baby grasp be tight!
Let him stay thus. Tomorrow they will take him.
He will be Sparta's. He is mine tonight.
I held him close and sang him into slumber.
Laugh if you like. 'Twas womanish, I know;
But empty nights will follow without number,
In which I shall be glad that it was so.
And, you, my lord, no word of pain you've spoken,
Or vain regret. The feeble morning light
Shows me that your composure is unbroken—
And that your hair whitened in the night.

The whole poem must be read to be fully appreciated. In it there is the essence of motherhood, fatherhood, and childhood. It is not mere accident that a girl, not a boy, wrote it; for girls of high school age are more mature than boys.

Miss Sergent is two wise to allow herself the luxury of indulging in journalistic catchwords or in making claims that are sensational, spectacular, and flattering, but not quite true to the facts. She dedicates her book

To
THE YOUTH OF TODAY
THE CREATORS OF THE FUTURE

This of course is true if we remember that only a tiny fraction of the youth of today will become the creators of tomorrow and that we have no means of finding them out ahead of time. Of the 270 youngsters represented in the anthology, only one, Countee Cullen, is today a poet of some repute; yet the poems he wrote as a high school student do not reveal much originality.

Of the others, according to Miss Sergent's biographical notes, several still write poems occasionally and publish them in private collections or in magazines. But the vast majority of

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these young men and women have become more interested in other pursuits than in poetry. They have not lost, however, the alertness, awareness, curiosity, energy, and high grade of intelligence that was theirs when they were "A" students in high school. They pursue, with no more distinction than thousands of others, such vocations and avocations as medicine, music, art, business, teaching, nursing, journalism, law, linguistics, out-door sports, dancing, marriage, and engineering. In other words, they are fairly successful and happy people with wide intellectual interests. Some dabble in sociology, mythology, and archaeology; others go hiking, sailing, climb hills, and play the violin, piano, or clarinet.

It is not surprising that high school students who learn how to write poetry fairly well are also interested in art, science, music, or the theatre. And if the theories here expounded are true, what we have found to be true of high school students would apply to elementary school pupils and scholars in colleges and universities in slightly varying degres if we had the poetic output of those people in anthologies as honestly compiled as Miss Sergent's. We have whole libraries of facts which prove it true of fully mature men and women. Only, on the whole, the verse written by elementary school pupils would be of a slightly lower quality and that written by college students of a slightly higher quality. Just as the poetry written by people in the full maturity of their powers is of a vastly superior quality. And we would find this just as true of the individual as of the group.

For just as the general factors of intelligence are inherited, so are the special aptitudes also. I don't mean that the genes in the sperm and ovum, which Professor Thorndike claims "are the unborn components of intellect, character, and skill," determine the exact line of activity a man, woman, or child will pursue. They don't. That depends upon opportunity, inclination, and interest; that is, the environment. But they *do* determine an individual's sense of color, design, and imagery; they *do* determine his ability to handle numbers and abstract ideas and language; also his sense of rhythm, cadence, harmony, and melody; and even his skill in handling tools and mechanical contraptions. What the genes fail to give in these respects no environment can supply. All any environment can do is to make actual what was potential at birth. And at birth people differ not only in the general factors of intelligence, but also in the special aptitudes. Moreover, there is quite a positive correlation between them.

The genes therefore *do* determine, not the exact line of activity, but the kind of activity a person is capable of pursuing—whether he is fit to be a laborer, a worker, a craftsman, a mechanic, an artisan, a professional, an artist, scientist, or philosopher. Whether he actually does that which he is fit to do depends upon his environment to a large extent and also upon his character, temperament, and moral make-up. And are morals also inherited like intelligence and special talents? The fashionable doctrine is to believe that "differences in personality—in emotional, volitional, affective and attitudinal traits—are enormously influenced in their expression by environment." But Professor Thorndike "ventures to note that the results of scientific observations and experiments would fit the statement as well or better if it read 'are enormously influenced by the genes.'"

Perhaps some remarks Westbrook Pegler made on this all important subject in the *World-Telegram* of January 29 will be pertinent here! "I think I will haul off and sass myself back in regard to some recent remarks of mine as to the sincerity and general nobility of young people and say that you will find among the youth of any country as many evil-minded, lazy, cruel, and generally no-good characters as might be disclosed by an accurate census among an equal portion of citizens who have managed to defy disease, war and the accidents of industry unto the age of, just for a figure, fifty." After describing his own youth and those of his friends, he goes on: "Nor do I believe that if you were to turn the entire lot of them upside down and shake them you could pick up many gems. Those of us who matured seem to have had nothing very startling to offer in the way of political or social innovations. We follow type and trend and here we are now, those who are left of us, close onto middle age with our world in a hell of a fix. Our class of Youth was neither hot nor cold as a class, but line-of-least-resistance, and I wish I could agree with myself as of recent date that Youth is clear-eyed and original and crowded to the pores with principle. But I am afraid Youth is just father to middle age and old age and only average, after all."

Unlike Mr. Pegler, I think that I can agree with myself as of not-so-recent a date that young people are not even as creative as their elders, that genius never represents more than a tiny fraction of the population, and that given time and opportunity a similar fraction of our clever youngsters may find themselves within the ranks—rather thin ranks to be sure—of these chosen few. Any other view, in my opinion, must be the result of wishful thinking.

It is not youth which is creative, but *thought*. In thought all the arts and sciences resolve themselves and meet. What we are pleased to call intuition or inspiration is really the brilliant and swift working of a well disciplined mind thoroughly familiar with and habituated to the subject in which it works. There is nothing mysterious in this. Nor does thought rule out emotion; in fact, the two are interdependent. From the cradle to the grave we continue to think, feel, and imagine according to our innate ability. In the spiritual life of man thought, feeling, and emotion form a holy trinity. The scientist without imagination and enthusiasm can accomplish as little as the artist without thought and facts. The speculations of the scientist are just as visionary as those of the artist.

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Both are forever searching for a formula which will make the facts of existence intelligible and meaningful. In art there are objective elements; in science there are subjective elements. Different as they appear to be to the external eye, they are similar to the internal eye in that they both seek to discover facts in order to recombine them into patterns which will enable man to control his environment more expertly and live more happily. The same individual may be a scientist at one moment and an artist the next, whether he is a physicist or a poet. When he seeks to *know* the facts, he is a scientist; when he seeks to interpret the facts, he is an artist. And when he weaves the facts into a living design, he is a creative genius.

In a word, analysis is science; synthesis is art. Both must be useful to man or they perish. Science is as much a dream as art, both fervently and passionately clung to as long as they can help us grope our way to safety in an unsafe world. The genius creates the dream and describes it to us; we must accept it or reject it according to our understanding. This selection or rejection goes by the name of criticism, appraisal, or appreciation. By whatever name we call it, we know it as the emotional fringe of an intellectual experience.

We are prone to associate experimentation with science; it is present in art also. Only in art it is known as revision. It is here that youth meets its Waterloo. It hates to revise; it hates to be self-critical. Or it has not learned how! If so, experience will teach it how.

A careful reading of Oswald Spengler's "Decline of the West" will convince the most sceptical that the art and science of any culture, though different superficially, are at bottom similar, two symbols in one formula. Similarly, a careful reading of Hervey Allen's "The Sources of Anthony Adverse," in the *Saturday Review of Literature* of January 13 will convince the most sceptical that the methods of the novelist are not very different from the methods of the physicist, different as the products may be.

Why, then, has no teacher of science followed the lead of Hughes Mearns and written a book to show that young people are as creative in science as they are supposed to be in literature? Because Mr. Mearns' book proves that they are not even creative in literature. He says so himself: "Our object has never been to produce the exceptional." Well, if youth is not exceptional, then it is not creative either; for if creative does not mean exceptional, it means nothing. Elsewhere he voices his "faith that the productive range is more extensive than commonly supposed," that self-realization of an individual is possible at any age, and that he has encouraged "genuine self-expression." With all this I agree whole-heartedly. But productive does not mean the same as creative. I am surprised that Mr. Mearns did not see that the contents of his book contradicted his title. As do also these words of John Dewey which he

quotes: "Among the native activities of the young are some that work toward accommodation, assimilation, reproduction, and other that work toward exploration, discovery, and creation." Perhaps Mr. Mearns was taken in by the words "exploration, discovery, and creation." Perhaps he did not realize that by exploration and discovery John Dewey may have meant thinking, and that by creation he may have meant manipulation or production. Every human being, however young or old, however intelligent or stupid, must be able to think and produce after a fashion or cease to exist.

Mr. Mearns is guilty of yet another contradiction. He explains how his students used to compete with each other to get their poems into the school magazine, *Lincoln Lore*, and how poems were writen at the zero hour; yet at the same time he says: "Our pupils, however, are not primarily interested in fame. Poetry is written for its own sake because it must be written." Even with many grains of the proverbial salt I for one cannot swallow this statement.

He also says: "If we can write a pictured bit of moving English ourselves, we can fix them rigid with desire, especially if we can do it right before them on the blackboard; but if we have luckily published anything, outside of pedagogical treaties, we can have them dancing after us like a pageant of charmed vipers." What is it Hughes Mearns is preaching here if it is not imitation or emulation?

Of what use to education, all this that we have discussed here? That's a vital question and in answering it I shall come to my conclusion. As teachers we ought never to forget that:

1. We must develop techniques for discovering, as early as possible, those who are below normal and must develop methods for training them for useful citizenship and happy living.

2. We must develop techniques for discovering, also as early as possible, those who have special talents and must develop methods for bringing those talents into full bloom.

3. Most of our students are quite normal and we must make them as productive as possible, that is, we must teach them how to think— to be courageous, social-minded, critical-minded, intellectually curious, and adaptable.

4. What we teach our students in school will not carry over into life unless we approximate, as nearly as possible, the conditions of life in our schools.

5. We must teach our students perspective, perspective in all things. Only thus will they learn to perceive the fundamental unity in superficial multiplicity and develop rich personalities. In this connection there must be the closest coöperation between departments; also every teacher within each department must take the widest possible view of his specialty and must understand the relationship between it and culture in general. This relationship he must endeavor to make a living reality to his students.

6. Imitation is not mimicry and emulation is not competition and both

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are excellent tools for developing to the fullest the potentialities of our students.

7. Learning continues from the cradle to the grave—or *can* continue—and we as teachers should see that it *does* continue.

8. Most of our students can share in the creative process vicariously and can even direct it somewhat in the genius through criticism and we, as teachers, must teach them how to do both properly; also, how to use properly that which genius gives us.

CHARLES AUSLANDER.
Thomas Jefferson High School.

FIRST STEPS IN TEACHING MODERN AMERICAN POETRY

THE IDEAL

THERE was a time, perhaps, when teachers of poetry had to be cautioned against certain excesses of zeal. Too often they employed methods that better suited the teacher of grammar; rule of thumb prevailed; lines were rigorously scanned; a score of figures of speech in all their melancholy Greek terminology must perforce be memorized. No wonder Poetry fled to other dwelling-places where, wooed and not bludgeoned, she gave her secrets without reserve.

That time, happily, is well nigh over. Forswearing the formal abracadabra of the rhetorician, the teacher of poetry now recognizes his true goal —to relate poetry to life, to interpret life and enrich it. If such is his purpose, there can be no gainsaying the fact that the teaching of poetry in recent years has made a significant advance.

Nor is it less noteworthy that teachers now possess a rationale which hitherto they have sorely lacked. Poetry being now taught for an inner validity, the teacher's idealism is far less nebulous than formerly. Since he may now, as a matter of simple common sense, minimize mere scholarship and exalt the spirit, he is free to apply to his teaching his own poetic standards, both as a lover and expounder of the art. What shall such standards be? Surely the answer is, such as are derived from the greatest poets themselves? Surely such as Keats implied in coupling Beauty and Truth! We cannot doubt that the teacher, identifying himself with the singers of all time, will project this identity into his teaching.

Such an obligation poetry would seem to impose upon the reader, and especially on the teacher, of poetry. It is one that he may not evade. If he protest that this is giving poetry a too didactic narrowness, let him remember that we are advocating here no narrow-gauged evangelism. We are thinking merely of the fact that poetry, properly envisioned and deeply felt, is broadening; that it educates in the only way in which education

counts. Certainly the teacher of poetry, with so much good in his grasp, will agree. Intuitively, he will understand; and, understanding, there will be more than lip homage to his subject when he comes to lines like these:

> "The world stands out on either side,
> No wider than the heart is wide;
> Above the world is stretched the sky,
> No higher than the soul is high."

He will lift the sky and widen the sides of the student's world because for him the light of the sun is of the essence, if poetry is to live at all. "More light!" he will say with Goethe, and with Frost:

> "Something there is that doesn't love
> a wall,
> That wants it down."

And it will be a dull day if the walls of the classroom will not open up and reveal still other walls reaching out and out endlessly for youth some day, perhaps, to batter down. Meanwhile, sufficient that they see; that their eyes, tipped with fire, have caught a glimpse of man's ennobling and terrible climb to the sky!

No mere aesthetics here for the student, it will be noted; but, rightly considered, the beginnings of a social philosophy, the more powerful because unformulated, the more beautiful because a thousand poets have woven it in electric moments of insight. Only from youth so trained can tolerance as well as beauty come; only such a youth can stir to man's upward striving:

> "He drew a circle that shut me out;
> Heretic, rebel, a thing to flout.
> But Love and I had the wit to win,
> We drew a circle that took him in."

Our poetry is full to the brim of such exhortations to the "good," the more "abundant" life. They need not be taught solemnly; assuredly not with the firm accents of the morally righteous. Let youth face the eternal facts, the deep hungers, with joy in their hearts.

It is clear, however, that such a program is not achieved haphazardly or overnight. It is achieved, when at all, because the teacher has looked closely into this function of poetry teaching and has agreed on its importance. Such a teacher understands clearly how well poetry may play its part in our corporate life; how the very breath and body of poetry, the perfection of its form, the reason for its being, may minister to the humaneness of our ideals. What a superb servitor poetry is to all who will have her, with the stars of her eyes to lift our vision while her hand guides our feet in the lowly road! Who does not wish her so? Who does not rejoice in her power and scope, in the finality of her utterance, her grace and light and sanity? For surely she is the closest to us of all the arts, ever intent as she is on the meaning and salvation of life and of the mysteries beyond the sight and touch.

THE REALITY

Put such a program to the test: what are its chances of success in the normal classroom?

In the teacher himself, as he faces an average group of pupils, there may well rise the thought that the hurly-burly of school routine does not permit of the effects which he is seeking

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to achieve. For him poetry, let us say, is beauty and truth; for his charges, too often, it means a mark. Fortunate the teacher who knows how to banish the red pencil; he will create a *rapport* between himself and his students that will stand him in good stead. Yet, this being done, there is still the feeling that the very form of poetry opposes all the teacher's counning; that its texture is often dense, its technique precious, its meaning elsive or totally withdrawn from view. And this is not all. Our pupils possess a very unequal and nearly always inadequate power of interpretation—even with prose. They have little general familiarity with the raw stuff of poetry's concern; their experiences, in city or country, are confined to the steadily diminishing segment of apartment and street, or of house and field, which bounds their lives. This restricts the depth and range of their understanding; all too frequently the poet sings to ears that have been stopped. The day has long passed, if it ever existed in this country at all, when teachers could count upon students with a rich and homogeneous culture that would respond readily to the voice of the poet.

We are not surprised, therefore, when we find among some of our students a lack of interest in the very name and nature of poetry, sometimes, indeed, amounting to downright hostility. The youth fed on the sporting pages of the metropolitan newspapers (for the enemy is nearly always of the species male) or on the spicy scandal of the tabloids has developed a liking for crude sophistication against which Frost and Millay will sing their siren-songs in vain. As teachers, however, we have learned the futility of condemning his reading habits; we shall conquer sooner if we meet him on his own ground. If he has an appetite for the broad stereotypes of sensationalism, he is not yet damned in the furthermost pedagogical hell. For in such a soul, however primitive the taste, there is at least a hunger for the stir and mood of the printed fable: there is, in fine, an interest in life; and this interest in life is all that is necessary at the start, is indeed paramount; for it may yet with tending come to seed and flower.

The Approach

The teacher, uncertain of the poetic sensitiveness of his class, will probably be gin his work by selecting poems which will receive a swift and spontaneous welcome. Such poems will capitalize the familiar sentiments, the normal preference for strong feeling and direct action; and thus, by seizing and holding the interest, will arouse a clear respect for the poetic art. At the same time how much else there is which, all unknown to the pupil, finds lodgment somehow! If this is only for a moment, let us not despair. The important thing is that on his own level the reader has been touched with subtle fire.

Here is such a group:

"Tame Duck" by Kenneth Kaufman, "The Vizier's Apology" by Arthur Guiterman, "Mia Carlotta" by Thom. Augustin Daly, "The Drug-store" by John V. A. Weaver, "Saddle Song" by Stanley Vestel, "Jazz Fantasia" by Carl Sandburg, "I Have A Rendezvous With Death" by Alan Seeger, "The Dog" by Don Marquis, "A Stein Song" by Richard Hovey, "The Truce of the Mohawks" by Robert P. Tristram Coffin.

The Next Step

While it is true that students, under the proper guidance, will enjoy the poems in this volume in whatever order they are presented, it is perhaps more in keeping with modern practice to study poems in cycles or groups which contain a common element of thought or feeling.

Let us assume that the teacher wishes to employ this latter method. Having succeeded in arousing the sympathetic interest of his class, he now considers it desirable to show that modern American poetry, relatively to the older American poetry, is not only more recent in time, but different in spirit. From the elementary schools the pupil has brought some little knowledge of the works of Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Emerson, Bryant and others, and this can readily be drawn upon in order to lead the class to discover the leading traits of the creative poetry written, let us say, before the death of Whitman.

The teacher may then decide to spend a period or two in reading part or all of some such group of poems as this:

Sonnets on the "Divina Comedia" by Longfellow, "Thanatopsis," "To a Waterfall" by Bryant, "Ichabod" by Whittier, "The Rhodora" by Emerson, "The Chambered Nautilus" by Holmes, "The Commemoration Ode" by Lowell.

Such a list will suggest that there were heights as well as fallows in the older American poetry; and this is precisely what it is intended that our pupils shall understand.

Now let the teacher select several poems which were highly popular during this period; poems which by a curious coincidence will nearly always fall into a lower category of excellence —a coincidence which will trouble the student, at first, until the reason therefor bursts upon him on a bright day of revelation. The class itself may volunteer the titles. The question may then be asked: Are these great poems? And much of American poetry of the period having been dismissed as purely literary, it will be high time to clinch some first principles, not merely in poetry but in the values of life for which alone poetry exists. As this is a field where "ignorant armies" still "clash by night," the teacher will not obtrude his own definitions. No credo, no aesthetic of poetry, need be imposed on the pupil; the time for that, indeed, is not yet. The important thing is that the student be encouraged to derive his own from the depths of his own experience and in response to his own needs.

But let us not lose sight of our goal. We have been able to conclude, from these brief readings, that the older American poetry, for all its grandeur and glory, was flawed by certain weaknesses: it was derivative, bookish,

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static in theme and form. It was, except in the case of its chief practitioners, and then only at certain extraordinary moments, somewhat divorced from American life.

We are now ready, with the help of these older poets whose works we have studied, to show why a Walt Whitman and an Edgar Allan Poe came upon the scene; and, furthermore, why the study of modern American poetry must be introduced with some emphasis upon their achievements. In short, we are ready to see how Poe ushered in that feverish zeal for experimentation in form, so characteristic of our latter-day poets; and how Whitman, making a beginning at a folk-idiom, led the van of those who, in the voice of this our day, preoccupy themselves with the virtues and vices of the most dynamic and agitated civilization the world has yet produced.

The teacher has thus made it clear that the modern American poet has the blood of the innovator in him; that he is not aloof from life, but, rather, deeply immersed therein; that he knows no restrictions of subject-matter or technique except those which are self-ordained; that he considers himself free to explore every mood of the American soul, every corner of the American scene, and to speak his mind concerning them. This wide-ranging nature of the modern American poet's art can perhaps be presented to the student by assigning for class reading and discussion a series of poems calculated to give a graphic idea of the tides of thought and feeling which surge about us:

REPRESENTATIVE POETS OF OUR DAY

Edwin Markham, The Man With the Hoe
Edwin Arlington Robinson, Miniver Cheevy
Robert Frost.....Mending Wall
Carl Sandburg.....Grass
Vachel Lindsay.....The Congo
John Gould Fletcher.....Irradiations
Edna St. Vincent Millay.....Lament
John V. A. Weaver.....The Drug Store
E. E. Cummings.....Sonnet
Joseph Auslander.....The Riveter
Langston Hughes, The Negro Speaks of Rivers

With such a list (which, incidentally, is arranged chronologically, according to the birth-dates of the poets) it will be not unedifying to evolve a phrase or two, characterizing the work of the poet. The result may be, approximately, as follows:

Markham.....Poet of Social Protest
Robinson.....Ironically Tender Portraitist of Human Nature
Frost.....Philosopher of Nature
Sandburg.....Propagandist of Noble Causes in the Language of the Common Man
Lindsay.....A Troubadour in the Industrial Age
Fletcher.....A Painter of New Moods and Sensations
Weaver.....Seeker in the Lower Depths for Poetic Inspiration
Cummings.....A Magician, Playing Tricks With The Older Form
Hughes.....Pleader for Racial Justice

Such an exercise as this, rough and tentative as it is bound to be, is nevertheless likely to yield the results of which the teacher is in search. It little matters whether the student's chronology of the poets is sure or faulty; what is important is that he understand the conditions in American life which led to the rise and development of the traits he has just discovered so saliently illustrated in American poetry. This understanding will make him see the true place of modern poetry in his education. Why, he may ask himself, is "The Man With the Hoe" so popular? Clearly because it registers, as perhaps no other American poem does, a widespread and deeply-felt attitude towards a grave social evil. And this is only one of many similar poems that may be cited. The inference is plain: such poems help to give us the picture not only of modern poetry, but of modern times. Incidentally, the student has learned for himself—it were best he learned this himself—that modern American poetry, so candid, and vital and articulate on all the forces that make our life, is deserving of his profound admiration.

ADOLPH GILLIS.
Eastern District High School.

HIGH POINTS

Why Art Weaving?

At Haaren High School, Art Weaving is an elective, unprepared subject open to all students having at least three free periods per week. The usual course is five periods per week for four terms. These may be taken in four successive terms, or students may take one term now and two or three terms later, going on from where they left off.

Since it is an elective, most students take Art Weaving because they like the work. Failures, therefore, are very few, and the successful completion of a piece of work created by the student's own hands is usually very pleasurable. As a proof that the work is enjoyed, many students continue to take a fifth and sixth term of Art Weaving without receiving credit for it at all.

To arouse interest in the work it is necessary only to show the children pieces of finished work of former students. Another thing that always seems to arouse special interest is to tell them that when or if they get that famous million dollars and can buy any of these decorative accessories instead of making them, they will have acquired ability to choose and judgment along these lines far superior to that of the ordinary layman in the buying of rugs, tapestries, and other forms of handwork.

Our students make all manner of scarfs, pillow tops, pictures (woven and embroidered), bench covers, footstools, handbags, curtains, bed spreads,

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hooked rugs, needlepoint, and petit point tapestry as well as Oriental flat weaves and pile rugs. On the foot looms, they make chenille bathmats, old-fashioned woven scarfs, and table covers and handbags of an entirely different type, employing a different technique. They also make any number of hand-knitted and crocheted scarfs, hats, and sweaters.

Besides the creation of actual usable things, one period per week in each class is devoted to a lesson on the historic and cultural background connected with this work. They study first the materials used—their origin and the processes of their manufacture. For example, the story of wool from the sheep's back to the beautiful bit of ornament on an Oriental rug is no secret to the student of Art Weaving. The silk used in the high lights of a tapestry bench cover is a series of pictures and stories from the caterpillar on the mulberry leaf in Japan or Italy to a skein of brilliant hued thread. The history of Oriental rugs and tapestries, from the Copts of Egypt with their flying shuttles, and the royal weavers of Persia under the famous Shah Abbas, through the Gothic and Renaissance periods, correlates with the history of Europe and Asia. The types of work identified with certain countries, such as Hardanger work with Norway, are taught in both junior and senior high schools.

Not only does Art Weaving, in a wonderfully effective and pleasant way, fill our ever increasing leisure time, but it gives a cultural background hardly possible with any other one subject. It helps not only the student specializing in interior decoration or industrial art, but the girl who wishes to add to the furnishings of her present or future home, to acquire numerous things which she would never have otherwise. And it teaches those who can pay for the handwork they want, how, where, and what to buy. They are taught, for example, how to buy Oriental and domestic wool rugs, what to look for in each, and how to tell the difference between doctored moderns and real antique rugs. They are taught why the colors in antique rugs have merely mellowed in shade, while some of those made in more recent times have faded or turned to dirty browns.

It is obvious, therefore, that Art Weaving may well become a part of any high school curriculum, whether it be a school devoted entirely to the so-called "general course"—the course of unimpeachable orthodoxy — or the school where the emphasis is on the side of technical skill.

Those who believe one of the goals of education to be an "induction into and a progress in a satisfying occupation" should look into this Art Weaving course. It will be found to be a great help toward just such a goal. It is undoubtedly a great step forward for those looking for effective participation in an evolving culture—skills, techniques, knowledge, values, standards, and outlooks. Therefore, Art Weaving!

HELEN HAYES.

Haaren High School.

The Habit of Critical-Mindedness

At the James Monroe High School this past fall term the department meetings were made interesting and vital by discussions of various phases of the problem of developing correct habits of thought and appreciation of thought. The problem for discussion was suggested by Dr. Henry E. Hein, principal of the school, who is keenly interested in developing in our boys and girls a consciousness of their mental powers and of the value and effectiveness of rational consideration of problems which they are now meeting in connection with their school work and which they will be called upon to meet as active citizens of the republic.

The discussions at the meetings of the Department of Secretarial Studies, of which Mr. Benjamin Fromberg is the chairman, grouped themselves around the following precepts:

1. Let the pupil become conscious of the fact that he is thinking.
2. Lead him to think either inductively or deductively, but always scientifically.
3. Teach him to reject and to condemn inferior and unworthy thoughts and to entertain only the healthy and inspiring thoughts.
4. Train him to think habitually along worthy lines, allowing no exceptions.
5. Then, after he has achieved mastery in the use of these tools of the trained mind, show him how to use his initiative in analyzing a situation new to him.
6. Develop in him a desire to make his analyses with an open mind and to avoid prejudices.
7. Guide him to become critical of the elements of his analyses. Make him habitually thorough and exact in his analyses.

And if we could train him to be habitually thorough and exact in his analyses we would have succeeded in developing in him the habit of critical-mindedness. We would have succeeded in enabling him to give that involuntary response to a situation which immediately detects its merits or demerits, its needs or its superfluities. We would have created in him an alert state of mind, a thorough and exacting open-mindedness, which is the resultant of an ability to analyze and which offers material for reflection.

There is a real need for the development of this power of critical-mindedness in connection with office and secretarial work. For example, let us consider the case of Mary, a senior in a high school where I once taught. Mary, as part of her office practice assignment, had been sent to the office to take dictation from the principal of the school. Mary was one of the "better-than-average" students in this school where admission was based upon the successful passing of I. Q. and A. Q. tests.

Early in the morning of Mary's first day in the office, the principal dictated some letters to her. The principal asked Mary to read back from her notes. Mary read back, fluently and correctly. A clerk then gave Mary paper and envelopes and told her to

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type two carbon copies of each letter. Mary began to transcribe. She worked quickly and after almost two hours' work the clerk sitting near Mary saw her searching through the drawers of the desk for something she seemed unable to find. When the clerk inquired as to what Mary wanted, Mary replied that she was looking for yellow envelopes so she could type carbon copies of the envelopes she had to address.

It is apparent from Mary's experience that somewhere along the line one or more of Mary's teachers succeeded in impressing upon her the importance of the carbon copy. But it is also evident that no teacher actually completed her instructions with respect to the use of carbon copies. Every one of Mary's typewriting and office practice teachers failed to develop in her a critical mental attitude toward an actual business practice.

A teacher ought never to assume that any "Mary" in her class has experiential background and should therefore be expected to know that although carbon copies of correspondence and other business papers are sent through the mail, they are never sent in other than "original" envelopes.

And it is also apparent that Mary had not been taught the purpose of at least one of the carbon copies—that of filing for future reference. Mary's critical powers had not been directed toward the purpose and usefulness of such an elementary business practice as that of typing at least one carbon copy for filing, and that of sending all mail in "original" envelopes.

Let us also consider the embarrassment in which Lucy found herself. Lucy was the new clerk, a beginner, who was asked to work out the weekly payroll and make out the necessary checks. She was directed to have the checks ready by closing time because the branch office in another borough of the city had to have the checks in the morning mail. Lucy finished her work and was on her way to the building mail chute when her employer, stepping out of the elevator, confronted her with the question, "Did you get those pay checks out, Lucy?" Said Lucy, "Yes. I did. Here they are. I was on my way to the mail chute with them." Her employer looked at her closely. Then he inquired, "Who signed those checks?" "I did," answered Lucy!

Here, then, is another instance of the painful price a student must pay as a beginner in an office in order to develop a critical-mindedness toward an everyday problem; to develop for herself that mental attitude toward her work which the school which graduated her failed to develop for her. Every one of her instructors failed to make of her an efficient worker when they failed to make her understand the significance of every item on the obverse side of a check. It would be interesting to know Lucy's conception of the indorsement—of the obligations and responsibilities that go hand in hand with an indorsement. But if when checks had been discussed in Lucy's classes at school, the teacher had not been content to consider her lesson taught when Lucy proved she

could fill out a blank check, but had drilled and drilled upon the significance of each item, the legal obligations involved in signing checks and so on, Lucy would have been saved from a humiliating experience. Lucy's teachers failed to develop in her the critical-mindedness toward checkmaking which is another very important daily business practice.

Then, too, there is the case of the beginner who invariably types the name of his school in the formal closing of letters instead of the name of the concern for which he is working.

A teacher who fails to point out to a pupil that the name of the company typed in the formal closing must agree with the name on the letterhead and is the name of the concern for which the typist is working; and who fails to point out the fact that the name of the school is used in typewriting classes only because the typing of the name on correspondence gives practice in typing formal closings, fails not only to produce an efficient worker but fails also in the more immediate task of developing in the pupil a habit of critical-mindedness which would enable him to approach new situations accurately and with confidence.

And so it seems to me that when we, as instructors, present certain projects or problems to a student or group of students we err in that we tend to confine our efforts to the development of but one type of criticism—that of the form in which a completed project must be typed. But, although it is true that this criticism of form—simetimes referred to as lower criticism—is very useful and of great importance to the typist, nevertheless higher criticism which concerns itself with the interpretations made of the typed project is also useful and is sometimes of even greater importance. The power and habit of lower criticism aids in the development of a skilled mechanic, an artistic typist. The power and habit of higher criticism aids in the development of an intelligent worker—a responsible, efficient, and thoughtful worker.

Both forms of critical-mindedness should be developed because both are necessary to the development of intelligent, useful, and dependable workers and responsible members of the community.

LILLIAN BADESCH.
James Monroe High School.

The Use of the Blackboard in Teaching Shorthand

At the meeting of the Gregg Shorthand Teachers' Association at the Pennsylvania Hotel on March 3, there was a most interesting symposium on the value of student blackboard work in the shorthand class.

One side maintained that practically all of the blackboard work in the shorthand class should be done by the teacher; that work by students caused incorrect impressions to be made upon the class; that the wholesale writing of shorthand by students at the blackboard made proper correction by the teacher impossible, and that it was unkind to expose the inabilities and awkwardnesses of students before their critical classmates.

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The opposing side protested vehemently that the teacher could correct the students' shorthand work better on the blackboard than otherwise, that students enjoyed going to the blackboard and that the criticism of fellow-students was beneficial.

Now, while I should never have the temerity to disagree with any of these important people in public, I should like very humbly to offer my own experiences, which happen to be somewhat of a compromise between these two apparently opposing points of view.

I believe with the first side that there is no value in sending students to the blackboard to "learn" or practice correct slant, proportions or other penmanship drills. Horizontal writing is quite a different skill from vertical writing and there is no particular point in actually *developing* good blackboard writers—that's not the object of our training. So that in the first few weeks of the shorthand course I believe that the teacher should do all of the blackboard writing and supervise the work of the individual students at their desks. The homework paper also offers an excellent opportunity for checking up on the penmanship of each student.

Poor blackboard work not only causes incorrect fixations but also develops an unfortunate attitude of smug satisfaction on the part of the "pretty fair" student when he sees some of the poor work done by others. So on all accounts my experience leads me to feel strongly that for a long time the teacher should do all the writing in beginners' classes.

However, in time there will be one or two students who will have developed naturally into excellent writers. So one day, quite unexpectedly, I announce that today Marie will write the brief forms on the blackboard as they are read back from the note-books and I shall walk about the room and aid individual students who require help. This causes quite a sensation because it is a novelty to have someone other than the teacher at the blackboard. Marie is honored and thrilled and rises to the occasion nobly. The class is interested and surprised at Marie's performance. In a short time I find that two or three other students have developed this skill of fine shorthand writing and gradually more and more are able to gain the privilege of writing on the blackboard while the class watches them eagerly and jealously.

These proficient students are permitted to write on the blackboard for three kinds of drill only:

1. The daily drill on brief forms.
2. Drill on review outlines.
3. Correction of certain types of homework assignment.

After a writing lesson at the end of a Unit in the text-book has been assigned, I invariably permit the four or five best writers each to put a sentence on the blackboard and from these the class corrects the assignment under my direction. While the sentences are being placed on the blackboard the class is having the daily Brief

Form drill which these better students can afford to miss.

Putting it on this basis, it is surprising how eager the members of the class are to get to the blackboard. Conversely, when board work was merely done for purposes of checking up on what John could do (or usually could not do), many a student tried to shrink in his seat so as not to be called for this dreadful test. But there is no longer any trace of that attitude in my classes. It is a case of Tom Sawyer and the whitewashed fence. Since it is a privilege and an honor to go to the blackboard, all are eager to be sent and, what is more important, strive to be worthy of being sent. Thus I invariably find my shorthand students practising on the board before school in the morning, at lunch time and even during the few minutes at the close of the typewriting period.

By the second half of the term there are apt to be a goodly number of students who are able to write on the blackboard, not only without creating incorrect fixations in the minds of their fellow students, but who on the contrary give the class something very definite at which to aim. For when a teacher writes fine shorthand outlines, it is merely a case of the dog biting the man—just taken for granted—but when Tom and Dick and Harry see what Mary and Peter and Sue can do, the reaction, subconscious though it may be, immediately is, why can't I do that too? or, I can do that too!

And here mention might be made of what all pedagogues know but sometimes forget—that self-activity is one of the best means of arousing and maintaining interest in the classroom and the business of going to the blackboard adds zest and thrill and excitement to a shorthand lesson that mere desk drill never can. It not only relieves the monotony of desk writing, but provides indirectly other classroom activity which the students enjoy.

For example, the students keep the blackboards ruled. In order to be on time to clean the boards and rule them, there is usually a rush to the stenography room that would do any teacher's heart good. Incidentally, at the conference referred to above, one charming speaker more or less parenthetically, "I wish someone would invent an automatic blackboard eraser." But I, for one, am glad there is no such device. In an alert, interested stenography class there is always a student ready to clean off a board as soon as it requires it. And do they mind the job? They love it. Ruling the board, erasing it, writing on it—all gives them a feeling of responsibility. The lesson is theirs, not the teacher's. They are busy, not only the teacher. They have the principal rôles in the stenography room, not the teacher. All of which creates an attitude of cheerfulness, interest and good-will in the classroom which we should be very hesitant about discouraging.

To sum up, I contend that much that was said by both sides in discussion mentioned can be reconciled as follows:

1. No blackboard work by students for penmanship drills.
2. No blackboard work by students

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for demonstration purposes.

3. No blackboard work merely to learn what the pupil can do.
4. Blackboard work by the best writers only.
   a. To give other students a goal to which to aspire.
   b. To free the teacher for individual correction of desk work.
   c. To arouse interest through self-activity.

EMMA S. MILLER.

Flushing High School.

Devices for Homework Check-Up

The value of homework as a learning process is seldom questioned. As such, it goes on when not under the direct control of the teacher whose duty it is then to guide it as efficiently as possible by remote control.

The biggest problem confronting the teacher is that of instilling in his pupils a desire to do homework *regularly and accurately*. These aims can best be obtained by efficient check-up of homework. Poor homework is all too often the outcome of laxity on the part of the teacher. Once pupils thoroughly realize that their teacher considers homework an indispensable part of the work of the term, on a par with class work, and not merely the result of insistence on a time-worn pedagogical routine, they begin to pay more attention to its accuracy and regularity.

Proper check-up is the outstanding means of instilling the desired attitude toward written work. The check-up devices I have found helpful are specially adapted to modern language classes, but with minor changes may well be used to advantage for other subjects also.

Written work is most easily checked when done in a loose-leaf note-book so that pages may be removed and reinserted without difficulty. Needless to say written work should always be done in ink.

Careful check-up from the very beginning of the term is an absolute essential. Pupils must be convinced early that the teacher is not bluffing.

Here are several check-up devices you may find helpful also:

1. Collect the homework of the entire class and mark carefully several papers selected at random. Check off the others for completeness.

2. Collect the work of the entire class and check for neatness and completeness. There is little difference between this method and the first, except that in the first case homework need not be collected every day, since the random marks are sufficient warnings to the other pupils. In the second case, homework should be collected daily for a continued period of time.

3. Appoint a pupil-monitor in each row who must serve for a week. It is his duty to check the homework and see that it is completely and neatly done. In this way each pupil must, during the course of the term, hold this responsibility several times, and he must be taught to understand its full significance through occasional check-ups of the teacher. A pupil-monitor negligent in the performance of his duty should be penalized. One or two examples soon teach the others to take heed. Rewards may also be given for efficient work as a pupil-monitor. Keep the idea of the importance of homework always foremost in the minds of your pupils.

4. While the boardwork is being corrected during the period, with a better pupil making the necessary changes at the board, the teacher is at liberty to walk around the class inspecting homework without wasting undue time. Pupils are kept busy, even working harder, since they know that the teacher is sure to see their work.

5. One of the methods of check-up I like best is the collection of the homework papers of one or two rows, after corrections have been made in class. This should be done at varying intervals and the work of the same row should sometimes be collected more than once, even before the work of another row has been taken once. This helps to hinder the attempts of pupils to avoid doing homework on "off days."

Marked vigilance for two or three weeks inevitably brings worth-while results. Soon those who have not done their homework, instead of attempting to bluff their way through the period, will come up to you before the period begins and admit their negligence or give some proper excuse. Or if you should ask, "How many have not brought their homework today?" you will get surprisingly true responses. Pupils are afraid to try trickery when they know you have several methods of check-up. If you arrive at this point you may be well assured that the first of the two aims, the control of regularity, is quite firmly established.

Papers, when collected and graded, as in the first and fifth devices, should be marked carefully. These marks should be recorded and considered as important as recitation marks. Two questions confront the teacher. On what basis should homework be marked and what must the teacher look for? The outstanding item to look for is the correction of the individual pupil's mistakes by that pupil. Homework should be collected only after it has been reviewed and corrected in class. We must never forget and must never let the pupil forget that accuracy with regularity are the aims toward which we strive in written homework. Pupils can never be made to feel this too heavily. A paper handed in, complete, in ink, if corrections have been carelessly made or neglected, should be rated a failure. Severity on this score usually improves original accuracy as well as accuracy in correction.

Here are several other items to consider:

1. A pupil should always make up homework—after school if necessary.

2. The teacher should insist on the proper heading.

3. Writing should be on every other line to enable pupils to make plain and legible corrections in the blank lines.

4. Corrections should be made in pencil. Another medium than that

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originally used always makes them stand out more clearly.

When papers are rated on these items, besides the mark, the teacher should make written comments which suggest improvement. For example:

1. Nice work (if paper is commendable).
2. Heading (if it is incorrect).
3. Ink (if pencil has been used).
4. Skip lines (if none have been skipped).
5. Poor correction (if it is very poor).
6. Better correction (if only a few mistakes have been overlooked).
7. Not neat (if paper is messy).
8. Illegible; and so on.

These comments are really heeded by boys and girls who, in the last analysis, do not like to be criticized for things they can easily accomplish.

I have found it best to employ more than one type of check-up during the term since it is less tiresome for me and breaks up any attempt of pupils to combat a routine procedure. As a teacher you will find that none of these devices is too long or too complicated to employ in five classes.

The thing to remember always is that the pupil who can't "put anything over" on his teacher and knows it, soon ceases to try and becomes a desirable worker.

JACOB D. GOLDSTEIN.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

A Pan-American Exhibit and an Example of School Coöperation

A suggestion made by Miss Rabinowitz, president of the Pan-American Club of Bushwick High School, gradually took shape and became a successful project, thanks to the coöperation of teachers of different departments.

One would naturally expect contributions from the Spanish Department, and we were not disappointed. Miss Gussow, though teaching in an annex, sent over two boxes containing valuable specimens of Mexican rugs; a long narrow-shaped gourd from the calabash tree, carved by hand and used by natives as a musical instrument; a framed picture of a lady in a black mantilla whose dress was made from the brilliantly colored wings of Panama butterflies; another shapely gourd, polished and decorated by hand used as a pot to hold the "mate" or Paraguayan tea and a "bombilla" or tube through which it is sipped.

Miss Richardson contributed a group of gayly-attired couples representing different regions of Spain; a beautiful black mantilla, a white handmade table cloth, a "faja" or belt made of cloth and "alpargatas" or slippers with soles made of hemp.

There was a fine collection of Spanish pottery vases, waterjugs, plates and "azulejos" or glazed tiles, with the Cathedral of Seville or characters from Cervantes' "Don Quijote" as a decorative background. The writer, during his stay in Seville, visited the old factory where this pottery was made. From the gypsy quarters in Granada came a lady dancer, dressed in typical holiday attire, bound for the "feria," while near her, ready for use, were her musical instruments, the tambourine, guitar and castanets, adorned with bright red and yellow tassels.

What helped to make the exhibit complete was the fine spirit of coöperation received from other teachers. Mrs. Skilton, of the English Department, lent us from the Skillton Collection a rough, unpolished opal from the mines of Mexico, a leather wallet decorated by Mexicans and a framed picture of a beautifully colored bird made from natural bird's feathers by Mexican artists.

Mr. Levy, of the Health Education Department, gave us his collection of Brazilian products, including coffee and cocoa beans, nuts in natural pods, crude rubber, a large piece of wax used as a basis for shoe-polish and a specimen of onyx, used for trays and lamps.

Miss Wolfe, of the History Department, contributed four handsomely dressed dolls representing "toreros" and their lady friends just before the start of the bull-fight; a large "peineta" or ornamental shell-comb and a sample of "turrón," a paste of honey and nuts, that was in constant danger of being eaten even before the exhibit started.

It was delightful to see how willing everybody was to help arrange artistically the articles on exhibit. Principal McDonald gave us the use of two of the best show-cases nearest the office. Mr. Milne, of the Art Department, took out his own paintings to make room for our collection, at the same time giving advice as to artistic arrangement. Mr. Johnson, of the Mechanics Department, provided us with the necessary glass-shelving, and Miss Marino of the clerical force spent a whole assembly period placing the mantilla where it would show to the best advantage.

The labor involved is amply repaid when one sees teachers and pupils enjoying the exhibit and making favorable comments. The pupils of other departments have the apportunity of seeing the art, costumes and products of other countries; and to the pupils who are studying Spanish such terms as *mate, bombilla, faja,* and *alpargatas* will no longer be mere words, but concrete interesting experiences.

LOUIS BERKOWITZ.
Bushwick High School.

A Questionnaire Study of Boys' Health Habits

In the interest of experimentation regarding the health habits his students possessed and not knowing of any standardized test in this field, the writer suggests herein a health-habit questionnaire based upon specific hygienic habits of which current scientific practice is in general accord. The students were also requested to report on their improvement of health made during the year. As a check upon these findings their medical records were consulted and comparisons made from time to time.

The questionnaire was given to 437 boys in the first three terms in the high school. It was modified to meet certain suggestions offered by the

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American Child Health Association[1] also by Drs. Wood and Lerrigo[2]. The purpose of each question was clearly explained. Each question was read slowly and answered before preceeding to the next. The questionnaire read:

We Must Know Facts

The answers you write will in *no* way affect any of your marks. It is a matter of investigation only and by telling the *whole truth* you will help solve a problem. Please omit your name or other identifying marks. This will enable you to write without fear of detection and to be perfectly frank in your answers.

Questions

1. What time did you go to bed last night?
2. How many pillows did you sleep on? (Describe them as large, medium or small.)
3. Where your bedroom windows open?
4. What time did you get up this morning?
5. Did you drink any water before breakfast? How much?
6. How many glasses of water did you drink yesterday?
7. Did you do any setting-up exercises this morning?
8. Write down each article of food you ate for breakfast this morning.
9. How many glasses of milk did you drink yesterday?
10. Do you visit the toilet before leaving for school?
11. Do you wash your hands after toilet whenever possible?
12. Do you bite your nails?
13. Do you smoke? How often?
14. Were you on time for school this morning?
15. Have you a regular time for home study? When?
16. Have you a regular place for study daily? Where?
17. Have you a regular time for your meals? When?
18. Do you drink coffee? How much?
19. Do you drink tea? How much?
20. Write down each article of food you ate for supper last night.
21. Check what you did during supper last night:
    (a) Read the newspaper.
    (b) Read a book.
    (c) Did homework.
    (d) Had pleasant conversation.
    (e) Listened to the radio.
    (f) Quarreled with some member of the family.
    (g) Rushed supper because of an appointment.
22. Where did you play after school yesterday: Check the place or places:
    (a) In the street.
    (b) On the school playground.
    (c) In a public park or playground.
    (d) In the house.
    (e) In a pool or billard parlor.
    (f) In a settlement house.
    (g) In a gymnasium.
23. How many full hot baths did you have last week?
24. Have you your own wash cloth and towel?
25. Last week how many times did you change:
    (a) Your underwear?
    (b) Your socks?
    (c) Your shirt?
26. How many times did you brush your teeth yesterday?
27. Have you been to the dentist since this date a year ago?
28. Have you any teeth defects to be corrected?
29. Did you have a Health Examination this year?
30. List below your health defects and when you intend correcting each.

Briefly state in what ways you have improved your health practices since you came to this school?

The following are the detailed results:

Habit of Sleep

Of the children that answered the questions 51 per cent go to bed before ten o'clock; 49 per cent after ten o'clock; 50 per cent each had more and less than ten hours of sleep. Seventy-seven per cent of the children sleep with windows open.

Habits of Exercise

Inertia and the desire to get a few extra minutes of morning sleep are probably the causes for 81 per cent of the children questioned for not taking any setting-up exercises. The inquiry shows that 31 per cent of the children still fail to get an hour or more of outdoor recreation daily.

	Per cent
Number playing in the street	51
Number playing on the school playground	09
Number playing in a public playground or park	16
Number playing in the house	20
Number playing in a pool or billiard parlor	01
Number playing in a settlement house	02
Number playing in a gymnasium	03
Number going to the movies	03
Number didn't play	01

The few who didn't play report that they must work after school.

Habits of Diet

Analysis showed that only 39 per cent of the children eat what might be termed "an adequate breakfast"; 58 per cent eat a breakfast consisting chiefly of a cup of coffee (glass of milk) and a roll and butter; 3 per cent go away to school without having eaten any breakfast. Two cases stand out from the rest in that of having eaten meat (bacon) for breakfast.

This agrees with the findings of the health survey of 86 cities[3] in that the American child prefers not to have meat for breakfast.

Only 50 per cent of the children manifest the habit of drinking no coffee. The figures are as follows: no coffee, 50 per cent; one cup, 31 per cent; two cups, 10 per cent; three cups, .03 per cent; four cups or more, .01 per cent.

Sixty-eight per cent of the children do not drink any tea, 38 per cent drink one cup, .08 per cent drink two cups. "A hot sweetened drink is a

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[1] American Child Health Association and the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company: *School Health Problems from Many Lands.* New York, 1928. Page 159.

[2] Wood, T. D., and Lerrigo, M. O.: *Health Behavior Supplement.* Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1928. Page 22.

[3] American Child Health Association: Health Survey of 86 Cities. New York, 1925. Published by the Association. Page 163.

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competitor of milk." writes the American Child Health Association[4].

Milk drinking has not become habitual with the high school boys questioned. The goal of a quart of milk a day for each child has not taken root with almost 80 per cent.

Per cent drinking eight glasses a day	009
Per cent drinking seven glasses a day	007
Per cent drinking six glasses a day	02
Per cent drinking five glasses a day	03
Per cent drinking four glasses a day	12
Per cent drinking three glasses a day	22
Per cent drinking two glasses a day	21
Per cent drinking one glass a day	14
Per cent drinking no milk	22

A glass or more of water before breakfast was taken by only 36 per cent of the children. Our inquiry shows that 60 per cent of the children do not have a sufficient intake of water according to the standard of six glasses a day.

Fifty-seven per cent of the children eat "an adequate supper"; 39 per cent "an inadequate supper"; 4 per cent had no supper. Of those that did not eat supper almost all were found to have an appointment.

It is quite obvious that proper frame of mind facilitates proper digestion. Our inquiry shows:

During Supper	*Per cent*
Number of children reading the newspaper	22
Number reading a book	18
Number doing homework	06
Number conversing pleasantly	35
Number listening to the radio	28
Number quarelling with some member of the family	15
Number rushing supper because of an appointment	06
Number doing none of the things mentioned	08

[4] *Ibid.* Page 164.

Habits of Regularity

Appearing at school on time is an essential checked up in the schools. That there is an afternoon school session probably accounts for the 98 per cent of the children arriving early to school. Further analysis demonstrates that regularity does not continue to this great degree in other activities. Ninety per cent have regular toilet habits; 70 per cent eat their meals at regular hours daily; 60 per cent have a regular place for study; 50 per cent have a regular time for home study.

Habits of Cleanliness

Ninety-five per cent of the children wash their hands after visiting the toilet whenever possible. It is the school's responsibility to provide proper hand-washing facilities if we are to foster this important health habit. Our elementary schools have made greater progress in this connection though their facilities are far inferior in many places to those found in our modern high schools.

Twenty-four per cent of those questioned bite their nails. It is gratifying to note that this percentage has been greatly reduced by suggested remedies for nail biters. These are as follows:

1. Dip the ends of the fingers in aloes.

2. Make a nail varnish of Alcohol, 1¼ ounces, Chinoidin, ¼ ounce, Gum mastic, ¼ ounce, Gum Myrrh, 1¼ ounces. Mix and let stand for 48 hours, shaking the bottle frequently. Apply to the nails with a camel's hair brush.

To the question, "How many full hot baths did you take last week?" 43 per cent had two or more baths. This is the standard health educators are trying to achieve. Forty-six per cent had one bath while 11 per cent took none. Half of the children (50 per cent) used individual towels and wash cloths.

The results to question 25 on the matter of change of clothing are surprising in that our children still believe that "putting on a clean shirt" means having clean clothing. Ninety-nine per cent of those questioned change their shirt one or more times, whereas 47 per cent change their underwear two or more times and 82 per cent change their socks two or more times. The writer definitely knows that a great many of the students sleep in their underwear and some even sleep in their socks during the winter months.

The practice of brushing the teeth at least twice a day is the pattern of behavior of only 29 per cent of the children. Forty per cent of the children brush their teeth once a day and as much as 27 per cent don't use a toothbrush.

Habits of Posture

During the course of the day our children are probably reminded about their posture. They are advised to wear low-heeled, comfortable shoes; they are told to shift often in carrying books and other objects. But, do these acts become habitual? A small pillow (about 12" × 12"), to keep the head higher than the rest of the body, should be used when sleeping. Analysis showed that 2 per cent of the children use no pillows; 79 per cent use one pillow; 19 per cent use more than one pillow. Fifty-one per cent describe their pillows as of a small or medium kind, there as 49 per cent use a large kind of pillow.

Habits of Coöperation

Ninety-three per cent of these boys took the annual health examination required of them and all but 25 per cent knew their defects.

Forty-two per cent have teeth defects to be corrected.

Thirty-seven per cent have not visited the dentist for at least a year.

Three and six-tenths per cent of these boys smoke one or more cigarettes daily.

The answers on health improvement were so varied that it was difficult to classify them. Some of the answers given follows:

1. "I play more."
2. "Followed the advice given by our teacher in his talks and have increased in weight."
3. "Went to a dentist. Took a health examination. Do not curse so much."
4. "I clean my teeth almost regularly. I do more exercise."
5. "Built up my body. When I was in P. S. I chinned eight times; now I can chin fifteen times."
6. "Since I came to this school I have improved myself by washing my teeth, doing exercise and attending to my defects."

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7. "I never liked athletics until this term. My teacher impressed me so much with his health talks that I resolved to take care of my health. I gained weight and now I play on the school team."

8. "Take more baths, more milk, wash hands after going to the bathroom."

9. "Learned more health habits from talks. Take more care of myself."

10. "No improvement yet, but health has meant more to me since I came to this school."

The findings of the health practices of the boys (437) in the first three terms of the Thomas Jefferson High School, Annex 150, show that there is a very great need for further health education; to do away with the ignorance that still exists.

Our task as teachers, therefore, is to keep abreast of the times by study. Let us educate ourselves and in turn our children by inculcating those fundamental health habits that will *prevent* disease rather than focus attention upon disease itself. Let us strive to develop in ourselves and in those that are sent to us a critical mindedness. This is essential if we are to learn (teach) effectively how to make adjustments to lifes' complex mosaic.

M. DONALD ADOLPH.

Thomas Jefferson High School.

Shop Talk

John Ruskin (1819-1900) said, "He who works with his hands only is a mechanic; he who works with his hands and head is an artisan; and he who works with his hands, head and heart is an artist."

It the recitation room when a pupil makes an error, it is very easy to strike it out, erase it, or destroy the paper. This can not be done in the shop. Errors are costly and mentally painful.

Common observation substantiated by scientific study constantly reminds us that the efforts to establish worthwhile and servicable education are based upon some sort of philosophy which has grown out of the long continued and age-seasoned experience of mankind.

Our present day civilization recognizes three fields from which the fundamentals of a general education should be gleaned.

First—humanistic; to wit, languages, literature, history, civics and five arts.

Second—scientific; to wit, mathematics, geography, physics, chemistry and biology.

Third—industrial, which contributes to the most complete realization and self-expression of the hand and mind. The natural resources of the earth are secured, handled and treated for human use.

The shop in the high school shows a variety of opportunity which exist in the industrial field and develops the age-old adage, "Thou shalt rise higher than thy father."

In this industrial age, it is our problem in education to prevent and reduce accidents, both in school and employment. Teaching safety helps to develop habits and attitudes, which is more effective than mechanical protections. This includes personal safety, safety of co-workers, members of the family and of the play group.

Many millions of people now have leisure that is most unwelcome, and few seem to have hobbies or any creative skills with which to fill this free time. We have laughed and groaned over the leisure promised us by Howard Scott and his Technocracy, yet it is true that intelligent people see that the same derided Technocrats, though silenced for a time, are uncomfortably near the truth.

Skilled hands may be life-long sources of joy-giving activity in this leisure time which we hear so much about. Some opportunities for mechanical skills teach the use and handling of machinery to put in order the various mechanical devices of a modern home. The vacuum cleaner, refrigeration, electric iron, sewing machine and oil burner are a few of the many appliances used. Students acquire some skill in carpentry, electricity, painting and various adjustments.

The following are just a few of the objectives:

1. Decide on proper selection and pursuit of a vocation.

2. Keep in repair common features of the modern home.

3. Develop ability and resourcefulness.

4. Discover one's interest and probable capabilities as a result of which the individual may enter a vocation.

5. Foster in each individual one or more special vocational interests.

6. Gain a insight into the fundamentals in actual life outside the school.

7. Offer an opportunity for that desire to create which means character building.

8. Learn how to conserve and gain strength and muscular control through manual activities.

9. Provide an aid to resourceful, constructive thinking.

10. Develop a love for that which is beautiful, artistic, appropriate and harmonious in one's surroundings.

11. Develop habits of industry, responsibility for a task, ethical integrity and personal traits.

12. Learn to appreciate a fine degree of skill.

13. Develop work habits.

14. Discover self-conservation and reclamation.

15. Create an interest in the sciences.

16. Realize the importance of extreme accuracy.

17. Inculcate respect for dignity of labor and effort.

18. Afford worthy use of leisure time.

19. Give sufficient knowledge and skill to earn a good living.

20. Create character that is trusted and admired.

In conclusion the shop motto is, "with heart, head and hand."

JOSEPH GREEN.

James Madison High School.

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Training for Accuracy in Balancing Chemical Equations

Very frequently instructors who continue to teach chemistry to students previously trained in this subject in the secondary schools make the specific statement that these students are unable to balance simple equations accurately. The experienced teacher, aware that such an assertion might be proved objectively, is not inclined to accept it as a point for argument. Perhaps he may counter with the remark that it is unfair to judge the value of chemistry to our pupils in the secondary schools by such a measuring stick, since the balancing of equations can hardly be proved to be the most powerful instrument in chemistry for teaching good citizenship. Although indisputably of first consequence, I believe we sometimes betray this objective by sacrificing thoroughness in our haste to cover the broad field of chemistry. Our former critic may well ask if this quality, coupled with a fine sense of accuracy, is not a desirable attribute of good citizenship.

During our busiest industrial years I lived and taught in our great chemical valley—the Lehigh. Boys grow and train there largely for the industries—steel, zinc, paint, cement, paper or even for the printing of chemical literature. One regards chemistry down there with the alertness that a European diplomat feels for national preparedness. While there I soon sensed the inadequacy of my instruction to enable the boys and girls to understand chemical combinations and their quantitative relationships. One talked of chemical affinity—then least common multiple and kindred uncertainties. It seemed that only those with a flare for intuitively striking upon the correct co-efficient and subscript could grasp the shorthand of chemistry with assurance, unless an unwarranted amount of time was given to the subject.

But chemistry was carrying on. I cannot forget the day when I heard my first lecture on the structure of the atom—the octet theory of Lewis and Langmuir and the nuclear orbit theory of Niels Bohr. The latter by its similarity to our solar system lent itself to a fine teachability even for adolescent minds. When one could postulate the electrical nature of matter, define its units and capitalize on the undisputed axiom that like charges repel and unlike attract, one possessed a new power to explain chemical reactions.

However I felt troubled, when with this background equation, balancing remained more or less a hit or miss process. I concluded that once the underlying theory of it was understood the act of balancing equations must be fashioned into an automatic habit, similar to walking or writing. I possess only a guarded sympathy for the complete discard of formal teaching. Students are often frustrated in their effort to do real thinking because patterns to accomplish easily the obvious are lacking. Consequently while there I evolved steps which I shall record, after I have described the make-up of the present classes from which I have derived these particular data for judging the effectiveness of the method.

In this rather small New York City high school it was decided that chemistry should become an elective for the third term students and at the same time it was concluded that the size of the school precluded any grouping of students either according to I. Q. or future functional needs. Finally, it seemed possible that only two terms of chemistry could be taught and that the course must be terminated in all cases by the Regents' examination. The three classes, involved in this test, totaling 89 students, were made up 54 per cent of third or lower term boys and girls. Their average I. Q. (data available for only 71 pupils) was 110, the range being between 89 and 142.

When the study of oxygen and hydrogen had been completed, the work on the structure of the atom began. Our examination on the fourth day of this work proved that the students could make diagrams for the possible structure (atomic weights and atomic numbers given), answer the questions, lender or borrower, metal or non-metal, reducing or oxidizing agent, give the nature and number of the charge and explain by diagram consequent chemical combinations.

Assured of this understanding of the relationship of the atom and the ion, an ion chart of the well-known elements and such complex ions as carbonate, nitrate, sulphate, etc., was made. The students made these on card-board ruled to match the lines on our number 10 school paper.

During the next three days the students took their ion tests on strips of papers cut three quarters of an inch wide, laid against their ion charts. To prevent position memorization, since each ion had a definite number, the tests were often varied by skipping in different units. The remainder of the period was given to formula building. The method was that given in Step I of the Detailed Instructions for Balancing Equations. The homework now became formula charts, viz.:

	Chloride	Nitrate	Sulphate	Hydroxide
Aluminum				
Sodium				
Zinc				
Ferric				

On the fourth day the typewritten instructions were given for balancing equations. These were read over with the students and the period devoted to repeated illustrations of the written instructions on the blackboard. The students were emphatically urged never to deviate from the order of the steps given. Under no conditions should Step II precede Step I, nor should a step be eliminated, although familiarity with the process seems to render it unnecessary. Ten equations were now given for the daily homework. During the next two days equations were corrected in class and new ones assigned. On the fourth day, after receiving the typewritten instructions, the first formal test was given. Fifty-six from a total of 89

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students had a perfect score, while on the sixth day 71 had a perfect score. Since on this day one entire class scored without a single error, it was not tested again. By the seventh day 88 of the 89 students had made perfect scores. A representative test taken from these days is

Aluminum hydroxide + sulphuric acid =

Lead nitrate + potassium sulphide =

Ferric nitrate + sodium carbonate =

Sodinm phosphate + calcum chloride =

It is interesting to recall that the time element in this investigation might have been shortened if I had had the foresight to review or perhaps even to teach simple factoring. A few of the pupils in these classes had not completed elementary algebra and several were unable at the beginning of the work to remove a common factor from 2 and 6. Since any infraction upon accuracy was counted as totally wrong, this misfortune of mathematics reacted somewhat unfavorably to the time factor.

However, to summarize the results—a group of unselected students numbering 89, the majority of them beginning the second year of high school and within the second month of their study of chemistry, with the loss of only one member, learned to balance, with no errors whatsoever, equations involving double decomposition and recombination, within an average of six and two-third periods (forty-five minutes each).

Note: Data on complete combustion and oxidation and reduction equations, involving electron exchanges make the article too long to be included here.

DETAILED INSTRUCTIONS FOR BALANCING EQUATIONS

Step I. Write the formulas accurately, thus—criss-cross the number of the charge on the ion on the left to become a subscript to the ion on the right and vice versa.

Example: $Al_2\ (So_4)_3$

Note. Reduce all subscripts to their lowest terms.

Example: $Cu_2\ (So_4)_2 = CuSo_4$

Step II. Draw a vertical line showing where the ion split comes.

Example: $Al_2 \mid (So_4)_3$; $Ca \mid (OH)_2$

Step III. White above each ion the number representing its charge (number of electrons lent or borrowed) and below the nature of its charge, whether positive or negative.

$$\overset{3}{Al_2} \mid \overset{2}{(So_4)_3}; \quad \overset{2}{Ca} \mid \overset{1}{(OH)_2}$$
$$+ \quad - \quad + \quad -$$

Step IV. Criss-cross the products of the charges above the given compounds to get the coefficients. Thus 3×2 over $Al_2(So_4)_3$ becomes the coefficient 6 before $Ca(OH)_2$ and 2×1 over $Ca(OH)_2$ becomes the coefficient 2 before $Al_2(So_4)_3$.

Example:

$$2\ \overset{3}{Al_2} \mid \overset{2}{(So_4)_3} + 6\ \overset{2}{Ca} \mid \overset{1}{(OH)_2}$$
$$+ \quad - \quad + \quad -$$

Note. On the left side of an equation, reduce all coefficients to their lowest terms.

Example: In the above example coefficients 2 and 6 must be reduced to 1 and 3; thus

$Al_2 \mid (So_4)_3 + 3\ Ca \mid (OH)_2 =$

Note. In writing the products of the charges, never write the square of a number; write the number itself.

$$\overset{2}{Cu} \mid \overset{2}{So_4} + \overset{3}{Al} \mid \overset{3}{Po_4}$$
Example: $+ \quad - \quad + \quad -$

Step V. On the right combine new positive and negative ions, writing *all numbers as subscripts.*

Important: Subscripts are found by placing the forefinger of the left hand on the coefficient of the compound in which a given ion occurs and the forefinger of the right hand on the subscript after the ion and by multiplying these two numbers together.

L = left. R = right.

Example:

$Al_2(So_4)_3 + 3\ Ca(OH)_2 =$

L R

$3 \times 2 = 6$

$Al_2(OH)_6 + Ca_3(So_4)_3$

L R

$1 \times 6 = 6$

Step VI. On the right side of the equation remove the highest common factor of the subscripts to get the coefficients.

Example: In the above equation,

$Al_2(So_4)_3 + 3\ Ca(OH)_2 =$

$2\ Al(OH)_3 + 3\ Ca\ So_4$

Note. Check back and forth the products of the forefingers on both sides of the Equation. They will agree perfectly if you have followed accurately each step of this procedure.

RACHEL EVANS ANDERSON.

Tottenville High School.

Science and the School Cafeteria

School health departments make strenuous efforts to keep their school buildings clean, the classrooms properly ventilated and the grounds about the school in a healthful condition. Biology departments teach their students the proper methods of scientific research. But what about the department which has more connection with the health of the student than any other, the lunchroom or cafeteria of the school? What efforts are made in this department for absolute cleanliness of dishes, trays, glassware, silverware and cooking equipment?

There is only one true standard of absolute cleanliness, that which eliminates bacteria. It is the number of bacteria on the surface of china that proves its sterility, not the apparent cleanliness of the dish. The finest film of food may be so evenly spread over the surface of china that it is not discernible to the eye. But bacteria settle on it, multiply, and, protected by the film, remain to be mixed with the next service of food. It is almost impossible to remove this oil film with its dangerous bacterial content except by very hot clean water in a stream and under pressure, plus the use of soap powder and a sterilizer. Such requirements as hot water in a driving stream are supplied by the mechanical dishwasher found in all modern equipped cafeterias, but the use of a sterilizer together with soap powder in correct proportion and amount is often lacking. The law demands sterilization of equipment in milk companies. The law should also demand

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sterilization methods in cafeterias, especially school cafeterias where the building of healthy young men and women is our most important task.

An authority has said, "If man would now apply what science already knows, disease would be eradicated in less than one year." Such sweeping results cannot be hoped for at once, but at Curtis High School scientific investigation has proven that a state of absolute cleanliness can be obtained with a little effort and expense. The Biology Department of Curtis and the lunchroom coöperated by making tests on the dishes, glassware, silverware and kitchen equipment of the cafeteria. First, tests were made on equipment washed in the mechanical dishwasher with clean, hot, soapy water, but without the addition of a sterilizing powder. Sterile petri dishes filled with agar were obtained from the Brooklyn Botanical Garden. One afternoon, after a routine clean-up was finished, the following tests were made. Three tumblers and three cups, chosen at random, had their rims pressed on the agar. Samples of silverware and some of the cooking utensils also were pressed on the agar. To test the plates was a more difficult matter. A small quantity of cool water which had been boiling for some time was poured on each of the plates, run over the surface thoroughly, and then poured over the surface of different petri dishes. After being allowed to stand for a few minutes, this was poured off. The control dish was allowed to stand open for the same length of time that the other dishes were open for the necessary operations. In the control dish no bacteria appeared. In some of the other dishes there appeared what seemed to be an unnecessarily large number of bacteria, which led to the belief that the ordinary washing of this equipment in hot, soapy water was not enough to sterilize. Something else must be added.

By the same method as before tests were again made of cafeteria equipment washed with the dishwater into which had been poured chlorine sterilizer and soap powder, in proportionate and correct amounts. Several tests had to be made before the correct amount of sterilizer was obtained. These tests proved that the number of bacteria on the surface of equipment used in the cafeteria had been reduced practically to zero. Our dishes, trays, glassware and silverware were now sterile. The effort and expense this whole experiment cost was small in comparison with the satisfaction gained from knowing that this department was doing its share to raise the health standards of the school, and from proving to others that the lunchroom is scientific in its attitude and willing to be openly tested.

MARY GREEN WILSON.

Curtis High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

The New Economic Geography

Like most children of illustrious parents, Economic Geography, descended from two prominent members of the educational curriculum, has been eclipsed by their superior renown. Never has it seriously aspired to the important rank of either Economics or Geography.

As in the case of other offspring, it is reasonable to expect that Economic Geography will express the combined natures of those who contributed to its makeup. It is also alleged that the relative prominence to be assumed by one's characteristics depends on the *milieu*. If this be true, would it not be eminently logical to suppose that the strong economic coloring of the modern background should bring into sharp relief the full economic implications of Economic Geography? However suitable was the emphasis upon geography in the days of apparently unlimited natural resources, the ever-growing economic character of modern life calls for an approach distinctly economic.

It was in his "New History" that James Harvey Robinson remarked how the cultivation of the new study of paleontology, geology, anthropology, and linguistics had revamped the course in history. Analogously, new economic problems have necessitated a drastic reorganization of Economic Geography as offered in our high schools. Questions such as the Domestic Allotment Plan, the Cotton Option Scheme, the part played by the sub-marginal farmer in the present chaotic agricultural production, the Brazilian Coffee Institute and its attempt to stabilize the price of coffee, and the proposed Danubian Customs Union are newcomers, but belong properly to the domain of Economic Geography. To omit a consideration of these problems is to be utterly blind to an unparallelled opportunity for really vital teaching. To include them, mere place geography must be minimized.

Yet, despite the urgent requirement of current times for stressing the economic factor, the presentation of Economic Geography remains encumbered by the mechanical rehearsal of countless details belonging, by right, to the course of Elementary Geography. In fact, many teachers have lost sight of the significance of the name of the course itself which is not merely Geography, but Economic Geography.

Moreover, all alert teachers of the Social Sciences are of a single mind on one matter: The need of the present age for a fuller consideration of economic problems cannot be quenched in the short course in Economics to which our high schools are now restricted.

In this connection, let it be observed that the correlation of History with

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Economics, however laudable and fruitful educationally such work may prove, can never be accepted in lieu of a more comprehensive course in Economics.

Nor is mere integration the solution. For the intricacies of Economics require the services of a specialist, if the instruction is to be accurate. However, even if integration is inexorably demanded by the trends of current pedagogy, as some educators allege, let Economics by all means be fused with its sister subject in the curriculum, namely, Economic Geography, rather than be subordinated to a course of an independent rank of its own, such as History. For as soon as it leads to distortion, integration then ceases to be a boon.

Those, who would emasculate Economics by cruelly condensing it into a superficial tabloid survey are ignoring the economic substructure of contemporary civilization. If education professes to be a preparation for the voyage of life, our high schools can by no conceivable subterfuge pretend to underestimate the mighty economic undercurrent in our society.

On the other hand, phases of many economic topics incompletely treated in the regular course in Economics might be very appropriately elucidated in Economic Geography. In addition, the wealth of illustration in which Economic Geography abounds makes for a firmer and more enduring grasp of economic notions. Thus it is only after one has studied the actual network of American railroads that the full significance of the transportation problem begins to dawn. The lesson on Denmark should lend itself to a consideration of the cooperative as revealed in the dairying and agriculture of that country. The topic of Great Britain and her Dominions should sound the signal for a discussion of the preferential tariff. Throughout the entire course the economic interdependence of the world grows into an undeniable actuality, as country after country, each with its own peculiar adaptability or incapacity for certain industries, passes in review.

Why should not the study of Chicago meatpacking evolve into a survey of the economic implications of by-products in the modern industrial scene? Where can anyone find a more eloquent testimony of the tragedy of industrial waste than the petroleum industry? A faithful picture of American wheat farming epitomizes the entire agricultural problem in miniature. Inseparable handmaidens are the titanic steel industry and modern large scale production. An inkling of the economics of overhead costs is glimpsed in the tendency of competitive coal mines to yield an ever increasing output with chaotic consequences. Very logically the significance of regional planning and government ownership, as well as operation of water-power sites, expresses itself in the Tennessee Valley Project.

Nor can it in any sense be said that the Economic Geography of the rest of the world suffers from a dearth of economic problems. In this item Economic Geography is in harmony with a prominent feature of twentieth-century methodology—teaching by the use of problems. Thus it is that a clear concept of the gap between economic and political unity follows from the lesson on the Danubian Customs Union which would restore the old economic solidarity disrupted by fanatical nationalism. The unit on the land of the Dutch illustrates the effectiveness of mere man in surmounting the obstacles of natural geography. Similarly, the Chilean nitrate industry sounds the clarion call arousing natural monopolies to the menace of synthetic processes as one after another, beet sugar, chemical dyes, rayon, artificial leather, ivory made from compressed vegetable fibres, and synthetic nitrates raise their heads. Passing to the Australasian sheep ranches, we are confronted with the item of joint supply and its corollary, joint cost.

Puissant as it is, the economic Zeitgeist does not call for the elimination of the physical factors from the course of study. For any one-sided interpretation which would transform a composite subject into either pure Economics or pure Geography fails to do justice to the course. But the needs of the age do require that both the economic as well as the purely geographic possibilities of Commercial Geography be fully realized.

That the physical factors of geography are the grooves in which the streams of industry and commerce tend to flow, no thinking man will deny. Certainly, no series of syllogisms is demanded to show that the Brazilian coffee industry connotes high altitude, Caribbean banana production indicates moist jungles, and the agricultural scarcity of Nippon is related to its indigent, volcanic soil. Accordingly, it is suggested that a survey of the pertinent geographic forces prelude each important problem.

However, to insure an adequate treatment of the problem itself, the items of topography, climate and winds must not assume a disproportionate influence.

There is the objection that a continuance of the geographic approach is necessitated by the neglect of many pupils to abosrb the rudiments of geography when they were in elementary school. Such a claim has as much weight as the plea that Caesar's "Commentaries," Cicero's "Orations" and Vergil's "Aeneid" be set aside to permit students to devote themselves to four years of pure Latin grammar.

Is it not strikingly incongruous that History should devote far more attention to economic forces than that Geography which calls itself Economic? Thanks to the efforts of progressive educators the revolutionizing of the teaching of History has already been accomplished. The time is now ripe for Economic Geography to suffer the throes of modernization and bring forth the *New Economic Geography*.

X. Y. Z.

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* This exposition of the reasons for the study of mathematics was presented to the students of the Samuel J. Tilden High School.—Editor.

Why Study Mathematics? *

In deciding what subjects to select you are confronted with a difficult

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problem. Assuming that you are not interested in following the line of least resistance, but are anxious to select those subjects and studies which are likely to be most useful to you as future workers and intelligent men and women I want to present to you briefly the claims of mathematics.

What is mathematics? In grammar school you studied arithmetic, and from that study you realize that arithmetic deals with the concept of number. Algebra continues with the study of the number concept, and elementary geometry concerns itself with the study of the properties of forms and figures in two and three dimensional space. Thus far it would seem that mathematics is the science of quantity or magnitude where magnitude means whatever is capable of increase and decrease and measurement. It is the answer to the question "how many" and "how much." But the most striking measurements, as of the volume of a planet, the growth of cells, rates of chemical change, the power of radium emanation are not made by any direct method whatever. Hence, some have defined mathematics as the science of indirect measurement. Even this does not tell the full story. There are vast domains of mathematics which are non-quantitative, and do not concern themselves with measurements at all, whether direct or indirect, for example, theory of groups, projective geometry. And so if we were to enumerate all the fields that mathematics has already entered or might in the future enter we would not arrive at a proper answer to the question, "What is mathematics?"

We do know, however, that mathematics has a degree of certainty not found elsewhere. It is the exact science, *exact because it is the science that draws necessary conclusions.* Here is the answer to our search. In its broadest definition, we may identify mathematics with symbolic logic. To think logically the logically thinkable —that is the aim of mathematics.

Has mathematics any practical uses? We live in an age of science. It is safe to say that all of our marvellous inventions would have been impossible without the application of mathematics. Theories as to the structure of matter and the nature of the universe itself are impossible without the use of very advanced mathematics. All the various branches of engineering—civil, electrical, mechanical, and chemical—would be non-existent without mathematics. The architect, builder, engineer, technician, physicist, chemist, astronomer, statistician, actuary and economist must make use of mathematics.

But for the vast majority of students who may never take up these highly specialized fields of work where mathematics is an indispensable tool, there is still ample reason for the study of mathematics. Mathematics is the oldest of the sciences and yet it flourishes today as never before. No other study affords such training in rigorous, logical reasoning. The ability to reason correctly is necessary in whatever you undertake.

I will close with what I consider a very significant statement. You may have read of the Institute for Advanced Study founded at Princeton and directed by Dr. Flexner, the eminent educator associated with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The plan of the Institute is to have various departments of learning where the leading scholars of the world may study and teach. Thus far there is only one department, that of Mathematics, headed by the great scientist, Albert Einstein. When Dr. Flexner was asked why he started with mathematics rather than with any other subject, his answer was, "I regard mathematics as the most fundamental of all disciplines."

Can you boys and girls afford to miss this "most fundamental of all disciplines"? Don't deprive yourselves of your intellectual birthright.

CHARLES SOLOMON,
Chairman, Department of Mathematics.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Tips on Russian Travel

Tourists bound for the Soviet Union have a choice of joining a group sponsored by various so-called "non-profit" organizations like the Open Road and Union Tours, or arranging through a local travel agency an independent tour of their own liking. If they choose to travel in a group, it isn't so bad provided the men are gallant and the women handsome. Where the miracle doesn't materialize, there is the added justification of group travel in guaranteed companions, bridge partners, debating teams and somebody to bring you a lemon when the sea begins to roughen. If you meet with a bore in the party and some sundry low-lifes, reckon that among the liabilities of group travel. If you have little patience with other temperaments than your own and if you are a believer in the superior virtues of your own ways, avoid the pack and travel alone. You will be much happier; besides, there are hundreds of people from whom to select acquaintances without the obligation of being nice to them all the time. What is more, and this is the ground base of our advice, the "non-profit" companies have to pay for advertising, a manager, a handful of secretaries, several foreign agents and other overhead incidentals that you must shoulder in part when paying for your trip. Travel in a group means in cold cash some $50.00 to $100.00 more than the basic accommodations would cost if intelligently bought from your local shipping agent. If you are above all interested in an economical journey and have no objections to figuring out a time-table for yourself, select a partner for the lemon or travel alone. This business of chaperoned travel has a tendency to insulate you from foreign contacts. It takes most of the kick out of touring because, in the name of comfort, it denies you the rich opportunities of seeing and meeting the unusual, following a whim off the beaten track and using your primitive imagination in making strangely-speaking waiters understand that you want gravy on your mashed potatoes. A

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sensible word and a cigarette will leave behind you acquaintances by the score who will in their own idiotic way explain to you why the next war is a matter of minutes. Otherwise, there remain the museum and the city hall and three meals a day served without ice-water to the polite grumblings of fellow-travellers who recall belatedly the excellences of Childs and who sulk rather than acknowledge the wisdom of the Romans.

Should you decide on group travel, and it has undeniable advantages for many people, inquire of the various establishments that you see advertised before selecting a particular one. A recognized organization like the Open Road, with its experienced contacts in the large Russian cities, is especially useful to those who have a definite task to accomplish in a set period. Working through the Soviet society on cultural relations with foreigners, abbreviated VOKS in Russian, particularly during the summer months when they are swamped with projects, is a difficult thing. An agency that can pre-arrange visits without making it necessary for you to cool your heels in the ante-rooms, is a blessing that might well be worth the extra money. My own sad experience with the Leningrad VOKS taught me this. I wanted to visit a certain camp about forty miles from the city and I applied for aid the first day in Leningrad. Three days later, after many an hour wasted in prodding the authorities, the thing was managed. The route was outlined to us and for our information we were told that the entire journey should not take more than four hours, thus making it possible for us to take the night train for Moscow that same day. We met our first setback when we got to the station—a wait of more than an hour for the train. The railroad trip itself took just about two hours. And then, while haggling with the droshky driver to take us to the camp, we first discovered that it would take a half hour to reach it and that there were only two more trains back to the city that day. We lingered about the station slightly peeved with Soviet cultural relations and then rode back without ever completing our business. Why VOKS never mentioned detailed train service to ignorant foreigners I don't know. Perhaps that would have been anticipating the Third Five Year Plan. Anyway, a travel agency with a representative in Leningrad could have reduced the waiting by a day and made the trip feasible, even granting the equal ignorance of them all regarding train schedules.

This episode need paint no necessary moral in favor of group travel, since very few indeed have any special quest in mind when visiting Russia. No previous arrangements are imperative for seeing almost anything within the cities. There are sightseeing trips arranged daily that include the outstanding institutions with which Intourist, the state travel agency in control of all tourist travel, has special visiting arrangements. Should you have something extraordinary in mind, enlist the support of several others and the next day's program will carry the project, provided the institutions you are to visit raise no objections. They seldom do. Intourist's authority is respected throughout Russia for the simple reason that the government knows of no better way to acquire foreign money, *valuta*, for purchasing equipment abroad than by developing the tourist industry with its direct, sure-fire income. This explains Intourist's priority in all matters regardless of the annoyances it causes to factory and clinic. Even her chauffeurs reflect this arrogance of position in their mad speeding and horn blowing, like the plutocrats in *The Daily Worker* cartoons. The line of Russians patiently waiting to enter Lenin's tomb may be a block long, but whisper "Intourist," the Red Army surrenders and you are waved in! Nowhere else will your few dollars buy so much special privilege as in the Soviet Union. Nowhere else will you be quartered in first-class hotels at third-class rates. In the land of the paper rouble and food-ration ticket, *valuta* is king.

What to take along? To do as the Russians do means to wear the simplest and most comfortable clothes you have. A pair of slacks and a flannel shirt make you a well dressed man where a patched garment is *à la mode*. Travel light; a Gladstone bag and a small handpiece for overnight articles are sufficient. When in doubt, discard. We are always carrying along too many things for which we shall have no real occasion and the net result is a load of mortifying impedimenta to knock against our shins. Take along a lightweight suit on your back, a pair of knickers for variety and slacks for utility, colored flannel shirts that do not show dirt, a few polo shirts for outdoor basking, a comfortable pair of moccasin-style shoes and a sweater. Wool athletic hose in quantity are excellent for keeping the feet from blistering in hot weather. Include among your toilet articles a couple of pieces of soap, a collapsible drinking cup, a corkscrew, add a topcoat for the boat and train, some 5 and 10 jewelry trinkets for the chambermaids (a foretaste of the Russian millenium, so to speak), a pair of sneakers to double for games and night slippers and a generous supply of toilet paper. The flat kind used on the boat is the best. If you are a courageous lady, follow the same pattern in packing your bag. By taking along articles that do not require starching to look presentable, the tourist avoids expensive laundry bills. Pongee pajamas can be rinsed and so can starchless polo shirts. The bonny rinsing habit can save you a bonny penny.

Russian paper roubles have no foreign exchange rate, not being on a metallic basis, and travellers cannot exchange their money for its equivalent in the common Russian currency. The importation of roubles is forbidden by law. The traveller without a kopek in his pocket is bound to be embarrassed sooner or later even though all the expenses, like railroad fare, room and board, have already been paid for in *valuta*. Supposing he should want to eat something in the dining-car or get a shoeshine or ride in one of Moscow's dizzy trolley-cars or quench his thirst with some tepid *kvass* or suddenly get an urge to enter a movie

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while perambulating the Nevski Prospekt? None of these desires, ladies and gentlemen, can be legally gratified at the moment because *valuta* will be refused by government employees, with the exception of those who work for Torgsin and Intourist. The ban on foreigners' acquiring roubles sometimes takes on the appearance of a hold-up game whereby you are forced to pay a stiff *valuta* price out of keeping with the Russian scale of prices. The admission to a concert, for example, will be five roubles or about a quarter in American money, but should you advise Intourist of your intentions, they will obtain a ticket for you at a flat charge of a dollar. A proletarian rouble becomes a tempting economy. Small wonder that, despite the warnings issued by Intourist against obtaining paper roubles before entering Russia, many tourists manage to acquire a handy supply in Polish and Finnish banks. This places a premium on contraband and makes the more literal minded tourists swear that henceforth they too will be practical smugglers and hide away in their wallets a handsome supply of roubles before entering the Soviet a second time. The only real way of discouraging contraband of this sort and facilitating the comfort of tourists, is for the Soviet Government to recognize the real need of foreigners for a ready currency. Either they instruct every employee on an arbitrary exchange rate or permit each foreign traveller a fair sum for his incidental expenses. That is the only way to destroy temptation and reduce a practice that bids fair to increase as Soviet travel expands.

There are three grades of Intourist service available to the traveller, each depending on the cost. Which service offers the greatest value? Naturally, the more expensive first and tourist categories are in some ways superior to the more popular third class. To those capitalists who can afford to pay $15.00 a day for first-class service, we say go right ahead and help to strengthen the Soviet system. The quicker the process, the sooner will you be guaranteed a safe return on your Russian investments when the home mortgage companies go bankrupt. For the reader, the choice lies between tourist at $8.00 or third at $5.00 per day. Which is the better buy? The only real difference that I could discover between the two, last summer, lay in the quality of railroad accommodation. In all other services, the differences were petty. Tourist class includes travel in *soft* berths, four to a compartment, baggage safely stored, bugs in the mohair upholstery (my Communist guide taught me early to select conversational partners from the tourist class, bugs or no bugs), and otherwise comfort. Third-class railroad accommodations means sleeping on a *hard* shelf in a freight car set up to resemble a barracks, no compartments, a collection of Russian odors that will help you fathom *The Lower Depths* more sensitively if you should ever have occasion for so doing, baggage open to *bespriziorni* inspection —all rather uncomfortable, but no fleas. Which reminds me that I never encountered a single bug in the beds

rooms, nor did I hear anything but praise for their cleanliness and, as far as bugs on the railroads are concerned, they do not fraternize with the proletariat sections. The railroads *are* the weakest link in the Soviet, it would seem. Considering the fact that a twenty-three day itinerary from Leningrad to Kiev, via the Crimea, necessitated only four nights of travelling, the discomforts that face you in third-class sleepers are paltry compared to the financial saving and the really worth-while experience of exchanging odors with the everyday Russian. A sensible thing, if you go third, is to ask an obliging member of the tourist class to store your baggage. You can then circulate freely, relieved of a pressing anxiety for your chattels until you reach the hotel. Stories of railroad thievery abound in every hotel lobby conversation and I went through a personal experience that turned previous skepticism into ready belief of everything that concerned the remarkable ingenuity of the *bespriziorni* thieves. *Caveat viator!* Which may mean that baggage insurance is a good investment and a cheap one.

In all other respects there are few differences between the tourist and third classes. Tourist gets both ice cream and compote for dessert, third gets one or the other. Tourist gets a nickel's worth of caviar as an appetizer for dinner, third gets none. In assigning rooms, Intourist follows a plan that was eminently partial to the third-class. Most of the hotel rooms are surprisingly spacious and comfortable. Of these, the tourist class gets first choice. Rather than designate the poorer sections of the hotel for third-class service and reserve the choice locations for tourist, in the most approved manner of the "work-of-art" gentlemen, they permit third to occupy the best available rooms. This was done even though the prospectus warned third to expect to be berthed two and three to a room or even in dormitories. With one exception in the course of my itinerary, I was never asked to share a room with anybody, let alone to sleep in a dormitory. All this generous treatment left a pleasant mark on our impressions, a mark that I imagine had the reverse effect on those who travelled in the more expensive categories. Service before privileges seemed to be the Intourist's motto. Or, as our chain cafeterias would say it, "the best for less."

There are about a dozen standard itineraries in the Intourist service and a word might be said in praise of one or the other. To begin with, travel in the summertime, with the head craned for sightseeing, becomes after a small dose an arduous occupation, like washing milk bottles or collecting bills. The summer was never intended for chasing around the world with a Baedeker. It is a time to relax on the seashore, sip cooling drinks, play games and, for a change, listen to good music. If you visit Russia to observe at first hand the mighty task of socialist construction, you can do so and still have time to relax at one of the many beautiful spots scattered along the Black Sea Riviera and in the mountains of the Caucasus. I would recommend in

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particular the Crimean twenty-day tour, starting in Moscow, with an additional three days in Leningrad. The latter city is the usual port of entry if you are coming by way of England, Scandinavia or Finland. I found that six days divided between sunbaked Leningrad and steaming Moscow was enough to test any tourist's temper and so I wasted little time in going from Moscow to Kharkov and then straight to Yalta by way of Sevastopol. Intourist permits you to shorten your stay in one city and lengthen it at another. Once settled in the sunny Pearl of the Crimea I remained a week swimming and recuperating from the hectic past of rubberneck sightseeing, railroad sleeplessness and general fatigue that results from crossing a couple of treacherous seas and an intricate continent in the breakneck speed proverbial with summer tourists. But Yalta was paradise. Yaltan sunshine will cure you of every ache contracted in both hemispheres, nude bathing in the Black Sea will restore your nervous system to laughing at the sight of a material dialectician, and the parched but picturesque countryside is guaranteed to ennoble your thinking. The rest is imperative before commencing your homeward trek. And along the way, too, the traveller should plan a stay at some watering-place instead of devoting too much time gazing at Rembrandts inferior to our own.

JULIAN ARONSON.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

A Correction

The article on pages 96 and 97 of the *Report of Ten Years Progress* carries, through an error, the name of George C. Wood. I learned from Mr. Wood that this article was not written by him, but by Elias Blechman of the Samuel J. Tilden High School.

I regret the error.

JOHN L. TILDSLEY,
Acting Head of the High School Division.

Enrollment in Foreign Languages in New York City High Schools for the Past Seventeen Years (Greek and Hebrew Omitted), Together with Corresponding Totals of School Population *

	French	German	Italian	Latin	Spanish	Total High School Population
1917						
March 15	14,714	23,898	103	17,409	13,362	66,237
October 15	14,970	17,511	74	15,665	16,375	62,820
1918						
March 15	17,343	12,956	56	16,478	21,771	65,306
October 15	19,065	6,216	63	13,686	22,161	62,820
1919						
March 15	20,920	3,287	66	15,234	25,729	65,996
October 15	19,993	909	65	14,218	25,536	66,610
1920						
March 15	20,336	532	125	14,845	28,801	68,981
October 15	19,084	60	144	14,522	28,339	68,861
1921						
March 15	22,206	881	213	15,801	31,350	76,400
October 15	21,247	1,586	372	17,158	31,517	82,265
1922						
March 15	23,500	2,752	399	19,402	33,228	91,351
October 15	25,011	3,638	592	20,340	30,532	95,797
1923						
March 15	27,085	4,696	620	22,305	30,880	101,575
October 15	27,176	5,147	766	21,427	27,351	100,225
1924						
March 15	28,576	5,285	902	24,969	28,007	106,919
October 15	30,654	5,530	950	25,590	27,882	110,064
1925						
March 15	33,743	5,911	1,147	26,715	29,363	118,413
October 15	35,740	5,916	1,127	27,715	29,209	123,052
1926						
March 15	38,653	6,255	1,434	28,521	32,415	129,525
October 15	39,991	5,835	1,434	26,375	30,969	128,809
1927						
March 15	42,709	6,438	1,593	27,289	32,224	134,811
October 15	48,009	7,944	1,833	27,035	29,998	145,925
1928						
March 15	47,200	7,388	1,743	28,077	31,251	144,079
October 15	48,009	7,944	1,833	27,305	29,998	145,925
1929						
March 15	50,310	9,091	1,986	28,555	30,685	154,756
October 15	50,171	9,716	2,042	24,273	29,285	155,900
1930						
March 15	52,585	11,443	2,298	27,164	31,132	165,498
October 15	55,016	12,467	2,394	26,374	31,509	172,356
1931						
March 15	59,493	14,548	2,695	26,479	33,791	184,839
October 15	61,694	16,081	2,853	24,357	35,107	194,521
1932						
March 15	65,707	18,262	3,163	22,782	37,092	208,673
October 15	68,339	19,366	3,367	23,236	36,436	214,345
1933						
March 15	69,731	21,275	3,873	21,486	37,170	226,318
October 15	70,347	21,878	4,299	22,817	35,745	227,780
1934						
March 15	71,793	22,550	4,990	22,698	37,045	237,147

* Republished from the issue of January, 1934, on request that the total school popula- be given for each period.

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REVIEWS

Your Job

By R. O. Pickard, Dodd, Mead and Company.

"Your Job" is an interestingly written work on how to retain a position. While it contains a chapter addressed to the college graduate, its language is sufficiently simple to be readily understood by the high school student. Occupational opportunities in hotels, manufacturing, and chain-store fields are emphasized by the author whose background is in these fields. Mr. Pickard is personnel director and advertising manager of the Grand Union Company and was formerly personnel director of the Hotel New Yorker.

Unit III of the new syllabus in Industrial Economics has for its aim the orientation of the student to his future job by means of self-exploration and investigation of selected occupations. The first process is well guided by the author in Chapter I (pp. 1-15). The second process is not adequately covered in the book, although Chapter XI (pp. 170-180) addressed to the girl in business; Chapter XII (pp. 181-201) which discusses opportunities in the fields mentioned in the first paragraph; and Chapter XIII (pp. 202-211) intended for those who would be salesmen, are very helpful in the direction of occupational survey.

While studying "Sources of Jobs" (page 28 of the new syllabus), the class would profit from a perusal of Chapter II (pp. 16-37).

For those teachers who avail themselves of the excellent opportunities to arouse the interest of the students by dramatizing such instruction as the method of procedure in seeking an interview with a prospective employer, and how to conduct oneself during the interview, Chapters III and IV (pp. 38-51 and 52-71) provide the bases of perfect "scenarios."

Chapters VI, VII and XV are suggestive and inspirational, but are addressed to the person who has succeeded in securing employment.

Although published recently, the volume seems to indicate that its author does not consider that the present widespread unemployment offers any particular challenge to him or to his young reader. Reference to current governmental experimentation in providing employment (such as the NRA and the CWA) would seem to be imperative in a work of this sort, unless the author is confined in the proverbial "ivory tower."

LEWIS NIDEL.

Manual Training High School.

Precious Books: Why and Where They Are Treasured

Written and illustrated by Jessie Gillespie. Dallas, Texas, A. T. Walraven Book Cover Company, 1933. 38 pages, illustrated. (Second of the Series in the Story of Books.) Uncle Sam's best cream and green, penny postcards, a copy of the *Standard advertising register*, or, in the absence of that, a copy of the New York City *Classified telephone directory*, or of *Thomas' register of American manufacturers*, a band of student scribes, a vertical file or two from a pre-shrunken business firm, and teachers have all they need to give classes that tonic touch so necessary in the period between the Easter Parade and commencement bouquets. Whether your passion is Shakespeare's England, Don Quijote's Age of Chivalry, or Bel Paese cheese labels as an indication of the union of church and cook—now is the time for all good men—to coax out warehouse stocks of pamphlets like "Precious Books."

Authoritative, artistic, and pertinent, such pamphlets are to be had for the asking. The classes get material that school budgets cannot possibly include, at this moment of shrunken book and magazine allotments, and the "propagandist," by way of a fair exchange, whets the appetite of the rising citizen for the former's product. One of the fortunate results, four or five years ago, of the N.E.A. looking of the gift horse in the mouth, was a realization that the teeth of such publications in general are not only sound, but, frequently, pearly. "Precious books" and other booklets of its kind are prepared for their publishers' purposes, naturally, but by and with the advice and consent of curriculum makers. And their publishers' purposes, happily, call not only for Phi Beta Kappa standards of accuracy, but for vivacity, color. In this pamphlet, which describes the rare and intrinsically worthwhile books and book collections in the United States, we have the appeal of animated pen-and-ink drawings and a cover in Princetonian colors. On the title page are the predecessors of your school newspaper staff—of three hundred and sixty-four years ago; on page 27, a young psychologist vigorously advising you to "Speak roughly to your little boy"; for historians, there is the latest about the Franciscans' *bajo* California, on page 13; for literary enthusiasts, recent United States Shakespearean developments, on page 18; and for students of the use of books and libraries, New York City itself is featured on page 32 by this Texas-located national seller of book covers.

As biographers and critics of authority, can your students tell the education and experience of the author, Jessie Gillespie? How's their commercial geography when it's a matter of traffic in ideas?—Ann Arbor, The Library of Congress, the Huntington Library, California—at these points North, South, and West, what key resources have been concentrated? and for help in what school courses? When the students proceed to the further material, indicated on page 37, what lures can they get for their own collecting problems—in stamps, books, or what not—from the Newton, Rosenbach, and other gentlemen?

Biologists (p. 36): "What of the bookworm? Is he a myth?" Let's collect assiduously, for our school files, trade pamphlets of the right sort, like "Precious books," that answer such questions and let's consider that the

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curl in the pig's tail is none the less scientifically correct because we find it in an animated pamphlet or depression-dispelling Disney cartoon.

MARIE K. PIDGEON.

Curtis High School.

Mental Hygiene of the School Child

By Percival M. Symonds. Macmillan. Price $1.50.

This is an earnest and soundly considered plea for the revaluation of our teaching procedures in terms of mental hygiene rather than subject matter. In fact, its message bears the definite implication that our past pedagogical sins, both of omission and commission, can very safely be attributed to our ignorance of what makes the child want what he wants, and act as he does. With the growing complexity of our educational system, our efforts at educating the whole child seem abortive at best, unless we avail ourselves of the light that mental hygiene is able to cast on our problems. The time is here, Dr. Symonds feels, for a more thorough and intelligent exploitation of mental hygiene principles in the classroom. Mental hygienists have now arrived at a corpus of fundamental truths which the conscientious and enlightened teacher must add to his stock-in-trade. Dr. Symonds further stresses the need for considering mental hygiene as a constructive force in the classroom, thus lifting it out of the clinic and psychiatric ward, hitherto its sole provinces. This is an urgently needed emphasis. For mental hygiene must serve its highest purposes in creating healthy-minded, harmoniously functioning organisms, rather than in rehabilitating those which an inflexible discipline has driven almost mad.

As chairman of the White House Sub-committee on "Mental Hygiene in Schools," Dr. Symonds is in a unique position to speak for the place that mental hygiene must occupy in our educational scheme. It is refreshing to read this lucid, simple, common-sense presentation of the facts and principles of mental hygiene; it is so utterly, delightfully devoid of the foggy rhetoric that enshrouds most of the work in this field. Dr. Symonds has admirably sensed the dangers of the purely literary approach to the subject. He has written with an eye to the practical needs of the teacher in his daily round of tribulation. He has essayed an answer to those agonized questions, "What shall I do about it? What must I know in order to go about my work intelligently? What can I do, concretely and constructively?" Dr. Symonds analyzes the drives and behavior patterns of the child showing how certain mechanisms of conduct develop as a result of frustrating these forces. An insight into these mechanisms provides the teacher with a means for combating and redirecting them into healthier action. Specific suggestions for testing programs, diagnosis, organization of a mental hygiene program in the school, remedial work with problem children discipline problems, are fully treated in separate chapters.

"Mental Hygiene of the School Child" deserves a prominent place among the most essential impedimenta of the modern teacher. If he believes, as most do today, that the be-all and end-all of education is the happiness of the individual child, the teacher will welcome the important contribution that Dr. Symonds has made to the attainment of that goal.

A. H. LASS.

Manual Training High School.

Crime Prevention Through Education

Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. V, No. 4. Washington, D. C. Price $.25.

The picture here presented is by now a familiar one. Juvenile delinquency is on the ascendant. The cost of crime, and particularly of juvenile crime, is mounting appallingly; the estimates vary from $12,000,000 upwards. Various social agencies are making noble attempts to salvage something from the tragic wreckage of modern youth. The school, a social agency of vast and as yet unsounded possibilities, has, however, failed to exert its energies to the fullest in combating this menace to the structure of society. This bulletin is a plea for a new and vitalized conception of the part that education can and must play both as a therapeutic and a preventive force. As a guide to those who sense the ominous import of our juvenile delinquency, but who lack the necessary information to act intelligently, this study presents with succinct pertinence the facts about juvenile delinquency, its cause, cure, and prevention. It suggests very specific ways in which the problem may be handled both as a [illegible] a classroom matter. It is a concise and thorough manual.

Education is envisioned as a potent anti-social force. Juvenile delinquency is a challenge which it must meet and overcome by whatever means it can summon. How this may be done, and the relationship that education bears to the whole problem, is lucidly and vigorously here defined.

A caution is necessary at this point. Just as the causes of juvenile delinquency are many, so the cure must proceed from many different angles. There is a notable tendency among educators to find in education the one great road to social salvation. They envision education as the great scourge of social malefaction. The naïve faith thus manifested leads to an oversimplified view of incalculably complex problems. In the treatment of juvenile delinquency the adoption of such an attitude is decidedly unfortunate. It tends to obscure the effects of such influences as the movies, the tabloids, the home, the gang, the slum environment. The school, if it is to succeed at all in this battle against juvenile delinquency, must realize its place in the general scheme of things, and render unto Caesar those things which are Caesar's. The school has its role to perform. It is a tremendously important one, but it is not the only one. A solution is possible only through an effective alignment of all the socially corrective agencies.

But whatever action society takes in this matter, the school must apply itself with all the resources at its command to the extirpation of the alarm-

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ing growth of juvenile delinquency. Bilious critics of the school system are wont to lay all the social ills at the door of education, and to exculpate society entirely. Education has but one answer, and it must be given softly but firmly: "Let him who is without sin . . ." Having thrown down the gauntlet to society, it must turn itself to the task of dedicating its equipment and personnel to something higher than academic proficiency. At present, that is all it can do, until it can convince society that it too owes something to the juvenile delinquent—a better society.

A. H. L.

Fundamentals of Teaching

By G. W. Reagan. Scott, Foresman and Company. $2.12.

Dr. Reagan has written a very concise yet comprehensive survey of the various teaching techniques employed in schools throughout the land.

Though primarily constructed for use in normal schools, this volume has much to offer to the practicing teacher. The book abounds in specific suggestions for the intelligent betterment of teaching. It is an eminently practical volume.

Dr. Reagan is no purblind worshipper of any one pedagogical dogma. His view is a sanely eclectic one. He has plucked the essence from each of the many teaching techniques, realizing that each has a pertinence and validity all its own. The result is a mosaic of the best in present day teaching. The book deserves a more than cursory perusal, particularly by those who are still struggling with the problems of translating theory into practice.

A. H. L.

Tests of Personality and Character

Review of Educational Research, Vol. II, No. 3. Published by National Education Association. Washington, D. C. $1.00.

To guard against the mistaken application of character and personality tests, the N.E.A. has sponsored this very valuable summary of the validity and scope of the hosts of such tests now available. There are few men better fitted for this task than Dr. Goodwin Watson whose painstaking accuracy and sound judgment are in evidence throughout this very detailed review of the status of character and personality tests up to 1930. With very few exceptions, all the phases of this aspect of the testing movement are amply treated. Practically this whole field has been fine-combed by Dr. Watson and his indefatigable assistants.

The tests are listed under thirty-seven separate headings. Each test is briefly described, and its applicability and validity defined.

This bibliography should be of immense value to those seeking orientation and guidance amidst the present proliferation of newest and most significant tests.

A. H. L.

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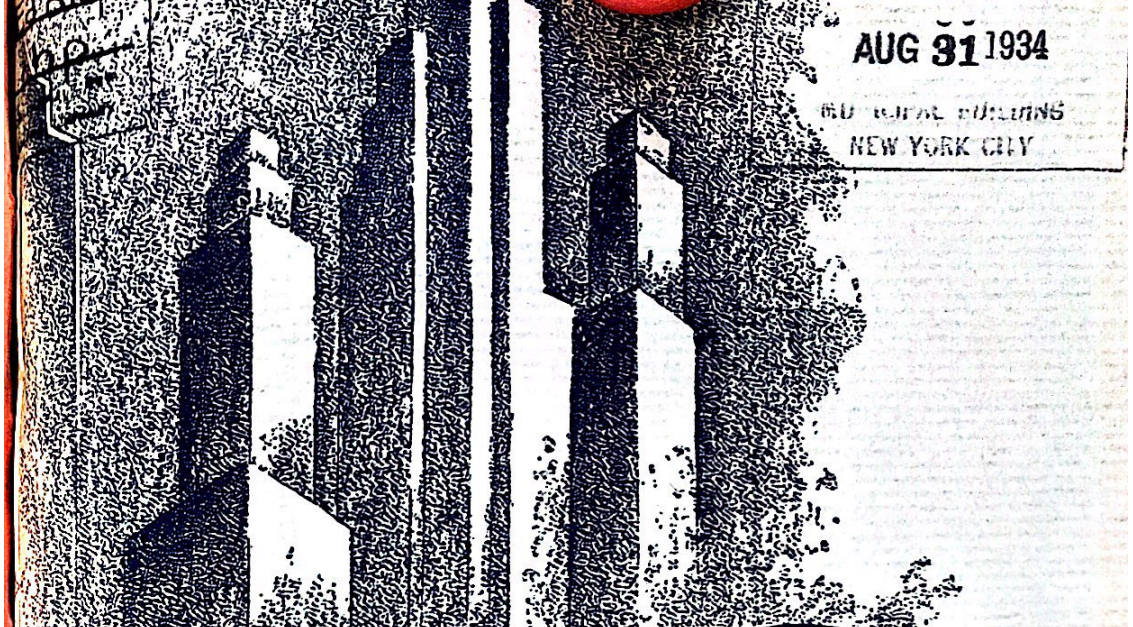

High Points

IN THE WORK OF THE
HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE
CITY OF NEW YORK

EPTEMBER • NINETEEN HUNDRED THIRTY FOUR

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AN age of speedy change is a time of unprecedented opportunity. The world is receptive to ideas. No longer stagnant and static, it is molten and fluid, running into the new molds that men shape for it. Our very danger is therefore our finest chance. The swift changes that threaten us also summon us. The world is waiting for our message if we have any. It is alive and needs live men to lead it. Let us not moan like the nerveless Hamlet: "The world is out of joint; O cursed spite, That I was born to set it right," but rather cry with Rupert Brooke, as he sailed to the hard campaign in Gallipoli: "Now God be thanked, who hath matched us with this hour."

WILLIAM H. P. FAUNCE
Former President, Brown University

SIGH as we may for the status quo, the profound conviction has been borne in upon most of us that we are living in a world where there is no status, and very little quo. We are like sailors on a ship driving before a gale on a stormy sea. We may regret the safe harbor, but the tempest hurries us on. We must navigate in the gale, not spend our time wishing for sunlight and a calm sea.

HARRY WOODBURN CHASE
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A BRIEF FOR ASSEMBLIES

THE assembly is one of the most natural activities of high school life. Since time began, people have congregated on occasions to enjoy together their normal interests. It would be a dull world, indeed, if there were no gatherings of people where one could hear what others were doing; if there was no opportunity to contribute one's talents, or to be inspired by the talents of others.

Changed conditions in our schools have demanded a new order in our assembly procedure. This part of the curriculum has not yet, however, been seriously accepted by most administrators. It has, rather, been tolerated as a by-product of the general program. As a result, the educational use of the assembly period has scarcely progressed with the later development in schools, and the assembly, itself, has received justified criticism. In many schools there is perfect procedure of the necessary mechanical details, but dull, lifeless listeners; or dull programs, with the natural results of a restless, irritated audience. Only in the more progressive schools have the possibilities and opportunities been realized of featuring student projects, growing out of the best interests and ideals of their work, and directed or advised by a faculty member.

Through the assembly project, the highest type of idealized education may be approached. Every principal wishes his school to represent the best. If he is progressive, he will utilize the assembly activity as one of the best opportunities in which to train students in citizenship and socialization. It is practically the only possibility at his disposal in the large modern school, personally, to direct, inform, and inspire his pupils.

Such training, to some extent, is found in every classroom, but only in the collective student body can certain levels of inspiration be attained. For instance, demands to "Cheer on" the school teams, to hear great authorities, to join together in song, and, sometimes, to revere the leaders of men have always been motives for student programs. The greatest enthusiasm and force of school spirit can be developed by an auditorium full of healthy boys and girls; there is decided advantage coming from the hearty acceptance of ideas by large groups of students; carefully planned presentations of the classics in music, art and literature, together with programs which honor renowned personages, will win the sincere interest and true appreciation of the assembly audience. No other medium in school life is as well adapted to secure these results of collective student training and interest as the high school assembly period.

Although her concept is highly idealized, Martha Fleming, in "The Morning Exercise as a Socializing Influence," gives the "classic" defini-

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tion of what may be accomplished through the assembly:

"The morning exercise (assembly) is a common meeting ground; it is the family altar of the school to which each brings his offerings—the fruits of his observations and studies, or the music, literature and art that delight him; a place where all coöperate for the pleasure and well-being of the whole, where all contribute to and share in the intellectual and spiritual life of the whole; where all bring their best and choicest experiences in the most attractive form at their command."

If we are to progress toward the ideal assembly period, we must endeavor to plan programs which will represent the best interests of our students with the immediate reward of their coöperation and appreciation. Not only will they benefit, but so shall we, as we learn and enjoy with them. In this progress towards our goal, we will encourage their natural enthusiasm and interests; we will help them to see clearly the honest point of view; we will direct them in their search for the beautiful in music, poetry, art and literature; and we shall hope to inspire them with more reverence for sacred things.

After the preliminary arrangements of planning for the time of the assembly have been made, the organization of the assembly itself must be considered. The first essential provision should be the appointment of a director who is vitally interested in this project. Such a director must realize the possibilities and opportunities of bringing together the rich talents to be found and developed in his own school. He must use discretion in the selection of program material, eliminating and rejecting any offering which does not measure up to a worthy standard. At the same time, he must consider the necessity for enjoyment and relaxation in the assembly period and provide for it. In eliminating, rejecting, and censoring volunteer contributions, the director must be tactful, not only because courtesy is a necessary qualification for all positions, but also because tact and courtesy will encourage further volunteer efforts.

But, not only must he know how to use to advantage known and proffered talent; he must also search for and encourage new talent in all the departments of the school. Observation and study show that the most successful directors of assemblies are those especially interested in dramatics and music. While this qualification is not essential, yet a background and appreciation of either subject will help in selecting and planning program material.

Thus it is possible for the auditorium leader, not only to utilize old talent, but to discover new sources of information and entertainment. In this connection, he may develop some of the work through the project plan with as many possibilities as there are individuals who plan such programs. As an instance, the director may enlist the work of a special dramatic class, representing both the English and Speech departments, for one program. Through this project, the class will become acquainted with some classic plays and the art of presenting them. In the actual staging for a program, the class will be assisted by the art and shop departments; in the research detail, by the history department; in the music setting, by the music department; in costuming, by the home economics department; in incidental dances, by the special dancing class of the health education department, and, finally, in the announcements, by the printing department. Certainly, such a project offers valuable training for all concerned, and provides a situation in which pupils may be given individual responsibility for a given piece of work where the result is gained only through coöperation with others.

Directors must also plan the general details peculiar to their school organization in order to gain smoothness in assembly procedure. Delegating much of the work to pupils under reliable student leaders will develop student responsibility, always an educational objective. For instance, it is most desirable and necessary that various squads be organized under captains or leaders to act as ushers, color guards, stage assistants, the "set-up" of the orchestra, and many other duties which contribute to smooth mechanical procedure for the auditorium period. However, here again, discretion must control student activity in order not to risk the consequences of over-enthusiasm in student leadership which may defeat its educational purpose. On the other hand, rigid faculty control and discipline may thwart all student development and interest. While it is most desirable that teachers assist and coöperate with the various squads, yet best results will be gained from supervised student organization and responsibility.

Finally, procedure may be formal or informal according to the policy of the school, but it is essential that the assembly period in all its details be carefully planned under an interested director who realizes the educational possibilities of such work. Under such conditions, the results will justify the efforts of organization.

Although there are many kinds of programs which may make for successful assemblies, it would be rather difficult to classify them. For instance, an educational program may also be recreational, or a festival program may be devotional in character. Variations of these types may be planned without limit.

Educational programs cover a wide field in all subjects. Their range is almost limitless, as well as methods of presentation. Interesting ones will include every subject within the curriculum, or outside, that informs or contributes general knowledge.

Outside agencies, contributing information and entertainment, have some value in the general educational schemes of the assembly plan. However, such contributions should not be allowed to surplant the school talent. Only when there is real demand for some information outside of the school curriculum should those programs be arranged.

A speaker from some non-partisan civic organization may be profitably heard if he can stir some students to

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be more civic-minded. The boys of the school, especially, will thrill with admiration as they listen to a famous athlete or coach, while for further variety and interest the school may be given the opportunity to see a real celebrity at close range. Because of adequate equipment now being installed in new school buildings, it is possible to use educational slides and films, which are becoming fairly well standardized and catalogued for assembly programs. Students will show sincere appreciation for good programs of all types, for their reactions are usually natural and honest, and their interest is keen in any work of high merit.

However, the mere desire to have outside talent should not be the sole consideration for accepting such contributions. Past experiences point to the necessity for using discretion in selecting outsiders to furnish program material; furthermore, such programs should be in the minority in the year's assembly plan. Though, realizing that program material should be of a high standard, the director must not overlook the need for wholesome recreation in the assembly period. In planning programs, he must again use discretion in selecting material in order to provide entertainment and relaxation without sacrificing educational value.

Proper distribution of each type with a view toward alternating the serious with the humorous will add zest and interest to the assembly periods. Humorous plays and "pep" rallies will enliven the whole scheme. Through a humorous sketch, impersonated by students of the school, or the delightful maze of a tuneful operetta, the school audience will forget for a time the serious business of tests and school discipline. Similarly, for an occasional period of free participation for all, the "pep" rally has no equal when, under proper direction, the audience may profitably relax and lustily cheer and sing for their teams.

Whether devotional, educational, or recreational, the programs should be planned and the contributions selected with student audience interest as the key-note. Because the material for assembly programs is of unlimited scope, the well-organized assembly plan can show as definite, educational results as any department of the school curriculum.

In this connection, music will be found the best correlating subject of any in the school program. It is one of the school exercises in which the greatest number can participate, and consequently one from which the greatest number can experience pleasure and profitable training. Although no statistics can be found to show to what extent boys and girls like to sing, yet common practice and observation conclusively prove that, when wisely directed, they enjoy hearing and producing good music. To be sure, one realizes that with the large numbers of pupils enrolled in city high schools, there is difficulty in attempting much song practice, either in the one-a-week recitation class of the first four terms of high school (prevalent in New York City), or in the short time allotted to already over-crowded assembly programs. But, one feels that consistent endeavor toward establishing frequent and regular assembly singing of interesting music is a challenge to the active music or assembly director. For instance, there should be both unison and part singing by the whole assembly group, since both will add to the pupils' musical experience. While unison singing can give valuable training and enjoyment, some effort can well be spent in developing the art of choral singing. Class and school songs, well-known folk tunes, and patriotic airs are often used as a way of least resistance to fulfill the exercise of assembly singing. Or, because of the problem of distributing material to such large numbers, memory songs are sometimes used which have certain value, but limit the repertory and hinder larger musical experience. To obviate such conditions, screen songs of approved character and extensive variety can be procured from a few reliable manufacturers. Included in these lists will be found well-known hymns, old-time songs, familiar classics and semi-popular tunes. Here again the persistent song director may find "the way" if he has the "will" to do so. As a result of such earnest musical effort, the assembly program may become intensely interesting and inspiring in a school which has become music conscious.

These observations resulting from practice and study, may suggest many relative ideas by which the high school assembly may become the combining agency, and the inspiring motive for otherwise prosaic tasks. It may become the focal point toward which all talents will converge, and from which broadening interest and understanding may radiate.

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EDUCATION FOR ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP*

ALMOST cursory reading of the present objectives set up all over the country for the social studies curricula would convince one that, though expressed in varying phraseology, there is everywhere listed among the primary aims of history teaching the preparation of the student for active citizenship. That this is accepted as a real responsibility becomes abundantly evident when educators, following the analysis that bad government is due to a bad citizenry and that a bad citizenry is due to bad schooling, conclude with self-effacing humility that the evils of present-day society can be charged to the schools. Without attacking the premises or the logic of the foregoing criticism it is, nevertheless, manifestly clear that intellectual hon-

* This is the fifth in a series of articles designed to show how the classroom teacher attempts to realize the objectives of history and civics teaching.—ASSOCIATE EDITOR.

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esty as well as the desire to avoid the needless censure, should prompt the schools to attempt what they pretend to do or stop pretending.

Very few teachers, I believe, would advocate that the schools abandon their civic aims and openly avow an ostrich philosophy. Yet, when we refuse to face the controversial and necessarily delicate issues of the day are we not doing exactly that? It is absurd to assert that we are preparing our students for the active sharing in good citizenship, when instead of calling their attention to the immediate problems facing society our American history syllabus consists of materials arranged chronologically or to anticipate proposed changes, materials arranged into logical units—economic, political, social, and so on.

Training for active citizenship requires that the students' attention be focused on pressing social problems. An investigation of the problems of unemployment, of distribution of wealth, of capital and labor controversies, of war, of corruption, and the like, should be the starting point for historical study if it is desired that the student have a realistic understanding of the forces he must contend with as an active citizen.

To indicate specifically, we have essayed a model lesson for "bright" students. The topic deals with political corruption and proposed remedies. The American history teacher in the past has usually touched upon the scandals of Grant's and Harding's administrations, the Tweed Ring, "the Shame of the Cities," and current events. But rarely, if ever, have these lessons been grouped into one unit for the purpose of achieving the higher aims of education. The following unit it is hoped may prove suggestive since it attempts to describe the complete classroom procedure.

General Aim of Lesson

To secure an understanding of the causes and character of political corruptions so as to stimulate an interest in the proposed roads to good government.

Specific Aims

(1) To instill a dislike for personal dishonesty and public corruption.

(2) To inculcate a desire to improve existing conditions.

(3) To develop the habit of reflective thinking.

Type of Recitation

The open-book problem-method of instruction is the most suitable for the attainment of the above named objectives. Information not to be found in the text book should be given to the student in mimeographed form. Reports by students on various phases of the work are included.

Procedure

The class is assigned certain homework questions which will familiarize them with the essential information. In class, the teacher carries on a socialized recitation by presenting the problems and directing the students' efforts in their attempts to solve them. Some provision is made for reports by the "bright" students, summaries, and testing.

Time

Although this unit is theoretically divided into four lessons, the rendition of student reports and lengthy classroom discussion may require some extra time.

(Assignment the day before the lesson.)

Note: The assignments serve as student preparation for the next day's discussion.

PROBLEM I

To investigate the causes of political corruption.

Motivation of Assignment

The teacher reads some current headlines on corruption and asks: Why does it exist? What can be done about it? Would it be worth while to know the causes of corruption? Let us study them.

Questions for Homework (on a mimeographed sheet).

1. Why has dishonesty shown itself more in American than in British or in German politics?
2. How can you account for the fact that the post-Civil War period became the "nadir of national disgrace"? Give some specific reasons.
3. Why is it essential to good government that no one political party become too strong?
4. It has been said that the price of good government is eternal vigilance. Explain.
5. Lincoln Steffens in his autobiography again and again points out that many elements in American society are opposed to good government. What people, classes, or interests want "bad" government?
6. Who were the following and what is their claim to notoriety or fame: Samuel J. Tilden, William M. Tweed, Richard Croker, Thomas Nast, Oakes Ames?

FIRST DAY

(Student's Aim)

PROBLEM I:

To investigate the causes of political corruption.

Motivation of Assignment

The class has come in prepared on this subject. The teacher asks them if they do not feel that they would understand this subject better if they studied some actual cases of political corruption. They readily assent and the following assignment is made.

PROBLEM II:

(Assignment on mimeographed sheets).

To study and analyze actual cases of corruption.

1. Which political party was responsible for corruption in Washington about 1870? In

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New York City? In South Carolina?

2. A man who organizes other men in a political group may be one of the community's most useful citizens. Then, why is the term "politician" usually used as a term of opprobrium?
3. In 1866, there were 129,000 voters in New York City of which 77,000 were foreigners. What is the significance of this fact to the politician? To the reformer?
4. By 1869, the Tweed group had possession of the mayor, the common council, the district attorney, the municipal judges, the legislature in Albany, and even the governor of the Empire State. How did William M. Tweed, Grand Sachem of Tammany Hall, build up enough power to control the government? What political party controls each of these positions or their equivalents today?
5. Speaking at Albany, New York in 1915, the Hon. Elihu Root declared: "It makes no difference what name you give, whether you call it Fenton or Conkling or Cornell or Arthur or Platt or by the names of men now living. The ruler of the state during the greater part of the forty years of my acquaintance with the state government has not been any man authorized by the constitution or by law . . . the party leader is elected by no one, accountable to no one, bound by no oath of office, removeable by no one." How does invisible government help to make corruption possible? Is a political machine necessarily evil? Give reasons.
6. The years immediately following the Civil War have been variously described as the "Dreadful Decade" (Don C. Seitz), "The Grim Generation", (D. T. Lynch). "The Tragic Era" (C. G. Bowers), and the "Age of Hate" (G. F. Milton). Why?

(Reminder concerning special reports which are to be given tomorrow.)

The teacher calls the attention of the class to a short and interesting bibliography for further reading (Appendix p. 1) and reminds the students who have been assigned reports the previous week to be ready to give them. For full instructions refer to Appendix (pp. 2, 3 and 4).

Motivation of Problem I

Senator J. J. Ingalls once said "Honesty in public affairs is an iridescent dream." How many of you agree with him? Where would such cynicism lead?

The teacher elicits from the class the statements that political dishonesty is not the natural course of events, that political corruption can be curbed and should be, and that to prevent corruption we must first investigate its causes.

The Outline of the Lesson

1. How can you account for the fact that the post-Civil War period became the "nadir of national disgrace"? (Home-work question No. 2).

The answer to this question should include:

a. Strain of war, which caused moral and idealistic exhaustion.
b. Waste and extravagance promoted by war.
c. New leaders, nouveau-riche, demagogues, "cake of custom" broken.
d. Unhealthy side of the development of the frontier.
e. Rugged individualism in business has its counterpart in politics.
f. One-party rule responsible for corruption.

(Homework question No. 3.)

2. Lincoln Steffens who spent a life-time studying corruption has recently written his autobiography. Mr. Steffens theorizes as to the cause of corruption in politics and blames it on the system. He says:

"What these big and little businesses all had in common was not size, but the need of privileges: franchises and special legislation, which required legislative corruption; protective tariffs, interpretation of laws in their special interest or leniency or "protection" in the enforcement of laws calling for "pulls" with judges, prosecutors and the police . . . it was privilege that caused what we called evil, it was privilege that had to be dealt with, not men . . . To put in prison a man who bought government to get a street railway franchise was wrong; we should put the franchise where men can't get it. To shift our votes from one to another of two political parties, both of which are organized to serve the privileged or the privilege-seekers, was folly. To throw out the rascals and put into office honest men without removing that which makes good men do bad things was as irrational as our experience had taught us it was 'unpractical'."

a. To what desire does Lincoln Steffens ascribe the corruptive influence of business?
b. How would the securing of a bus franchises be a force in the corruption of our city's government?
c. Should business men in general be for or against the granting of special privileges? Explain.

3. Many reasons were given for the people voting the non-partisan, efficient, and honest administration of Seth Low out of office in 1903, but most people agreed with Police Commissioner Greene that New York didn't want a reform administration; it wanted a "wide-open town."

a. Explain what is meant by a "wide-open town."
b. What elements favor a "wide-open town"?

4. "As technology revolutionized the city, as gas, transportation, and other utility corporations sought franchises and privileges, as the municipality undertook new functions in the interests of public health and safety, opportunities to make money out of the

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business of politics multiplied." Explain how.

5. *Summary*

a. An alderman speaking on the street corner to his constituents urges his reëlection since he has performed many favors for his constituents.

b. A motorist having broken a traffic regulation bribes the policeman who has apprehended him.

c. A New York City employee appeals to his district leader so that he may receive some concession or preference.

d. The owner of a shoe store regularly pays a fee to an officer of the law who proceeds to overlook the fact that the store is open on Sundays.

e. A street railway company, in order to secure the appointments of members of the public service commission favorable to their interests, contributes heavily to the winning political party.

Discuss each case. What is the relative guilt of (a), the voter, (b) the motorist, (c) the city-employee, (d) the store keeper, (e) the railway company?

Second Day

Problem II:

Student's Aim—To study and analyze actual cases of corruption.

Motivation of Assignment

Today, we are going to criticize and find fault. But is that our purpose of studying this problem? We love the vitality and brilliance of our city, we are proud of the history of our great country, then what should be our hope? The students will answer in effect: "To dispel apathy and cynicism, to remove the stigma of corruption, to improve our government." Then for tomorrow our lesson is:

Assignment

Problem III:

To secure an understanding of recent conditions and suggest remedies for political corruption.

1. President Hoover's research committee reporting on "Recent Social Trends" stated (January 2, 1933) that: "In this [governmental] field the most disquieting developments have been those of the intrusion of the graft system in the domain of the Federal government, especially in the form of bootlegging, but also touching the cabinet in the Teapot Dome case; and the rise of racketeering in certain urban communities."

a. In what way were members of the President Harding's cabinet implicated in the improper leasing of government oil lands?

b. How did the unpopular Volstead Act increase corruption?

2. From 1924 to 1930 the city's funded debt rose from $1,955,759,010 to $2,902,095,572 and its temporary (bonded) debt from $2,022,018,510, to $2,933,145,572. How can you account for these increases? What was the effect of this borrowing upon the present budget? Upon the tax rate?

3. At his death in 1924, friends of Mr. Murphy praised his twenty-two years of lordship over Tammany Hall saying he had performed his work well and "brought the party from the position of mediocrity to a position of power and strength such as it never before attained." However, to Tammany opponents "he was the exemplar of and beneficiary of a system which, without official responsibility, degrades our official life, and which condemns New York City to suffer from maladministration and the lowest moral standards in public office." (The quotations are from Harold Zink's "City Bosses in the United States," p. 163, which in turn quotes from the *New York Times* of April 26, 1924.)

a. Is a political machine necessarily evil? What good purposes does it serve?

b. Why are machines necessary? (Review of Problem II, Question 5.)

4. In the days of Tweed most of the corruption consisted of direct looting of the city treasury or the bribing of City Aldermen. Today the large fortunes are gathered through brokerage service. (See Thomas and Blanchard, "What's the Matter with New York," p. 44.)

a. How does one make money through "brokerage fees"?

b. How do the citizens eventually pay these "fees"?

5. Henry Adams in his "Education" states that as a young man fresh from the "rustic simplicity" of London (1870) he noticed with horror that the grossest satires on the American politician never failed to excite the laughter and applause of every audience.

a. Why do you think the American people showed contempt for their political leaders?

b. In what way are the people themselves responsible for corruption?

Problem II:

1. Test—5-minute short-answer type to cover essential facts. Appendix, page 5.

2. Reports—"Credit Mobilier," "Whiskey Ring." Consult the Appendices 2 and 3 for nature of reports.

Motivation of Problem II

For class.

Suppose you were a Republican and you were called on to answer a Democratic orator who had pointed the finger of political scorn at Credit Mobilier or the Whiskey Ring what would be your retort? (The class, of course, will immediately cite the Tweed Ring.) Let us, therefore, study the actual workings of corruption in New York City after the Civil War.

1. To get an idea of the kind of man Tweed was, we will have the report on Tweed. (Pivotal questions—Appendix 4.)

2. In 1868, Tweed got the Tammany candidate, John T. Hoffman, elected governor, and obtained from the legislature a new charter for the city, turning the finances over to a group of four officials, consisting of a mayor (A. O. Hall), the comptroller (Richard B. Connolly), and the chairmen of two important committees (W. M. Tweed and Peter B.

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Sweeney). These men in collusion with rascally plasterers, plumbers, pavers, builders, and furnishers, robbed the taxpayers of amounts "variously estimated from $45,000,000 to $200,000,000" before the proofs of their guilt were revealed to the *New York Times* by a disgruntled member of the gang."

a. How did William M. Tweed, Grand Sachem of Tammany Hall, build up enough power to control the government? (Homework question, No. 4.)

3. A new County Court House begun in January, 1869, cost the city well over $12,000,000, of which $9,000,000 represented fraud. The *New York Times* described the system of looting in an editorial as follows: "A man does some work for the city and charges $5,000 for it. When he presents his bill, one of Connolly's agents (a member of the ring) says to him: 'We can't pay this but make the amount $55,000 and you shall have your money at once.' A warrant is drawn for $55,000 and endorsed by the presentor of the bill to J. H. Ingersoll (another member of the ring). The presentor then receives five $1,000 bills and the ring pockets the $50,000."

a. Let us now dramatize this incident so that we may clearly understand it.

b. What uses did the Ring make of its plunder?

4. "When trying to stay the tide that finally overwhelmed him Tweed forced John Jacob Astor and five of the next richest citizens of the city to publish over their own names that Tweed and his ring had not stolen a cent from the city Treasury. . . . This baseless certificate of character signed by Astor and the other slaves of the Ring put many more millions of loot in the pockets of Tweed. Tweed let Astor defraud the people in taxes and Astor enabled Tweed to steal more money from the people."

a. How could Tweed let Astor defraud the people in taxes?

b. What do you think of John Jacob Astor?

5. Boss Tweed recited his political credo before the Aldermanic Committee which was thus transcribed into the record: "The fact is New York politics were always dishonest—long before my time. There never was a time when you couldn't buy the Board of Aldermen. A politician in coming forward takes things as they are. This population is too hopelessly split up into races and factions to govern it under universal suffrage, except by the bribery of patronage, or corruption."

a. What reason does Tweed give for the failure of democratic government in New York City? (Homework question No. 3.)

6. Mr. Richard Croker as Chairman of the finance committee of Tammany Hall testified before the Mazet Committee of the New York Assembly (1900) that he had kept no account of political contributions and assessments for office. When asked, "Then, you are working for your own pocket, are you not?" he replied, "All the time; the same as you."

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a. Why were men like Tweed and Croker in politics?

b. Should we support politicians who are motivated by desire for gain? Justify your answer.

7. Mr. Lincoln Steffens reports the following conversation with Mr. Croker (in the 1890's). "Well, about this boss-ship," I began. "Why must there be a boss, when we've got a mayor and a council and—."

"That's why," he broke in. "It's because there's a mayor and a council and judges and a hundred other men to deal with. A government is nothing but a business, and you can't do business with a lot of officials, who check and cross one another and who come and go, there this year, out the next. A business man wants to do business with one man, and one who is always there to remember and carry out the—business."

a. What is the reason for the existence of the boss, according to Mr. Croker?

b. Does Mr. Croker believe in democracy? Why? (Homework question No. 2.)

SUMMARY OF LESSON:

In the centennial year (1876), James Russell Lowell was moved by the disclosures of corruption to write the following scathing satire on our country.

"Columbia, puzzled what she should display,
Of true home-make on her Centennial Day,
Asked Brother Jonathan; he scratched his head,
Whittled awhile reflectively, and said,
(1) 'Show 'em your Civil Service, and explain,
How all men's loss is everybody's gain;
(2) Show your new patent to increase your rents,
Paying quarters for collecting cents.
Show your new bleaching process, cheap and brief,
(3) To wit: a jury chosen by the thief.
(4) Show your State Legislatures; show your rings and challenge Europe to produce such things.
(5) As high officials sitting half in sight
To share the plunder and to fix things right;
If that don't fetch her, why, you only need
(6) To show your latest style in Martyrs—Tweed:
She'll find it hard to hide her spiteful tears
At such advance in one poor hundred years'"

a. Explain the illusions in the above indicated lines.

b. Would you consider James Russell Lowell unpatriotic for "attacking his native land"?

c. Do you believe that Lowell, who belonged to one of America's finest families, had lost faith in a "government of the people, by the people, and for the people?" What motivated this criticism?

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Student's Aim

PROBLEM III:

To secure an understanding of recent conditions and to suggest remedies for political corruption.

Motivation of Problem III (For Class)

(Five years from now everyone of you (members of the senior class) will be voters. What will you do to end venality and corruption in public life? What can you do? Let's examine the events of the past few years and see for ourselves. N. B.—It is well to use some item from the daily paper to motivate the lesson such as "Recent Ballot Frauds."

1. In the days of Tweed, most of the corruption consisted of direct looting of the city treasury or the bribing of city aldermen. Today, the large fortunes are gathered through brokerage services. (See Thomas and Blanchard, "What's the Matter with New York," p. 44.)
   a. Explain "brokerage fees."
   b. Are they legal?
   c. Why should we object to them?
   d. What can we do to remedy this situation. (Homework question No. 4.)

2. Sheriff Farley explained bank deposits totaling $360,000 during a period of seven years when his salary totaled $90,000, by saying that the other $270,000 came from a wonderful "tin box." In removing Farley, Governor Roosevelt laid down the rule that in the case of an elected official if "the scale of living or the total of his bank [illegible] far exceeds the public salary which he is known to receive, he . . . owes a positive public duty to the community to give a reasonable or credible explanation of the sources of the deposits, or the source which enables him to maintain a scale of living beyond the amount of his salary."
   a. Do you believe that there should be this moral test for fitness to hold office? Why?
   b. Do you believe a man fit to hold public office who cannot explain his own bank accounts?

3. Mayor Walker resigned his office September 1, 1932, after he had been arraigned before the Governor on fifteen charges by Judge Seabury. An example of one of the charges is as follows: A bus franchise was awarded to the Equitable Coach Company. Mayor Walker signed the contract on August 9, and sailed for Europe on August 10, with a $10,000 letter of credit arranged by J. Allen Smith of the Equitable. Later, J. Allen Smith paid a draft of $3,000 for which the Mayor was liable. The mayor never proved he repaid the above sums.
   a. It was thought by many in September, 1932, that had Mayor Walker received the support of the Democratic organization he could have been reelected. How can you account for this?
   b. Would you vote for Mr. Walker? Why?—(Homework question No. 3.)

4. Judge Seabury asked Register McQuade how he could deposit $80,000-odd in the year 1925 when his salary was $9,365.40. Mr. McQuade, after much hemming and hawing, answered that he borrowed it from people whose names he had since forgotten, in order to support thirty-three destitute relatives. Governor Roosevelt in commenting on this case stated that had he "been a resident of Kings County" he would not have voted for McQuade.
   a. Would you have voted for Mr. McQuade?
   b. Why was McQuade able to win the next election for Sheriff in Kings county?

5. In his report on New York City government on December 28, 1932, Mr. Seabury stated this fundamental truism: "No form or machinery of government can be devised that will automatically put good incumbents into office. Though something can be done to cripple the power of the machine control over the electorate, an alert citizenship that will not long tolerate abuse of power by political machines is an indispensable pre-requisite of good government."
   a. What schemes have been proposed for New York which will tend to weaken the power of the majority party machine? (If possible have a diagram to illustrate J. V. McKee's, Al Smith's and Judge Seabury's proposals.)
   b. What would be your definition of an alert citizenry?

SUMMARY OF FIRST THREE LESSONS

(By means of large cartoons displayed one at a time.)

Motivation:

On seeing a cartoon of himself in prison stripes Tweed exclaimed, "Let's stop those pictures. I don't care so much what the papers write about me —my constituents can't read; but they can see pictures." Let's examine them and see what they say.

Note: Because of the expensiveness of a cut these pictures have not been reproduced.

Number I—"The Ballot" — Beard and Beard, History of the United States, p. 454.

1. What is the implication of this cartoon?
2. What types of ballot fraud have been obliterated by the voting machine.
3. What type of fraud is still possible?
4. Can you suggest a remedy? What?

Number II—"Tweed Ring" — Hamm, Bourne and Benton, A Unit History of the United States, p. 435.

1. This cartoon illustrates Cleveland's famous phrase "the cohesive ties of public plunder." Explain how.
2. What method of robbing the city is implied in this picture.
3. To what political party do you believe Thomas Nast belonged?

Number III—"The Dwarf and the Giant Thief" — Hamm, Bourne and Benton, *ibid*, p. 436.

1. What condition did the cartoonist attempt to describe?

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2. How can a political boss control the police?

Number IV — "Getting his Cut," Thomas and Blanshard, p. 250.

1. What story does this picture tell?
2. How can a political party by its control of finances win the support of the poor?

Number V — "Design for a Municipal Fountain," Thomas and Blanshard, frontispiece.

1. What does Rollin Kirby of the *New York Telegram* think of Tammany Hall?
2. How does a political party get its spoils?
3. Who are the recipients of its favors?

Number VI—"The Guiltiest Judge of All," Hamm, Bourne and Benton, p. 693.

1. What story does this cartoon tell you?
2. Do you agree with the caption? Give reasons.

Fourth Day

Problem IV:

Student's aim — To evaluate various proposals for reform in city government.

Motivation:

There are those who maintain with cynicism born of lethargy that corruption is part of human nature and therefore can never be obliterated. Opposed to this "do-nothing and let-alone school" at the other extreme, is a group which believes that political corruption is only a manifestation of the profit motive and can only be wiped out by a complete change in the economic, political and social system. Between pessimistic conservatism and uncompromising radicalism is there no "middle of the road"? Let us examine some of the proposed reforms.

(A brief discussion of a play such as "Both Your Houses," which grotesquely but vividly portrays the Congressional Appropriations Committee as a group of self-seeking spoilsmen, might also serve as motivation.)

Method:

A. *Class discussion or debate on the following problems:*

1. How to attract desirable individuals to public office.
2. How to make elections cheap and how to remove evils of campaign fund contributions.
3. How to stimulate the apathetic voter.
4. Shall we vote on issues or men?
5. How to alleviate the evils of the professional political machine.
6. How to enlighten public opinion.
7. How to lessen the influence of the lawyer and the legal attitude of mind in government legislation.
8. How to promote systematic, organized research in political matters.
9. How far proportional representation and a simplified governmental structure would improve New York City.
10. How far the merit system can be applied to governmental services.

B. *Individual essays may be suggested on the following ideas:*

1. What do you consider to be corrupt practices in government? Are these practices also considered corrupt in business?
2. Is the political machine inevitable in government? If so, why? Is it possible to build a political machine without basing it on patronage?
3. What is your platform for eliminating corruption from government?

Test:

Give a five minute "attitude test." (Appendix 5.)

Appendix I

Bibliography: Interesting and useful books to be recommended to students for general reading on this topic.

D. S. Alexander: Political History of New York, Vol. III.

F. L. Allen: Only Yesterday.

Beard and Beard: Rise of American Civilization.

*Thomas & Blanchard: What's the Matter with New York.

Claude G. Bowers: The Tragic Era.

*John Dewey (editor); New York and the Seabury Investigation.

F. C. Hicks: Chapters of Erie.

Frank R. Kent: The Great Game of Politics.

*Denis T. Lynch: Boss Tweed.

Meade-Minnegerode: Certain Rich Men.

Gustavus Myers: The History of Great American Fortunes.

*Gustavus Myers: Tammany Hall.

Allen Nevins: The Emergence of Modern America.

* Especially recommended.

W. B. Northrop-J. B. Northrop: The Insolence of Office.

James F. Rhodes: History of the United States. Vol. VII.

William G. Shepherd: The Boys' Own Book of Politics.

*Lincoln Steffens: Autobiography.

R. I. Warshaw: Jay Gould, The Story of a Fortune.

Bouck White: Book of Daniel Drew.

Harold Zink: City Bosses in the United States.

Appendix II

Credit Mobilier Scandal: To the student a week before the lesson.

Prepare to make a three-minute report to the class on the above topic. Have your report cover at least these questions:

1. Explain how the Credit Mobilier was a dishonest scheme of mulcting the stock holders of the Union Pacific Railroad.
2. G. W. Julian wrote in his diary that Oakes Ames was "on the whole the best of the lot." He, at least, had not added perjury to bribery. What defense was used by the Congressmen who had accepted Credit Mobilier stock?
3. Why did the Senate report on the Credit Mobilier whitewash Colfax, Garfield, Kelley and Dawes, but attack James Brook?

The account of this scandal in Nelson Trottman's "History of the Union Pacific" is very good. J. B. Crawford's "The Great Mobilier of America" is also satisfactory. Much useful material can be found in standard histories such as Rhodes or Schouler.

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Appendix III

Whiskey Ring: To the student a week before the lesson.

Prepare to make a three-minute report to the class. Have your report cover at least these three questions:

1. Why was this scheme of defrauding the government of taxes called a ring?
2. How did Bristow get the evidence against this revenue racket.
3. What has been done to make collusion between revenue officers and business men more difficult today?

N. B.—Use John McDonald's "Secrets of the Great Whiskey Ring." It is interesting but should be measured carefully against Schouler's Vol. VII or Rhodes, Vol. VII. John McDonald was an ex-convict, he wrote this book in 1875 as a campaign document to be used against Grant if he were nominated for a third term.

Appendix IV

William Marcy Tweed: To the student a week before the lesson.

Prepare to make a three-minute report to the class on the character of William Marcy Tweed. Have your character description cover at least these points:

1. Tweed's origin.
2. Tweed's introduction into politics.
3. Tweed's philosophy of life.
4. Tweed's attitude towards personal friends.
5. Tweed's actual appearance.
6. Popular opinion of Tweed.
7. [illegible] in his downfall.

Dennis T. Lynch's account of Boss Tweed is entertaining and graphic. If you wish to read further excellent material turn to Gustavus Myers' "Tammany Hall."

Appendix V

Test for 2nd Day: "Teaching Test" of "Yes" and "No" variety, to test the amount of progress (assimilation).

1. As late as 1871, Boss Tweed was very popular with the members of his political party and majority of the voters.
2. In the post-Civil War period only the Democratic party was affected by corruption.
3. The more complex the problems or the machinery of government, the greater the likelihood for corruption.
4. An executive who is thoroughly honest will naturally have an administration which is free from corruption.
5. After the Civil War, business morality, if anything, had sunk to a lower level than political morality.

Test for End of Unit—4th Day—

(The appraisal of the pupils' statements may be left to a committee of the class).

Attitude Test

Complete the statements in the best way you can:

1. Business men sometimes corrupt government because —.
2. The government of cities in the United States has been considered a conspicuous failure because —.
3. A low tone of public morality usually exists after great wars because —.
4. Political parties are necessary to govern a democracy because —.
5. A cynical and apathetic citizenry promotes corruption because —.

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE READING TASTES OF FIRST-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

With a Particular View to Comparison Between the Tastes of Boys and Those of Girls

In any discussion of the proper use of leisure time, the subject of reading is, of course, of great importance. During such a discussion with students, it occurred to the writer that, although he had had occasion to read several thousand book reports, he was not in a highly satisfactory position for elevating reading tastes or inculcating good reading habits, for the reason that he did not have accurate information as to what those tastes and habits were in the particular group that he is working with. Then, too, in a co-educational institution, it is plain that there might be needed two separate paths of attack, inasmuch as the reading tastes of girls are probably, for obvious reasons, different from those of boys of the same age. That beginning high school students are sadly in need of elevating in this respect, no English teacher who has labored over their book reports can deny. The problem, therefore, being a rather important one, it seemed to the writer that the situation merited a careful study. While there have been somewhat similar investigations in the past (Terman's, Judd's), it appeared much more desirable to attack the problem on the basis of results obtained from the very students who would constitute the subjects of the attempted "elevating."

It is, in fact, demonstrated by a comparison of these various findings that the reading tastes of students vary to some extent in different localities; nor is it indeed strange that a boy living in the township of Allenwood, in New Jersey, for instance, with no public library, with a very limited amount of reading material at hand, perhaps only the tried-and-true works that constituted not only his father's but his grandfather's library as well, should develop reading tastes different from those of a New York City high school student, who has huge public libraries at his very elbow and a well-stocked Womrath's around the corner, not to mention the drug store a few paces from his door.

Accordingly, the writer felt there was sufficient need for a private investigation of his own into the question.

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In most previous investigations in this field, the results were determined by means of a comparatively simple questionnaire. Usually, only two questions were asked, namely, "Who are your favorite authors?" and "Which are your favorite books?" The results thus obtained were then interpreted by the investigators. The writer determined, however, to present a more detailed schedule. His reason for doing so was that it seemed to him that the two-question device does not probe deeply enough into the matter. It may reveal that students prefer novels and that they like mystery stories, but it fails to disclose the fact, for instance, that a considerable percentage of high school students have never willingly read either a biography or a play. In other words, by dividing the two main questions into narrower ones and by making finer distinctions, it was felt that more would be revealed. At any rate, despite the danger of repetition, the following questionnaire, with the two standard questions broken up into conveniently palatable units, was administered to a group of approximately five hundred first-year high school students in the Abraham Lincoln High School Annex, with an almost equal representation of the two sexes.

It was personally supervised by the writer in most cases, and in the others the questionnaire was administered by a colleague, carefully instructed. The students were told that the survey was being conducted by the school library in order to determine what new books should be purchased (the writer was at the time of this investigation in charge of the Annex library), they were impressed with the utmost importance of honesty and frankness, and they were not required to affix their names. There is little doubt in the mind of the writer, at least, but that the answers given were, in the overwhelming majority of cases, honest and authentic.

The schedule follows:

QUESTIONNAIRE ON READING INTERESTS

I. What type of literature do you like best?
   a. Novel
   b. Short Stories
   c. Drama (Plays)
   d. Poetry
   e. Biography
   f. Travel Stories

II. What type of story do you like best?
   a. Adventure
   b. Sea
   c. Mystery
   d. Love
   e. Animal
   f. Scientific
   g. Character

III. Have you ever read a biography?

IV. Have you ever read a play?

V. Have you ever read a book of poems?

VI. Which do you prefer:
   a. Stories of long ago;
   b. Stories of today.

VII. Which do you prefer, stories in which the chief characters are:
   a. Men
   b. Women

VIII. Which do you prefer to read about:
   a. Boys and girls
   b. Men and women

IX. Which do you prefer:
   a. True stories
   b. Fiction

X. Which do you prefer, stories told in
   a. The first person (I)
   b. The third person (He)

XI. Has it ever happened that you did not read a book which you wanted to read, because you did not like the size of the type?

XII. Who is your favorite author?

XIII. Name three or four writers whose works you like to read.

XIV. Name the last two or three books you have read (excluding those intended for book reports).

XV. Name one or two books you would suggest that the school library buy.

XVI. Do you like love stories?

XVII. Do you like stories written in dialect speech?

XVIII. Have you ever read stories by Horatio Alger, Nick Carter, or Bertha M. Clay?

XIX. Do you still read stories by any of the above named authors?

XX. On an average, how many books do you read each week?

XXI. Will you please indicate your sex.
   Male
   Female

The results are interesting. It was found that the novel is decidedly the most popular type of literature among the boys as well as the girls, seventy-one per cent of the latter preferring it, as compared with fifty-seven per cent of the former. It is interesting to note that travel literature, while little read, is six times as popular among boys as it is among girls. The wanderlust is more commonly found in men than in women. Lowest on the list of preferences stand poetry and biography. Only one girl and only eight boys, a total of only nine out of five hundred, expressed a preference for poetry. These figures attest to the general frankness of the answers, for even high school boys and girls know that to claim a love for poetry is to place one's self in an ethereal plane where dwell the so-called intelligentsia.

Mystery stories are as popular as adventure stories among boys; among girls, they are three times as popular. Sea tales and pseudo-scientific yarns (such as Verne's) hold little allure for girls; the boys cast seven times as many votes for these. It is the boys who hanker to run away to sea, and surely it is not girls who disembowel alarm clocks and typewriters in an effort to invent a perpetual motion machine! It is remarkable, too, that animal stories seem to have lost their charm for the younger generation; they are the choice of only five boys and no girls.

In the case of both boys and girls, over twenty per cent had never read a biography, a play, or a book of poems. (It is important to keep in

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mind that these were first year students and that they were cautioned not to include in any of their answers books read in the regular school courses. Accordingly, these results, based on the books they read voluntarily, indicate the true reading interests of these students).

There is a marked general preference for stories with a modern setting among the girls, but here the boys are evenly divided: Fifty per cent of them like stories of long ago. Is it possible that the hard-headed male is becoming more romantic, or does the explanation lie in the fact that women, as a result of their emancipation, are becoming more practical, more concerned with the problems of the modern world?

From a physiological viewpoint, as well as from the psychological, it is interesting to note that two-thirds of these adolescent girls prefer stories in which the chief characters are females.

While this may seem incomprehensible at first glance, it is without doubt owing to the fact that in modern sex stories, of the "true-story" type particularly, the central character is, inevitably, a female who is the unfortunate victim of an unscrupulous male. Obviously, then, it is not a lack of interest in the opposite sex, nor even an unnatural purity, which causes girls to prefer to read about women. On this question the boys, too, are true to their own sex but, plainly, not for the same reason. Overwhelmingly, by a vote of ninety-five per cent to five per cent, they show themselves to be "reg'lar fellers."

On a question closely allied to the above, namely, whether they prefer to read about grown-ups or children, both sexes by a not very great majority failed to indicate a preference for stories of the "Penrod" and "Pollyanna" type. The vote here was interesting because both sexes cast an almost identical percentage of votes for stories dealing with men and women; the vote was fifty-six per cent in the case of the girls and fifty-eight per cent among the boys. Such preference on the part of adolescents may at first thought seem extraordinary and perhaps unnatural, but when we consider the power of the talkies to stimulate the reading of such grown-up books as "Arrowsmith" and "All Quiet on the Western Front," the shifting of adolescent interest from the perennial favorites is perhaps not so inexplicable.

Is it strange that the *True Story Magazine* has the largest sale of any periodical in the country? Stenographers and sales-girls the nation over devour its contents and weep over the sad, sad tale of Arline Pretty, who succumbed to the wiles of her employer. Girls apparently commence to read this type of literature in their adolescence, for by a vote of two to one the female students indicated their preference for "true" stories. The boys on the other hand, being less inclined to the sentimental, said they would rather read pure fiction. (The difference between ordinary fiction and the so-called true story was made clear beforehand to the students.) Incidentally, the writer has found that, by merely pointing out the fact that nearly all of these sexy revelations and confessions of chorines, stenographers, and "ex-mistresses" are potboilers produced by exceedingly unromantic hack-writers, the ranks of the MeFadden devotees are appreciably depleted, among those particular schoolgirls, at any rate.

Girls like love stories; boys do not. Seventy-two per cent of the former voted for stories of that type, while seventy-four per cent of the latter indicated that they did not take to Mary Roberts Rinehart and her ilk. The explanation lies, probably, in the fact that the female reaches maturation about two years before the male, in the ordinary course of events; hence, a girl of fourteen has already learned to blush while her former playmate, Tommy, of the same age, is still engrossed in his tops and kites. It is not strange, therefore, that the adolescent girl should devour tales of love, an appetite for which the boy adolescent attains somewhat later and which he makes greater efforts to conceal. Quite a problem is presented by this situation, for it is undeniable that most literature of this type is not only trashy but even dangerous; and the choosing of morsels that will appease the newly-awakened curiosity of the adolescent without warping it, is a ticklish problem, to say the least. It is the teacher's task to induce students to read Conrad's "Victory," for instance (which is the story of Axel Heyst's love for Lena), instead of "Week-End Wife" or "Naked on Roller Skates."

A list of the favorite authors and the favorite books of these students offers an interesting study. On the girls' list Louisa May Alcott heads the favorites. It is encouraging to know that the grace and the beauty of the hoople-skirted past have not altogether disappeared and that "Little Women" is just as popular today as it was in the 90's. Arthur Conan Doyle (second on the girls' list) is first choice with the boys. High school students are at the detective story stage and so Doyle's popularity is quite understandable. It is interesting to note, however, that S. S. Van Dine, for all his popularity, has not been able to displace the veteran Doyle in the hearts of young readers. Detective fiction is most decidedly the chosen pabulum of adolescents, for the late Edgar Wallace stands second only to Doyle, in the hearts of the girls.

The boys show better taste than the girls in their next choice, for they indicate a liking for Mark Twain, while the girls list Zane Grey. Undoubtedly, the fact that "Tom Sawyer" has recently been in the movies is somewhat responsible for that author's popularity. Other favorite authors on the boys' list, in the order of popularity, are: Jack London, H. G. Wells, Edgar Rice Burroughs, Rudyard Kipling, Sax Rohmer and R. L. Stevenson. On the girls' list we find O. Henry, Mark Twain, Booth Tarkington, and Dumas —so far a most encouraging list—but what about the others? What about Burroughs, Sax Rohmer and (ye Gods!) Mae West? Are the Tarzan

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stories fit company for "White Fang," "The Time Machine," "Stalky and Co.," and "Kidnaped?" Is it right that the Fu Manchu stories should rank with "The Four Million," "Huckleberry Finn," "Penrod," and "The Three Musketeers?" Certainly it is a sad state of affairs when "Diamond Lil" sets herself up as a writer and is so far successful in the hoax that she is listed side by side with Dumas as a favorite author by high school students! There is surely need for elevating of taste here and it would not be a very difficult task for the teacher by a comparison and a *reductio ad absurdem* to show Sax Rohmer's utter lack of originality, or Edgar Rice Burroughs' lack of technique, or Mae West's stupid coarseness and her inability to "see life steadily and to see it whole."

The list of favorite books is revealing, too. That "Arrowsmith" heads the list in both cases is not so much owing to the fact that Sinclair Lewis was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature, as that it was one of the outstanding talkies of the last two or three years. The power of the cinema to stimulate the reading of good books as well as trashy ones must not be underestimated. If only film magnates would *always* buy the movie rights of such stories as those of Edna Ferber and Louis Bromfield instead of stories with such insane titles (and even worse plots!) as "Working Girls" and "Sally of the Subway."

Particularly on the boys' list is the influence of the movies plainly visible. Sixty-five per cent of the books on the list of outstanding favorites have been made into movies within the few years. For example, we find "All Quiet on the Western Front," "Sherlock Holmes," and "Arsène Lupin" high on the list, and all three of these books are favored by the girls, as well. Without doubt, the students read these books only because they had first seen them on the screen of the local movie house. "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" (and this no doubt chiefly accounts for Stevenson's placing on the list of favorite authors), of movie fame, was indicated as a favorite by both boys and girls. Unquestionably, then, the movie men are molders of reading tastes. Accordingly, the English teacher must give due recognition to this powerful influence; it will not do to dismiss the movies with contempt. Rather, it is far wiser to spend twenty minutes or a half hour each week discussing current films and advising students as to which ones are worth seeing.

On both lists, there is a curious mingling of classics with contemporary fiction of indeterminate value and in many cases, of a positively trashy nature. Rex Beach's "The Spoilers" stands next to the very austere "Little Women," and "Beauty for Sale" rubs elbows with "Seventeen," the classic study of adolescent psychology. Furthermore, approximately fifty per cent of the questionnaires yielded the information that the students answering them have not yet passed the Horatio Alger and Nick Carter stage. Finally,

it was found that while boys read more than girls (the weekly average for boys being three and nine-sixteenths books as compared with two and a third for the girls) they all read more than most grown-ups. A possible explanation may lie in the fact that they skim over books rapidly, being already familiar with the plot from having seen the movie version.

At any rate, what can the English teacher glean from this welter of information which might help him in his attempt to deal with the problem of outside reading? Is there any ammunition here for the battle which he is constantly waging to improve the students' taste in literature?

The students undeniably read enough. The problem is to make them read better books, even at the expense of quantity. Certainly, Stevenson's "Kidnaped" will supply more mental nourishment than half a dozen Nick Carter's.

The first problem is to wean them from the paper-backed thrillers. This is best accomplished by a comparison of these novels with one another to bring out their fundamental sameness and inanity. This might be followed by a comparison of the hero (say Frank Merriwell) of one of these series with any ordinary human being, to bring out the cardboard nature of the characters and the total lack of real-life situations in the stories. Finally, a comparison of any one of these stories with a vastly superior one, such as "Penrod," is usually enough to bring students to the realization that perhaps there are better stories than the ones they have been gorging themselves with. That is the starting point. From then on the teacher can proceed to build up.

The correct procedure, of course, is to give the student what he likes. It would be futile to cram Scott down the throat of a boy whose favorite authors are Nick Carter, Edgar Wallace and Edgar Rice Burroughs. Since the investigation has shown that boys and girls in the first year of the high school are particularly interested in mystery stories, the teacher must give them mystery stories. Nothing else will do at this stage. However, instead of the "Old Sleuth" stories, the student must be led to read detective tales of greater merit. It may be necessary to make the change slowly, but, at any rate, finally the detective story addict should be wasting his time on Doyle, or LeBlanc, or any of the other recognized masters of that art.

Since students love adventure stories, why can not tales such as "Jim Davis," "Captains Courageous" or the Jack London stories be read instead of the Tom Swift series? If the boy knows he will get just as many hair-raising adventures in the one as in the other, he would just as soon read "The Time Machine" as "Tarzan of the Apes."

Since girls commence to read love stories with their "coming of age," no attempt must be made to deprive them of this fare. Instead, "Ex-Mistress" and "Week-End Wife" must be supplanted (at first) by somewhat less

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coarse books, such as those by Robert W. Chambers. Girls should be led to read better magazines than *True Stories* or *I Confess*. *Cosmopolitan* and *Collier's*, while not on a highly intellectual plane, are far less dangerous periodicals than either of the above two.

In attacking the problem, the power of the movies must not be over-looked. The writer wishes to emphasize this point again. The silver screen, as well as the radio, is a colossal force which educators must not fail to recognize.

The "elevating" must be done, then, slowly, gradually. It must be based on the likes and dislikes of the student. It must take into consideration the difference in taste that exist between the sexes. The advantages of modern civilization should be utilized. These, at any rate, are possible means by which the English teacher can hope to effect an improvement of the literary tastes and standards of his first year high school students.

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SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SCIENCE TEACHER

UNDENIABLY, great strides have been made in the various fields of science; the greatest, in so far as the progress of society is concerned, in the biological sciences. Perhaps it may seem paradoxical to state that man, a product of evolution, has been directing the course of evolution in his immediate world in an unparalled way during the last few decades. Forests, plant life, and insect worlds have been literally produced and trained by man.

Our human activities are effectually altering the face of nature. Often these alterations are disorganized and harmful. For example, the gypsy moth was consciously introduced into America presumably for beneficial purposes. Once introduced, these moths multiplied out of bounds and savagely attacked our shade trees until our forests were almost devastated.

Another example of man's disorderly interference in the balance of nature occurred when a piece of Canadian water weed was unwittingly dropped into British waters. For a decade after that the British waterways were blocked with an overgrowth of these weeds. Moreover, civilization has been the direct cause of the dissemination of world-wide plagues. Improved transportation made it possible for the ubiquitous rat to carry the bubonic plague all over the world. Civilization spread syphilis to America in 1492; it spread sleeping sickness throughout Africa and by its refuge in tremendous urban centers it has provided a rich medium for the growth of contagious disease.

Everywhere man is directing evolution. We introduce new species; exterminate others; are responsible for modifying different species. We provide parasites for those species which are undesirable to us. We diligently destroy the carnivores that prey upon our domestic animals, the hawks and snakes that destroy our domestic fowl and soon find that we have removed the means whereby the boundless multiplication of the rodents, man's keenest vertebrate competitor, is restrained. Man bungles; man achieves! We produce hardier goats, cows giving richer milk, better egg-laying hens. We have even produced a pig so fat that its lard melts in the warm sun! In short man has done relatively more in his few thousand years in changing the face of the earth than nature has evolutionally achieved in millions of years!

The means employed to do this have been various. Especially prominent has been the process of selective breeding which has grown to a definite science within our own life spans. And the school which should so delicately reflect the progress of science for society has been qualifiedly guilty of its greatest fault and most rationalistic conservatism. It has remained largely fetter-bound to tradition. From a healthy skepticism to innovation, it has degenerated, in many cases, to dogmatic recalcitrance. That mighty god "Tradition" makes us tread so warily. It is true that the curriculum has found place for genetics *per se* but genetics *per se* is essentially the business of the experimenter in genetics. The job of the school, rather, is to present to the student a social interpretation of genetics with all its social implications and ramifications. Biology is an organ employed by the school and society to orient the student organisms to a rational "society consciousness" with an understanding of the socio-biological obligations of the individual organism to society.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that societal structure is basically biologic structure. Just as our individual bodies are composed of cells, tissues, organs, and organ systems so society may be likened to an organism where the individuals are cells, where similar such cells grouped together for special functions become tissues, and such tissue specializations may become organs. Just such an organ of the organism, "society" is the school, made up of its specialized cells each cooperating towards a definite function —the enrichment and preservation of the organism—society. The analogy is not a mere poetic fancy. Any cross-section of society will reveal these tissues, exhibited in the different occupational groups of society. Just as in the body each cell must provide for its own existence, so each individual must provide for his own existence. Yet, if we examine each case carefully, we cannot but find that in each case the individual's existence is inextricably bound up with its coexistent cells, which coördinated present the organism, society. It is obvious that in such an organism the school must act as the nervous system, receiving the stimuli, integrating them and directing the responses through the upper level to-

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ward the enhancement of the organism's welfare.

For that reason it is actually imperative that each student, as an integral part of society, be afforded the means whereby he can gain a basic understanding of society. That can best be done through a sociological treatment of biology. This involves a meta-basis from cosmic biology, i.e., man as one organism among millions, to anthropocentric biology, i.e., a study of man, considering the rest of the animate world only insofar as it affects man.

From a comparative study of the curriculum elements offered in secondary school biology for the years 1920-1934, which I have just completed, I found several discouraging things. It appears that in spite of the tremendous advance made in genetics, the bulk of the material offered by the high school biology course is somewhat disproportionate. For example, those students taking only one year of biology do not get even an elementary treatment of genetics and eugenics. The apparent justification for this course is the plea that if it is taught in Elementary Biology there will be duplication in Advanced Biology. Surely a subject of the vast importance and sweep of genetics can offer sufficient material to interest students for more than three or four weeks. How are we to expect intelligent evaluations of social movements unless we provide the background for such evaluation? For example, two such movements are prominent now: the Birth Control Movement and the Sterilization Movement. It is not generally known, but several of the states in the United States have had sterilization laws for the past fifteen years. The recent Hitlerian decrees on sterilization have excited much comment. G. B. Shaw, that bad biologist, fairly outdoes himself in a pertinent comment on Hitler's decrees concerning pure Aryanism. He says, in effect, that in the first place there is no such thing as pure Aryanism and secondly, that if there were, the Hitlerian policy of close inbreeding is biologically unsound. Germanic diplomacy presents an example of what a lack of understanding of biological phenomena can do!

Now let us examine that genetics which is taught. Much of the utility of teaching genetics and eugenics is lost when we do not add its necessary concomitant psychology, i.e., why study the inheritance of traits without a proper understanding of those traits we inherit? Before mankind can seriously attempt to guide its own evolution there must be a thorough understanding of genetics, physical biology and psychology, i.e., method of inheritance, physical traits, mental traits.

The high school curriculum largely overlooks psychology. Where can there be a better introduction to psychology than in a discussion of the nervous system? Can we consider as justifiable a discussion of the nervous system without dealing with its application to the external world? This in effect is psychology. Moreover, certain anthropological considerations are important for a proper understanding of societal structure. The racial problem has been a cause of catastrophic controversy throughout the ages. Biology is incomplete without a treatment of this topic.

Let me add one more point. In all the city-wide Biology curricula which I examined (this is especially true for elementary biology) I found a most judicious "side-stepping" of the problem of sex education. This is as deplorable as it is necessary. It is not meet for me to develop the topic of sex education—let it suffice that I have pointed out the inadequacy of its present treatment in the syllabus.

The secondary biology curriculum of the future will include as an important phase of its work a unit on social evolution. This should represent the culmination of any biology course, i.e., the application of biological principles to life in society. It will have an adequate section on genetics so as to provide an understanding of the inheritance of socially desirable traits. Individual then social psychology will be proportionately reflected in the course. In effect, the future biology course in secondary schools will be more properly entitled "Biology and Civilization." It will represent a biological interpretation of history and social problems; it will serve as a unifying influence, the fulcrum for the study on the one side of the social sciences and language, on the other side the pure sciences. Elementary Biology will be thus. Advanced Biology will more nearly approximate the pure sciences. To justify its place in the curriculum biology must adopt these modifications. Unless this happens, the force of social pressure will crowd biology out of the picture as a course in its own right. If it becomes merely, as is the trend, a source of immediate utility, a catalogue of facts, without presenting a thetic system wherewith the student can effectate a true "social consciousness," it will degenerate rapidly. The theory of immediate utility upon which is founded such weeds as the heterogenous "general" courses, especially in science, must fail by virtue of the factor which created its being. Immediate utility founders on the brink of the future; it is ephemeral, changeable and therefore perishable.

The crystallization of societal thought postulates the future curricular tetrad of Biology. From an introductory cosmic treatment of Biology we must devolve a socio-anthropocentric interpretation, graphically expressed, we have:

Cosmic { Structural, Functional, Psychological, Evolutionary } Socio-Anthropocentric

Mans' indisputable gregariousness demands a sociocentric treatment of man.

WILLIAM BERMAN.
James Madison High School.

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THOUGHTS ON THOUGHTS OR "PELION ON OSSA": A REPLY TO MR. JACKSON'S ARTICLE, "THOUGHTS PROVOKED BY READING MR. ROSENTHAL'S ARTICLE" [1]

SINCE proverbs are the fashion, let me begin by a few sayings: "The devil can quote Scripture"; "Qui s'excuse, s'accuse."

I quite admit that it is true that when two people say the same thing, it is not the same thing. It is quite too bad that Mr. Jackson does not realize that when Mr. Jackson refutes me, he says precisely the thing that I said in my article in HIGH POINTS of January 1934. It is also too bad that "*Straw Men,*" like Frankenstein, have a habit of coming to life. I regret exceedingly that Mr. Jackson plays Pygmalion to "*Straw Men*"; he might have served a better cause.

"*Straw Man No.* 1." If Mr. Jackson will add the words "to read" to "one learns," he will find that what I have said and what he quotes from the syllabus in refutation of my statement, mean one and the same thing. I still doubt that the process of learning to *read* a foreign language involves the same mental processes as learning to read one's native language. I am unregenerate and unconvinced.

"*Straw Man No.* 2." I am quite aware of the fact that the syllabus does not eschew the thumbing of a lexicon. However, by direct implication, it does deprecate the use thereof.

As for the constant vocabulary drill suggested, in the syllabus, I am, in general, in full accord. However, I don't feel that multiple choice sentences and questions, true and false statements, have any validity in the matter of drill, and if I may judge from Mr. Jackson's very well presented talk on tests before the chairmen of modern languages, I don't believe that he himself approves of these very methods.

Parenthetically, let me say here and now, and unabashedly, that I am not afraid to urge the constant thumbing of a dictionary. I do it in my reading in English, and I confess without any desire for a "peccavi absolve" that I actually learnt German by assiduously thumbing the various dictionaries that I possess. Must I be sentenced to purgatory?

"*Straw Man No.* 3." It is quite true that the syllabus innocently appears to place no undue emphasis upon cognates, and that it even warns the pupils that cognates sometimes have a somewhat different meaning from the corresponding one in English. "But by their works ye shall know them." How often have I in conference assembled heard various people urge their study; if cognates were not to be emphasized, why should "*réprimander*" be substituted for "*gronder,*" and "*funérailles*" for "*enterrement*"? Why too, should so many of the new texts place such an emphasis upon cognates and often an incorrect emphasis? Let me quote the following from a text we are using in our first term:

"—Georges, Georges," cria Henri à Georges.

"Les américains crient "Au revoir."

Unfortunately "crier," means "shout" and can only mean "shout." The use of the cognate as "cry out" is completely misleading. The expression here should have been "s'écrier."

"Et," continue-t-il, "j'aime beaucoup les amis d'Armand."

Again, the use of the word "*continuer*" is completely misleading. The French do not use "*continuer*" in this connotation. And similarly "*commencer.*"

"Ils montent dans l'ascenseur au premier étage" Obviously here the cognate is "*mount,*" but isn't this, too, misleading to the pupil? You may mount to the first floor in French, but not in English. As a matter of fact, the connotation "mount" in French applies only to mounting a horse or a hobby.

"Ils regardent une belle rivière" (la Seine). It's just too bad that the Seine is a "fleuve" and not a "rivière."

I might add that the text in question, in its attempt to make things easy for the student in reading, is full of errors in French. Of course these can be corrected without destroying the simplicity of the book, but if reading is to be made a passive process, why teach errors passively?

Last, but not least, why, oh why, did Mr. Jackson write his charming ditty in a recent number of HIGH POINTS?[2] He almost converted me to the idea that German is English. But, sad to relate, I am unregenerate and unconvinced; a cognate's a cognate for a' that.

"*Straw Man No.* 4." Not being blind, I realize that the syllabus does not bar translation. But what a casuistic use of the word "bar." Mr. Jackson says it is opposed to the undue or exclusive use of translation, and indicates many other ways to test knowledge of content of a book. I too, am opposed to the *exclusive use* of translation. But pray tell, what is the undue use? After all, if we are defining terms, let's define them. The very first lines of the division on translation proves what I mean: "In our aim, where the chief objective is to develop the ability to read the foreign language with comprehension and enjoyment, it is obvious that by ability to read is meant the power to understand the reading material without resorting to translation. Yet this does not imply that translation is to be banished entirely in achieving our end. Since our

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[1] In HIGH POINTS for April, 1934, page 41, written in reply to Mr. Rosenthal's article, "Thoughts Provoked by the Reading Syllabus in Modern Languages," HIGH POINTS for January, 1934, page 63.

With the publication of the present article and the reply hereinafter made by Mr. Jackson this polemical exchange is concluded.—EDITOR.

[2] "German is English"; HIGH POINTS, January, 1934; page 49.

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fundamental problem is to substitute for the pupil's accustomed meaning-carriers those used by the people who use the language in question, there is no reason why the English word should not be utilized as a secure basis for comprehension of the foreign word (*Sic*). It is certain that translation definitely associates the foreign with the native expression; but continued use of translation prevents the ultimate direct connection between the foreign word and meaning. (Why?) The native word remains ever present, instead of retiring as soon as the meaning is grasped." (Really?)

Let me say here that from my own experience and from the experience of linguistically qualified people with whom I have spoken, that the first step in learning to read a foreign language is actually and definitely the translation of that language, into the vernacular and vice versa. And here, I wish to relate in illustration of all these points the following incident: In one of the high schools of this city, the teachers gave a passage in French which was to be handled as follows:

1. The pupils were to answer various questions in French on the text.

2. They were then to translate the text into English. In the matter of answering the questions, the results were brilliant; in the matter of the translation, the result in most cases was sheer nonsense. What does this indicate as to comprehension?

Here again, let me confess, I believe in reading and I believe in translation. Translation gives us the finesses and nuances of two languages. Why shouldn't we be frank with ourselves and use it? How, for example, can the so-called comprehension ability to read convey the meaning of such expressions as: "Passer devant une maison"; "Rentrer dans son argent"; "Finir par faire quelque chose"; "Se demander"; "Kommen Sie gut nach Hause"; "Es kommt mir vor"; "An einem Haus vorbeigehem"; "Me gusta esto"; "Acabar de."

How to bring out the triple meaning of "sortir," "entrer," "monter"? How can we make a pupil of Spanish distinguish between "se" (reflexive) and "se" (the equivalent of "le")? Are cases like these merely a recognitional process to be applied from case to case? I am afraid that we really have here matter for serious thought, and that we cannot dismiss the subject with the *ipse dixit* of a syllabus or of a pedagogical philosophy.

The pupil who comes upon these expressions in the text may have a vague glimmer as to what they mean; but does he actually know the meaning if he cannot express the thought in English. The teacher has only to call for an accurate rendering of these expressions into English, and he will realize how disastrous the results can be.

"*Straw Man No. 4.*" I am quite willing to concede that Mr. Jackson is correct in assuming that my thought was confused when he quotes me as follows: "It is felt that a minimum of grammar should be taught, and that *only recognitional grammar*, and that there should be an *active* and a *passive* grammar." Perhaps my thought would have been clearer, had I reversed the clauses and said in addition that the emphasis should be placed on recognitional or passive grammar. As a matter of fact my statements are not mutually contradictory, and are not a perversion of what the syllabus actually says. A careful comparison of my statement with Mr. Jackson's refutation will prove my contention. Moreover, what does the following mean, if not that active grammar should, for the most part, be eschewed? "Grammatical phenomena have importance *only* [italics mine] as contributing to comprehension."[3]

I strongly suspect that Mr. Jackson is guilty of loose thinking when he states that a pupil will have no difficulty with the sentence: "Je viens de parler à l'homme que connaît votre père"; that the student will have no trouble with "que," if he possesses a passive knowledge that *qui* is the subject form of the relative pronoun, and *que*, the object form. Passive knowledge? How does he draw the distinction between passive and active here? To know the difference, one must be able to apply it. Most pupils, I confess, are unable to cope with this construction. But they can handle it after it has been explained to them, and after they have been drilled upon it. Again, let me ask, is this *active* or *passive*?

[3] Syllabus, page 7.

With respect to Mr. Jackson's final statement: "If the pupil's passive knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and idiom were not always far ahead of his active knowledge, he would never be able to read with understanding a single sentence more difficult than he himself could construct." I am inclined to agree with this, but this principle invalidates in no way the point of my argument. Comprehension in a foreign language is an art that we can only slowly and with the utmost difficulty acquire. Indeed, to reach the stage outlined in Mr. Jackson's statement, we must have an active practice of grammar, vocabulary and idiom. Only thus, can we bring a knowledge of a foreign language to the point where reactions are purely instinctive, or, if you wish, passive. The principle set forth by Mr. Jackson is incontrovertible. We are at odds only as to the means to be used in attaining the ideal set forth in it.

And now, my credo: give the pupil something definite and require from him something definite and he will be intellectually honest. If we don't let him know what he is doing and why he is doing it, he will fool us and make us believe that he understands when he only pretends that he understands. We teachers are great self-convincers, and we like to believe that a fine façade can take the place of good construction.

DANIEL C. ROSENTHAL,
James Monroe High School.

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MORE ABOUT STRAW MEN, OR, SCRATCH A VOCABLE AND YOU'LL FIND A COGNATE

THERE is a Chinese proverb (or at least there ought to be) which reads:

Stuff a straw man as you will,
He remains a straw man still.

So it is with Mr. Rosenthal's straw men, set up in his first article on the Reading Syllabus[1] and stuffed with a lot of additional straw, or maybe chaff, in his latest "Thoughts on Thoughts." Neither Pygmalion nor anyone else could breathe life into these straw men, although any experienced teacher who has read the syllabus with care can easily knock the stuffings out of them. In fact, this has been done so thoroughly by Miss Farquhar in the May issue of HIGH POINTS[2] that little remains for me to do except to assist at the *funerailles*, or shall I say *enterrement?*

Schopenhauer, in one of his essays, suggests some nasty methods to be used in overcoming a difficult opponent. The substance of his final admonition is as follows: If after using all these methods you find yourself cornered, say to your opponent, "Why, that's just what I've been saying all along." I don't know whether Mr. Rosenthal had this advice of Schopenhauer in mind when he wrote "that Mr. Jackson does not realize that when Mr. Jackson refutes me he says precisely the thing that I said in my article in HIGH POINTS of January, 1934." If I said *precisely the same thing*, why this new article by Mr. Rosenthal to show that I was all wrong? At any rate, he commits the disastrous error of using Schopenhauer's method at the very beginning of his attempted rebuttal, instead of as a last resort, as the great philosopher recommends.

In his desparate attempt to defend some of the statements he made in his original article, Mr. Rosenthal uses rather dubious methods. For example, he wants me to add the words "to read" to his statement that the new syllabus is based upon the "primary assumption that one learns a foreign language more or less in the same way that one learns one's native language." As an old friend of Mr. Rosenthal I gladly do that. But the fact remains that his *original* statement was entirely wrong, and it is pleasing to see that he admits it.

The syllabus clearly states: "It has been definitely established that a foreign language can be *read* in a manner directly comparable to the reading of the mother tongue." It does not ignore the implications of this statement and *does* recommend many of the devices used for teaching reading in the vernacular. These devices are being used successfully and effectively in thousands of classrooms. The syllabus likewise recommends methods (including translation) applicable only to the teaching of reading in foreign languages. It purposely under-emphasizes translation. As translation is the course of least resistance, the easiest method of teaching (or rather attempting to teach) reading, there is no danger that teachers will abandon it entirely.

I do not think Mr. Rosenthal should be sentenced to purgatory because, as he confesses, he learned German by thumbing the dictionary. If he used this method, he has already been punished enough on earth, or as Schiller would put it, "Strafe genug ist sein entsetzlich *Daumwerk*." Since confession seems to be in order, I wish to state unabashedly that I built up my vocabulary and reading ability in French by reading French texts with the aid of English translations, in about one-tenth of the time it would have taken me to get equal results by dictionary thumbing.

Those treacherous cognates still seem to be Mr. Rosenthal's *bête-noire*. He cannot deny that the syllabus places no undue stress on them, so he now bases his charges of excessive emphasis on the fact that he has "in conference assembled heard various people urge their study." Mr. Rosenthal's original article was called "Thoughts Provoked by the *Reading Syllabus in Modern Languages*." I see now that he wishes us to add the words "and by What I Have Heard Various People Say in Conference Assembled."

After reading the terrible mistakes resulting from a misunderstanding of cognates, I feel certain that the syllabus has erred in not placing a far greater emphasis on their study. Not only the study of obvious or seemingly obvious cognates should have been more strongly urged, but also that of the more recondite ones, which we might call for convenience *Cognates Incognito*. For after all, if some of our innocent students of French traveling in Paris should enter a house of ill fame when they thought they were visiting a school of social forms, just because they misunderstood the word *Déportments*, neither the teachers of French nor the writers of the syllabus would ever be able to forgive themselves.

Incidentally, it was rather nice of Mr. Rosenthal to designate my little doggerel illustrating the prevalence of German cognates in English[3] a "charming ditty." It goes to show that under certain circumstances cognates have charms to soothe the savage breast of even so intransigeant an opponent as Mr. Rosenthal. I found Mr. Rosenthal's poem[4] "Die Schenste Lenckwech"—I was going to say *charmant*, but knowing now the dangerous meanings that lurk in some of these innocent looking French cognates, I shall simply say—charming.

[1] See HIGH POINTS for January, 1934, page 63; also see rejoinder thereto by Mr. Jackson in the issue of April, 1934; page 41.—EDITOR.

[2] Page 44.

[3] HIGH POINTS for January, 1934; page 49.

[4] HIGH POINTS for May, 1934; page 47.

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Mr. Rosenthal's further comments on translation need no rejoinder on my part. I again refer him to Miss Farquhar's article, where he will find his answer in as clear and scholarly a statement as I have had the pleasure of reading in many a day.

Mr. Rosenthal concedes that his thought was confused when he wrote concerning the syllabus:

"It is felt that a minimum of grammar should be taught, *and that only recognitional grammer,*[5] and that there should be as *active*[5] and a *passive*[5] grammar."

He suggests, however, that the thought would perhaps have been clearer had he reversed the clauses and said in addition "that the emphasis should be placed on recognitional or passive grammar." As one who has for years been disentangling the subordinate clauses of students attempting to use German actively, I succeeded in carrying out his suggestion. Here is the result of the inversion plus the new clause:

It is felt that there should be an active and a passive grammar, that a minimum of grammar should be taught, and that *only*[5] recognitional grammar, and that the *emphasis*[5] should be placed on recognitional or passive grammar.

Mr. Rosenthal denies that his original sentence contained statements mutually contradictory. Well, the suggested inversion and the addition of his new clause have made the contradiction so obvious that even he may now recognize it. If only recognitional grammar is recommended by the syllabus, why the clause that recognitional grammar should be *emphasized*? Emphasized in relation to what?

Why doesn't Mr. Rosenthal make a careful study of Miss Sarah Wolfson's article in the April issue of HIGH POINTS,[6] "A One-Year Experiment with a Reading Method in French"? He may by doing so clear up some of his confused notions about active and passive grammar. I should also suggest that he read the "Detailed Syllabus of Minima," pages 66 to 104, where he will find, term by term, what the syllabus recommends in the way of *active* grammar.

Mr. Rosenthal is compelled to admit as "incontrovertible" my final statement:

"If the pupil's passive knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and idiom were not always far ahead of his active knowledge, he would never be able to read with understanding a single sentence more difficult than he himself could construct."

He does this very grudgingly, it is true, for he is only "inclined to agree" with the "incontrovertible" principle set forth. Moreover, he attempts to dodge the inescapable implications of his admission by inventing an entirely new definition for *passive knowledge*. Passive reactions are now defined by him as *purely instinctive*, and result from active drill. But this new definition cannot help him. Passive knowledge is synonymous with recognitional. It is attainable without grinding grammatical drill and translation of English sentences into the foreign language. *If passive or recognitional knowledge were attainable only through active practice of grammar, vocabulary and idiom, it could never exceed active knowledge*, and the principle which Mr. Rosenthal admits is incontrovertible would be controverted.

In conclusion, let me state that Mr. Rosenthal, in his interpretation of the syllabus, is one of those who *damnunt quod non intelligunt*. I could say this just as well in English, but having studied Latin some six years, and having done (i.e. translated after a fashion) endless English sentences into Latin, and reams of Caesar, Cicero, Vergil, Ovid, Horace, Livy *et al.* into English, without ever having acquired the ability to read these worthy gentlemen in their native tongue, I feel that the least reward to which I am entitled for my work is the right to use a Latin quotation now and then.

EUGENE JACKSON.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

[5] Italics are mine.

[6] Page 32.

A HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL LOOKS AT HEALTH EDUCATION*

ONE of the great problems confronting the high schools today, in fact all grades of education, is the integration of all the school activities in terms of a unified purpose. We are beginning to realize the disadvantages of an elective system running riot, and we are realizing more and more the necessity for agreeing upon a definite goal in terms of the kind of man and woman the boy and girl is to be, rather than in terms of an aggregation of credits representing smatterings of information and scatterings of experiences.

Whatever that agreed-upon goal is to be—and there is no time now to discuss that goal—you teachers of Health Education have a very important part to play in achieving it and in aiding in the unification of outcome.

Man is a duality, body and spirit made one by a harmony of the objectives of both phases of his nature. His body is in great measure developed by the spirit that controls him. His spirit is very much conditioned by the body that houses it. You teachers of Health Education, above all other teachers, can do much in the unification of these two natures of Man because you, of necessity, constantly deal with both. The average classroom teacher is primarily interested in matters of the spirit and has the tendency to neglect, and frequently actually does neglect, the bodily phase of the student entirely. In the past many of you have displayed the opposite tendency

* An address before teachers of Health Education.

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and have looked upon your pupils purely from the physical standpoint. That is just as great an error and leads to just as great disharmony as does the neglect of the body on the part of the teachers in other branches. That neglect you have already somewhat overcome. Your new attitude toward your pupils, looking upon them as individuals to be developed into self-directed leaders and intelligent followers rather than as so much slavish flesh and muscle there to obey your commands, is a great step in advance.

In a sense you are architects whose business it is to build temples containing part of the great divine spirit. Just as the great architects and artists of the past gave of their best in designing, constructing, and beautifying the temples, the great cathedrals that were to represent Man's greatest spirit of reverence, so you must build not merely beautiful, efficient bodies, but you must adorn them with a spiritual lamp that will shine through that body and give evidence that here also is a temple that houses something that is holy.

To be more concrete: the old conception of the teacher of Physical Training was that he or she was a teacher of rather limited education, strong and supple of body, who knew how to discover nits in the hair of the girls, who could detect certain signs of disease, who could put boys and girls through certain stunts that did, or were supposed to, develop particular muscles, and, above all, with the boys, to develop teams that would bring something called glory to a school. The present teacher of Health Education is a far different person. He and she must still be detectors of disease signs, must still know how to correct this or that physical defect, must still be masters in devising physical activities that will bring about a proper physical development, but he and she must above all be teachers that have a unified goal constantly in view, a goal in which all these other steps are not important in themselves but merely the means to an end. The big function of the teacher of Health Education, as I see it from my point of view as principal of a high school, is to inspire our boys and girls with ideals of the spirit which can only be achieved, or achieved to a better degree, by means of a body that is clean and strong and healthy, and as beautiful as it can be made. Once inspire our pupils with such ideals and the rest is merely a matter of demonstration, explanation and practice. Once inspire our pupils with such ideals and the physical phases of the work of the teacher of Health Education will be apparent in other classrooms, in the corridors, in the street, and not merely for a limited period in a gymnasium. Once inspire our pupils with such ideals and the results of the teaching of the department of Health Education will last for life and not for but a few school years.

What a difference it will make if our boys and girls realize that they should have healthy, strong, supple, clean, beautiful bodies because such bodies will be needed by them to do the wonderful things that they might do in this great world of ours instead of having these pupils leave us with the idea that one must attend to one's teeth to avoid toothache or to prevent the withholding of a diploma. What a tremendous influence you teachers of Health Education can be on the character development side when your boys and girls realize that they must learn to protect their bodies against contamination not from the selfish standpoint of safety first, but rather because there are such wonderful things for them to do that it is foolish to handicap such doing by having a weak body as an obstacle. How much you teachers of Health Education can do to develop self-respect by inspiring your boys and girls with the idea that their body is a temple made holy by something divine housed within it. Once inspired by this ideal and our girls will not permit themselves to be on a 5 and 10c counter, to be pawed over by every Tom, Dick and Harry, but will keep themselves in a Tiffany glass case. Once inspired by this ideal and our boys will eschew dirty habits that desecrate the holy temple.

You teachers of Health Education should be and can be the energizing force that will make itself felt in every phase of school activity. You can be part of that process of unification that will make every boy and girl who leaves us sure of one thing—that he has a spirit that is sacred, that was put into the world to shine with the best possible light, and that his body is but the housing of that beacon light, to be kept as clean and beautiful as befits a temple of God.

HENRY E. HEIN,
Principal.
James Monroe High School.

HIGH POINTS

The Secondary Schools Council of The United Parents Association

About two years ago the Secondary Schools Council of the United Parents Associations came into existence. Since then meetings have been held monthly by the Executive Board in conjunction with a parent and teacher representative from every high school in New York City which has a Parents Association or which is interested in organizing one. As a result, a clearing house has been provided for the exchange of ideas, aims, and programs connected with Parents' Associations in our schools.

As an example of the kind of meetings that are being held, the following extract from the minutes of the meeting of February 21, 1934, is provided so that all those who are connected with the secondary schools in New York City may learn at first hand about the good work that is being done.

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Attention is particularly called to the report of Mrs. S. P. Ward, the Organization Chairman of the Secondary Schools Council. In Mrs. Ward the council has one of the United Parents Association's most indefatigable workers, one who has been intimately connected with Parents' Associations in the elementary schools and who has been connected with what may perhaps be considered the first parents association in a senior high school, a model of its kind, at the Girls High School.

MRS. WARD'S REPORT

"What is a parents' association? It is a common meeting ground where parents (by parents I mean fathers and mothers, or parents and teachers) may meet for the consideration, discussion, and promotion of those things that affect the welfare of the growing child. The ideal association has not yet been evolved but there is evidence of good healthy growth among existing ones; and the movement is still very young.

"There can be no rule other than a decidedly 'sliding' one for organizing parents associations. Much depends upon the personnel and quality of leadership — personality, educational background, or experience, ability to get along with others, executive ability, enthusiasm, courage, and vision. Each is an important factor in leadership.

"It is essential that those promoting the organization of a parents' association be thoroughly convinced of the need for it themselves or they will not be able to interest others in the project; hence it is well to establish this point first. Is there a need for a parents' association in our school? What arguments, if any, are there against the formation of one?

"*Some of the initial steps that have been taken in organizing parents associations in high school have been as follows:*

1. "When the idea is first presented by interested parents, the initial step is for them to ask for the permission and the coöperation of the principal to call a meeting of a small group of possibly twenty or thirty parents and teachers who are known to be interested in the principles of the movement. This group is to serve temporarily as an 'Organization Committee,' with a general chairman either appointed by the principal or elected by the committee. The duties of the committee would be to serve during the process of the organization of an association until the election of officers.

"Plans for a general meeting should be made by it.

"In a small school, all parents may be invited to such a meeting. In a larger school it is more practical to work with those parents of one or more divisions at a time. The most fruitful field is that of the first or Freshman Division where the response is always encouraging.

2. "When initial steps are taken by the school, the principal may appoint representatives of the faculty to meet with a group of such parents as he may have had some contact with. If his contacts have been limited, lists of interested parents can always be secured from other members of the faculty, particularly from grade advisers or others, who, because of the nature of their work, have a close contact with the students. The procedure can then form along the lines of suggestion number 1.

3. "The formation of small discussion groups for the development of group thinking among parents can form the nucleus for a splendid parents' association. Such groups choose two of their members for training in leadership in a course sponsored by the United Parents Associations and Columbia University at the Child Development Institute. There is no fee for this training. It is a service free to affiliated members of the United Parents Association. A practical way to start a group is for the principal to call a meeting of the parents of the Freshman Division, including in his program plans for a speaker on discussion groups. If the enrollment warrants, more than one group can be formed. Such a plan would, of course, require the coöperation of the United Parents Associations from the start.

Types of Parents' Associations

"Among various types of parents' organizations there are three that are particularly outstanding. *First:* Those Associations organized and dominated more or less by members of the faculty. Such organizations usually have a large membership and attendance. *Second:* Those associations organized and dominated more or less by parents. Such organizations usually carry out a more or less intensive program of parental education. (Do not confuse parental education with adult education of which parental education is but one phase.) *Three:* Those associations which, from the start, have the active and general participation of the parents with the sympathetic and active coöperation of the faculty.

"Various forms of organizations of parents have been established in different high schools to meet specific needs of the students. The fact that the needs exist and are recognized furnishes sufficient grounds for the establishment of some organization to cope with them; but should such projects be or become the primary meaning of a parents' organization? I can but repeat my earlier definition of a parents' association — a common meeting ground where parents, or parents and teachers, may meet for the consideration, discussion, and promotion of those things which affect the welfare of the growing child. In the matter of building an association, we cannot stress too strongly the importance of a special study of each individual school to determine the special problems and special needs, and of building an organization based on such findings."

After Mrs. Ward had presented her report, the following discussion took place: Mr. Schuman asked how we knew whether there was a need for a parents' association in a school. What are parents' problems? Are parents'

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associations more successful in certain localities? Do parents come because they like to go to meetings?

Mrs. Pascal believed that a grade adviser who interviews a number of parents would be aware of parent needs in any school community and Mrs. Ward said that most parents of first division children were interested in the work of the various depart-ments. She suggested an initial series of "Know Your School" meetings with a head of a different department speaking at each meeting.

Mrs. Libman said that the topic of guidance seemed of universal interest.

Mrs. Hendee said that Brooklyn Technical began each term with a meeting for parents of freshman and that at the last meeting in February 98 new parents were enrolled. Mr. Kavanagh said that he could see that there would be a quicker response in a specialized school.

Mr. Schuman said that he was calling a meeting early in March but was apprehensive as to the results, as on two previous occasions an attempt at organization had failed. The first time notes went out through students and there was a good response, but no permanent organization was effected. The second time, when Mr. A. A. Mayper spoke, thirteen parents attended. Mrs. Ward believed that thirteen might have formed the nucleus of a good organization.

Mr. Loughran said that there were two ways to approach the problem: one to have a program on immediate [illegible] could be discussed through questionnaires to parents, or by relying on the experience of other schools, or the advice of deans or grade advisers. Then there was a long time program of education to bring about understanding of basic questions. He said that the methods used in organizing parents are less important than trying to get them sufficiently interested to overcome their inertia, so that some day we may get intelligent answers to such problems as, "How much are we willing to pay for education?" He hoped that some day parents would be well enough informed to make recommendations to the Board of Education on such a matter as guidance that would bring about changes in the whole educational system.

Mrs. Pascal called attention to the point in Mrs. Ward's report concerning discussion groups. She felt that these small groups working intensively could really study such complicated matters as guidance. She doubted the worth of large meetings with authorities speaking on the subject. Mr. Schuman asked whether people had sufficient time these days to put into such work. Mrs. Ward agreed that the price in time was high but that people were willing to give time and effort if they believed it of real value.

Mrs. Pascal said that the discussion of the moment pointed to the necessity for parent leadership, and that training for leadership was one of the functions of the U. P. A. In this way we try to relieve the school staff of the burden of carrying the parents' association. Mrs. Ward felt that the problems on organization in his school as stated by Mr. Schuman confirmed her earlier statement that no general method could be set up but that each school situation should be considered separately.

Mr. Weishoff believed that the most important asset is the coöperation of members of the faculties, that unfortunately they were not always interested, but he hoped the time would come when teachers realized the importance of parents' associations to them as teachers. His experience was that teachers came around when they needed parents, but were not there when projects of interest to parents were under way. Mr. Kavanagh said that in his two experiences with parents' associations, the coöperation of teachers compared favorably with that of parents. Mrs. Ward felt that lack of coöperation was due to lack of understanding and said that interested teachers had been responsible for the promotion of many high school associations. Mr. Daniel Krane was cited by Mrs. Pascal as being a teacher most helpful in the development of parents' associations.

The following participated in the above discussion: John M. Loughran, Chairman, Samuel J. Tilden High School; Mrs. G. E. Hendee, Brooklyn Technical High School; Mrs. Robert V. Russell, President for the Bronx Borough Council, U. P. A.; Edward J. Kavanagh, James Monroe High School; Samuel Schuman, James Monroe High School; Samuel Weishoff, DeWitt Clinton High School; Mrs. Charles Libman, Publicity Chairman, David Steward, High School of Commerce; Mrs. James Ford, Girls High School; Harold E. Taylor, Brooklyn Technical High School; Mrs. Emil Cook, Grover Cleveland High School; Mrs. Frances E. Stader, Grover Cleveland High School; Mrs. Samuel P. Ward, Organization, Chairman, Mrs. Henry S. Pascal, Secretary.

DANIEL G. KRANE,
Chairman of the Program and Planning Committee of the Secondary Schools, Council of the U. P. A.

A Study of the Likes and Dislikes of Pupils Studying Plane Geometry

Motivated by a statement in the report of the Stebbins' Syllabus Committee that "Geometry was the most disliked subject," we undertook the task of finding out whether or not it was true as far as our school was concerned. At the same time we hit upon the idea of determining which topics in Plane Geometry were the ones that were "liked" and which were "disliked." Information of this kind, we hoped, would prove to have a definite diagnostic value. In the future, we could re-apportion our time and emphasis on these topics, based upon the results we had obtained. From our findings we could adjust our teaching, assuming that the things liked most are the easiest, and the least liked ones the most difficult.

In order to carry out our experiment we drew up a questionnaire, list-

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try. These questionnaires were distributed to the pupils in the classes. Instructions were given as follows: "This is not a test. Do not put your name on this paper. We merely want to learn what parts of Geometry you like best, in an effort to make Geometry most interesting to as many as possible, but without, of course, sacrificing any of its value by so doing. Put an "L" in the parenthesis before any item you "like," a "D," if you "dislike" the item and an "O" if you are "indifferent."

The results were carefully tabulated. Individual reports for each teacher were also made. The items contained in the questionnaire overlap, in many instances. This is due to the nature of the subject. A tabulation of the results of 565 replies is given below:

TABLE I

Table of Percentages for Various Topics

Topic	% "Liked"	% "Disliked"	% "Indifferent"
Book Theorems	45	36	19
Original Exercises	52	24	24
Numerical Exercises	61	20	19
Constructions	81	8	11
Proofs Involving Congruent Triangles	87	4	9
Proofs Involving Similar Triangles	69	14	7
Proofs Involving Parallel Lines	68	13	19
Indirect Proofs	37	35	28
Theorems on Parallelograms	69	13	18
Theorems on Circles	37	36	27
Numericals Involving Pythagorean Theorem	56	26	18
Numericals Involving use of Pi	38	39	23
Numericals Involving Trigonometry	59	22	19
Exercises Involving Angle Measurement	47	30	23
Exercises Involving Areas of Figures	44	32	24
Exercises Involving Inequalities	19	53	28
Construction of Triangles	61	21	18
Construction of Fourth and Man Proportionals	62	20	18
Construction of Regular Polygons	45	31	24
Geometry	68	15	17

CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY:

Only 15% of our pupils definitely "dislike" Geometry, thus proving that the statement made by the Stebbins' Committee is far from true for pupils in our school.

The "liked" topics are, in general, the more interesting in application and in some respects, the easier. This result was rather to be expected since it would be quite unnatural for boys to like the things they cannot do.

The rank that "Book Theorems" holds in the order of preference was surprising since it was usually assumed that pupils as a rule liked them, for they could be studied directly from the text-book. In order of dislike "Book Theorems" was the third most disliked topic.

Construction work seems to be very popular. This fact may eventually lead to a new approach to the introduction of Geometry.

A careful study of the results shows that the "likes" and "dislikes" for the various topics of Geometry are very definite. By taking cognizance of these facts teachers can adapt their methods accordingly and make the task of teaching and learning Geometry much more efficient and interesting. One fact must be kept in mind, namely, that the "likes" and "dislikes" may vary in different schools.

ABRAHAM C. RESNICK.
Boys High School.

Aesthetic Mexico for the Practical American

It was my good fortune to spend a year of Sabbatical leave in Mexico. There is no other country, in my opinion, which affords such a variety in contrasts of people, scenery, and climate; and no other people from whom we can learn so much about our continent. We in the United States have long been indifferent to our southern neighbors, turning our eyes toward Europe and a deaf ear to Mexico. It is only recently that the tide of travel has turned southward.

I believe, as many others do, that European culture is declining and our era of mechanization must give place to civilization. I define civilization to be the humanization of man in society and the satisfaction for him in society of the true law of human nature. If we accept this meaning, then we can admit that we have not advanced far socially or in civility as our recent banking, big business and political scandals and underworld activities of racketeering and kidnaping reveal.

In fact, in many cases our very highly developed mechanical devices such as the radio, telephone, and telegraph stunt the human faculties of social intercourse. All of these mechanical devices make it unnecessary to develop within ourselves means of transmitting messages. For example, the Indians have powers of concentration and ways of transmitting messages of which we are ignorant.

The name Indian is really a misnomer for the original people of Mexico, because although it was believed that they originally came from Asia, across the Behring Straits through Alaska and down the Pacific Coast, it is now believed that the lost continent of Mu or as it is sometimes called Lemuria, which sank in the Pacific ocean leaving the crest of its mountains to form the South Sea Islands, was their source. The Pyramid of Cuicuilco testifies to an age of 10,000 years. According to this they are direct descendants of a very old and mysterious people.

To compare ourselves with them is impossible because their philosophy of life is quite different from ours. For example, time to us seems to be a precious something which we are always trying to save, while to them it is not important. Wages are so low that they can afford to spend weeks in weaving beautiful bags, sashes, and other things for everyday use for themselves. In no other country would the peasant population devote so much time and spend so much money in the purchase of purely aesthetic objects as they do in Mexico.

This aesthetic sense is an important part of their life. For instance, a toy-

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maker does not like special orders, but likes to follow his own ideas. If you wish to order a dozen pieces of the same object he will probably raise the price because the creation of one model is pleasant play, but the making of twelve all alike is hard work. It is practically impossible to persuade him to sell his merchandise on his way to market. Even if you offer him much more than he expects to sell it for later, he will not consider the additional profit, for that would mean missing the fun of bargaining and taking part in the festival. Money does not signify for him the equivalent for the time and energy spent, therefore he has no ambition to accumulate it. You do not find great capitalists among them; in fact they think and act collectively. Even our Pueblo Indians of the Great Southwest had a workable socialistic form of government. I mention these things because so many are unaware of them.

Such a statement as that made by Walter P. Pitkin bears out the ignorance in regard to these people. He says that the Simple Life is beautifully adapted to the dull slow wit of the Stone Age Folk who comprise most of Mexico's population. This shows that he either has never been in Mexico or he is aesthetically dead. They have an aesthetic sense which most of us lack. As one Mexican writer, Ricardo Rivera, says, "There are races creative in technique who improve the standards of material well-being and there are sentimental and emotional races made up of human beings who are, above all, artists, and we Mexicans fall into the second group. We have less reason to deplore this fact if it be true that the final cycle of human evolution must be that in which aestheticism has the last word, because in that case we can find in our own idiosyncracy the best equipment for the civilization of the future."

DOROTHY CALVERT,
Freehand Drawing Department.
Brooklyn Technical High School.

The Sine Bar

One phase of machine shop practice given to the eighth grade students in the Mechanical course at the Brooklyn Technical High School is the production of an accurate sine bar. This tool is used for the generation of angles to a high degree of precision and it is the latest application of trigonometry to shop processes.

At the present time the use of the sine bar is largely confined to the tool-room but it is gaining recognition as a device of great power and accuracy, not only for the origination of angles, but as an inspection tool for the checking of angles generated by any method.

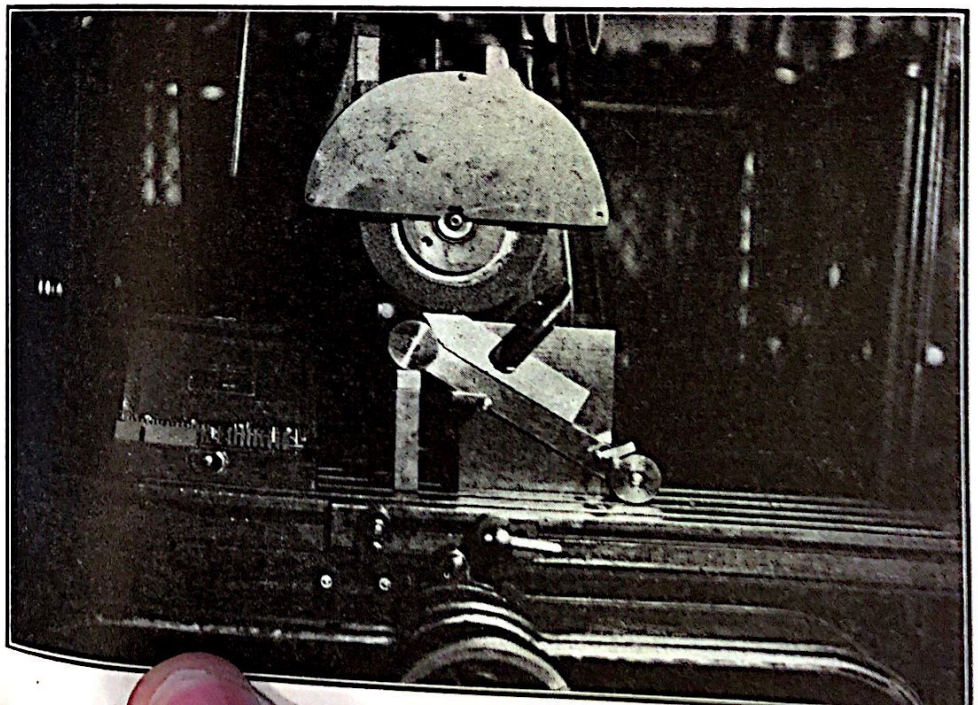
It consists of a bar of convenient length provided with a plug or disc at each end. For simplicity in computation, the bar is usually long enough to have the plugs or discs located exactly 10.000" on centers. Bars are made, however, with a 5.000" and also with a 20.000" center distance. They are commercially available in the 5 and 10-inch sizes.

Angles are established by means of a set of end gages and a table of natural sines. Since the gages are correct to the fifth decimal place, that is to .00001", a table of natural functions reading to at least the same degree of precision is required. It may seem somewhat unusual to work to this degree of refinement, but results on this order are possible with the measuring apparatus at the school.

It may seem that it would be difficult to secure work of this caliber from high school students, but this is not the case. In making the bar, the holes are laid out on the milling machine with the aid of the graduated longitudinal feed. This feed screw is graduated in thousandths and is quite accurate. The procedure is to spot the holes for the first bar, enlarge them with a drill, bore with a boring tool and then measure with the gage blocks. The amount that the screw is "out" is thus determined and the proper correction is then applied to the succeeding bars as they are produced.

Parallelism of the sides with the center line of the discs is vital and is secured by grinding the two sides of the bar on pins supported by parallels on the surface grinder. The practice at the school is to use discs, rather than pins, at the ends of the bar as this eliminates one measurement with the attendant possibility of error creeping into the setting of the bar. It is for this same reason that that gage blocks are used rather than the height gage sometimes employed for the measuring operation.

In use, the bar is clamped to a suitable angle plate, with one disc elevated above the other by an amount equal



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to the sine of the required angle multiplied by the center distance of the discs. The illustration shows the bar set for generating an included angle of 55°. The angle made by the center line of the bar with one of the sides is half of this, 27° 30′. The computation involved is as follows:

Sine 27° 30′ equals .46175

Center distance of discs, 10.000″

Difference in elevation of discs, 4.6175″.

Hoke gages are selected as follows:

Required size	4.6175
First gage	.1005
	4.5170
Second gage	.1070
	4.4100
Third gage	.1100
	4.3000
Fourth gage	.3000
	4.0000
Fifth gage	4.0000
	0.0000

The five gages are slid into contact and the pile is placed under one of the discs. This establishes the angle and the piece to be ground is placed in contact with the side of the bar and clamped into position. The machining operation is then completed with the grinding wheel, first on one side and then on the other side.

The order of accuracy attainable depends on the magnitude of the angle, being greatest with larger angles. It is on the order of 3 seconds of arc for the angle used as an illustration. Higher degrees of precision are seldom required but still more accurate results can be obtained with a 20-inch bar.

While the project results in the production of an accurate tool, capable of considerable use in the shop, the primary ends—appreciation of accuracy, together with the tying-in with the work of the applied math class—have great value and command the sustained interest of the class.

WESLEY E. MCARDELL.
Brooklyn Technical High School.

Silent Reading in a Foreign Language

Toward the end of the spring term of 1933, each member of the Modern Language Department of Girls Commercial High School received the following notice from the Chairman:

Dear Miss .....:

As you know, *silent reading* has been the department project for this term, and I am anxious to see what has been accomplished along this line by the various members of our department.

Will you kindly give a silent reading lesson in class ..... next week .....? I need scarcely add that the lesson is to be quite unprepared as far as the pupils are concerned.

After each class had been visited, the Chairman's reports on these lessons were made available to every teacher in the department, so that each one could profit by reading of his colleagues' work and also by the Chairman's criticisms, while the names of the individual teachers appeared only as X, Y, Z, etc. The following are a few general conclusions which may be deduced from the reports on these lessons.

The four principal points to be stressed here will touch on selections, time limits, procedure and methods of testing comprehension.

The selections chosen for the silent reading lessons varied greatly in source and amounts covered. Some classes used their own readers, some a reader other than their usual one, some a reading selection in their grammars, still others received a mimeographed sheet or an old Regents' examination paper containing an unfamiliar selection. Some of these selections were interesting fables or folk-lore, or contained interesting historical or geographical data. In length they varied from a long paragraph to four pages. Needless to say, in the latter case the reading was broken up into at least two parts. In this way, silent reading became also extensive reading, and where the selections were not beyond the pupils' capacities, gave them a feeling of real accomplishment.

The time limit, too, varied from three to ten minutes, but a noticeable factor in the successful lessons was that a fixed time limit was definitely stated to the class and adhered to, thus quickening the pace of the slow pupil or the "word-reader."

So far as the procedure was concerned, it, too, varied considerably. In some cases a few words which the pupils could not be expected to know or guess, were placed on the board before or just as the reading was begun. It is unwise, of course, to choose a selection containing too many unknown words or to put too many words on the board for the pupils, thus causing them to look up constantly and leaving nothing to the imagination.

Still another procedure was to place on the board questions, either in English or the foreign language, or any other form of exercise, such as completion, which is intended to test the comprehension of the pupils.

Perhaps the most important contribution of the teacher during the reading period is the maintenance of quiet, assuring perfect concentration. If any system of checking up on pupils who finish first is used, it should be one that does not break in on the thought of the pupils still working.

Of all the methods used to test comprehension of the passages read, the one most employed in this experiment was the question and answer method. Here, too, great variation is possible. The language used may be English or the foreign medium, though the latter is certainly preferable after the first year. Further variation is made possible by the type of questions and response. For example:

1. Oral questions—oral answers.
2. Written questions—written answers.
3. Written questions — oral answers.

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Combinations of various types were made, such as giving answers orally and then writing answers on board, so that they formed a résumé when read one after the other.

A second type of testing used was the true-false method, both oral and written. To avoid guessing, justification of answers was required by some teachers.

A third method used was that of summaries, either in English or the foreign language, written or oral. In some classes an English summary was required before the questions in the foreign language.

In one case, interest and speed was lent to the lesson by requiring each pupil to give one sentence of the summary, the pupil reciting then calling upon another to continue.

In a few more advanced classes after the gist of the passage had been given, further testing was provided by thought-provoking, general questioning.

Finally, in some classes, various kinds of more formal exercises were used, such as completion, synonyms and antonyms, and the like. The Chairman stressed the point, however, that exercises in a silent reading lesson should be used only as an aid to comprehension and not for their own sake.

Another comment made by the Chairman was the fact that the successful lessons, no matter what the method, were always characterized by widespread pupil participation.

In conclusion, perhaps the most important information to be gained from this survey is the fact that silent reading is an entirely practical aim, one that produces results and yet that does not demand a great deal of elaborate preparation on the part of the teacher. Some of the most satisfactory lessons observed, evidently, were among the simplest from the point of view of technic.

CARRIE L. HARRIS.
Girls Commercial High School.

The Third Ingredient

O. Henry once wrote a story about a man who spent years trying to perfect a popular drink. After long experimentation he accidentally discovered that the missing ingredient was none other than that commonest and least expensive of liquids—water!

In the field of Health Education, I find an analagous situation in that the most important and potential factor is one that has always been present, and although it has assumed a more or less recognized rôle in the roster of aims upheld by leading health educators, it has never received the recognition and acclaim that is its rightful due.

I refer to the third factor in the trinity of objectives promulgated in the field of Health Education, to wit: (1) Physical Activity, as exemplified by games, play, athletics, gymnastics, etc., (2) Medical Prophylaxis, with its medical examinations, follow-ups, hygiene, conservation and preservation measures, etc., and (3) Social Practice—the third ingredient in the health potion of Health Education.

Up to now, we have been neither convinced nor aware of the importance or presence of the social side of health education activities. Only within comparatively recent times has this feature of the health education program assumed novel distinction. Like the accidental discovery of O. Henry's character, we stumbled upon the end-product quite by chance, or if you will, by accidental design.

In a recent experiment, lasting over a period of four years, the social practice item was given a thorough work-out and tested from every educational angle. Starting with a class in personal hygiene, or as known to us, Health Problems, and progressing by easy stages through a gym class ranging in numbers from 150 to 250, to an entire school with a pupil load of 700, the social organization plan, necessitating complete and controlled operation, was carried through to a successful conclusion.

Briefly, this plan was the socialization of all organization activities, ranging from the gym class to related after-school activities. A system of student control, with students handling all the organization details such as inspection, attendance, safety patrol, sanitary supervision, calisthenic drills, squad work (both gymnastic and games), rating, and the like, concisely describes the plan. Intimately correlated with the formal work was the extra-curricular organization, consisting of intramural contests, tournaments, representative athletic teams, a [illegible] Squad, an Arbitration Court, a weekly publication, a term magazine and various other social projects.

The entire organization plan depended for its success upon student participation and leadership. Now, after four years of observation, it is possible to state with conviction and assurance that not only is stressing the social side in health education work a practicable, demonstrable feature, but also an extremely valuable one, conducive to educational standards and heights of socialized organization work possibly unheard of heretofore. Therefore, we arrive at the conclusion that a completely socialized health education system is not only a theoretical project but a practical fact—by actual performance.

The results have been more than satisfactory. In every way they have justified the confidence and effort placed in their theoretical worth. The crowning stamp of approval — the students' attitude and reaction to this experiment—places the final touch of authority upon the principles involved. They not only approved it—they liked it; and there is no gainsaying the value of a project that meets the receptive acquiescence of both buyer and seller, whether it be health or clothes-pins.

Hence the grand gesture, the positive realization that the third ingredient is not a shadowy, indefinite uncertainty, but, as we see it, a most definite and assured actor in the achievement of greater health education accomplishments. Social Practice is the

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influence that coördinates and protects the other two aims,—those of Physical Activity and Medical Prophylaxis. Pictured as a symbol, it is a circle enclosing and touching the outer points of two triangles superimposed in inverted fashion one upon the other.

Although it may seem redundant, permit me to repeat that the trinity of health education aims is composed of Physical Activity, Medical Prophylaxis and Social Practice — and the greatest of these is Social Practice.

SAMUEL P. SHARRON.

Thomas Jefferson High School.

Posture Week at the Morris High School Annexes

Our annexes have held a number of interesting specialty weeks for the purpose of carrying out a series of health projects. We have covered such topics as Personal Appearance, School Cleanliness, Safety, Physical Examinations and Posture. These projects are now an established annual procedure at our school. A typical project, posture, is herein described.

Two days before specialty week was in full swing, every teacher received information concerning Posture Week. The directions received informed the teachers that they were to receive a Posture Lesson Plan which was to guide them and help make the students posture-conscious. During the prefect and lunch periods a two-minute lecture on posture was given, with the aid of the Posture Lesson Sheet. The lesson sheet contained high points on the necessity and requisites of good posture. Teachers also incorporated the posture project in their subject periods.

The high light of specialty week was a Posture Contest. Each class picked a boy and a girl with outstandingly good posture. They wore posture tags to indicate class representation in the contest. On Thursday of that week, the class representatives were sent to the Health Council room where the Health Council picked the boy and the girl with best posture in the school. A local newspaper photographer came down to snap their photographs. At a special assembly the winners were given testimonials which indicated that they had earned the approbation of the principal, teachers, and judges in the Posture Contest. Posture poems, speeches, and a rally were the added attractions to this special occasion. Posters which were made by the students under the splendid guidance of the Art Department were displayed throughout the building. They told the story of Posture Week in pictures.

ELI EPSTEIN.

Morris High School, Washington Avenue Annex and Third Avenue Annex.

The Coöperative Course in the Julia Richman High School

The outstanding objective at the Fifty-first Street Annex of the Julia Richman High School is that present-day concept of education—a change in the individual. The girls who come to us are not by any means dull or unintelligent, but many of them have more or less pronounced inferiority complexes. Such students are discouraged, unhappy, and their personalities are seriously affected. Our first step is to bring them into harmony with the spirit of our school and to try to make them realize that to get on wisely, happily and successfully with their teachers, their family and their friends is as much worth cultivating as the art of mental development. We study the pupils closely and through sympathy, kindness and friendship bring up a new vision of school life and try to build up integrated personalities which they may take from school into life in lieu of intellectual attainment. Our greatest aim is to turn out vastly better balanced and infinitely happier human beings.

Our approach is based on our acceptance of the individual as she is, and this very acceptance releases her from conflict over thought of her shortcomings as opposed to her concept of what has been expected of her. As a consequence, the emotional tension is lessened and a degree of self-confidence begins to arise. I believe a girl becomes a happy participant in her social world only where her feelings regarding herself become objective and she is liberated from thoughts which burden and restrict the free operation of whatever capacities she has for self-development. We view the job from two angles—education and treatment.

FROM THE STANDPOINT OF EDUCATION IN SCHOOL

The basic idea in planning the curriculum was to make it very flexible; to reject those subjects that are beyond the capacities of the students, and to adopt teaching methods that will reach their mentality. Each teacher is expected to modify her methods and her subject matter in whatever way seems necessary to make her teaching successful. We do not follow any prescribed syllabus.

Now what do we teach? We have, of course, eight terms of English, four terms of history, two of Industrial History and two terms of American History; four terms of Practical Science. The electives are typewriting, comptometer, salesmanship, sewing, millinery, elective art, and an elementary business training course which specializes in teaching arithmetic, alphabetizing, filing and spelling, and the operation of business calculating machines not taught in the Comptometer course. Last September we introduced the teaching of stenography to a selected group of girls. The work done in stenography is intensive. The girls are assigned at least two periods and some of them three periods a day. Some of the girls in this class have finished anywhere from one to four terms of stenography and some are starting it for the first time. The class is not large and having the group so many periods a day the teacher is able to divide the class into units. We are not striving to turn out high-powered secretaries, but have in mind laying a

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foundation on which the girl may build after leaving school, or equipping her for a minor stenographic position which might fall to her through an opening in a firm which she has entered in some other capacity.

Many opportunities fall in the way of a reliable moderately intelligent girl who has won the affection of a superior officer or supervisor. I could cite numerous instances where this has happened to the coöperative girls. This September we are offering a year of elementary bookkeeping to the coöperative students. Here again we have in mind business opportunities which may be embraced if the fundamentals of accounting are understood. We have forty girls enrolled in our dictaphone course. These girls are selected after a prognostic test covering English, spelling, and typewriting. This test was devised by a professor at Columbia. This course not only trains the girls for a definite business skill, but also develops concentration and improves their sentence structure and their spelling.

In September of last year we started in a small way a preliminary course in baby nursing. The girls reported every other week to a day nursery. A large number of girls are intensely interested in children and are clamoring for such a course in the school. If we had such a course the girls could, upon graduation, enter a special course in a hospital to complete the training and embark upon the career of a trained baby nurse. I hope it will be possible in the near future to offer such a course to these students. As a matter of fact, even if the course did not offer a means of livlehood, it would have great value for them as a preparation for life, as most of the girls have marriage and babies definitely fixed in their minds as the best sort of a career. They are very frank about it. We have had three marriages since December and some of the graduates are proudly wearing their engagement rings and tell us of the showers being given for them.

Education in Industry

There is a vast amount of work to be done in the world that requires nothing more than a mediocre intellect plus a few sound character traits and I believe that less than a fraction of one per cent of our coöperative girls are incapable of filling these positions. A very small percentage of the world's work in done by the intellectuals. In connection with industry, I would like to say that a marked change takes place as soon as a student finds herself on a job. School work becomes meaningful. There is a strong self-directed drive toward improvement of skills, the whole emotional tone is elevated and the student looks and acts differently. As for business firms we find that they are interested not in the girl's learning already acquired, but in her ability to comprehend instructions and to use common sense. Business firms often prefer to teach the girls their own way of doing work, rather than have them come to them with a too definite idea of the manner

of doing a job. Miss Rosenberg, one of the English teachers, has lately introduced into her classes a topic on Apprenticeship. The work done along this line covers a complete history of the apprenticeship idea as carried out in the medieval period, and the application of its essential educational values to our coöperative type of education.

Treatment of Students

From the time the girls reach the fourth term and are preparing to go out to industry, our association with them becomes very close and individual and from then on until graduation they are constantly undergoing a pruning process. They hear themselves discussed from all angles, their personal appearance, their taste in clothes, their finesse in using cosmetics, their pleasant or unpleasant manner, their ability to get along with people. The success or failure of a girl on the job travels by the grapevine route to all her friends and acquaintances and many a wholesome lesson is learned through the experience of another girl. I believe the biggest thing we do is to take the poorly adjusted, discouraged, inarticulate, ineffectual girl and try to understand her difficulties and her problem and through understanding and friendliness help her to rebuild her lost confidence; to follow a line of endeavor in which she senses a chance for success; and finally to realize, in some measure at least, the hopes and dreams she brought with her into high school. I feel that the attitude of the teachers has been more effective in helping these girls achieve than the educational methods pursued.

Changing the objective from earning marks to doing the best she is capable of has motivated many of the students to meet their new standards. The experiencing of success and the joy offered by achievement have helped free many students from a feeling of inferiority. Most of the ill-adjusted are no longer ill-adjusted; they do the work and are happy in doing it. I think that having these students in a building by themselves has taken from them the feeling of being second-raters. They love to have responsibilities placed upon them and student government is one of our high points.

Our principal, Dr. Lucey, has been most fortunate in his selection of teachers. They all seem to be imbued with the spirit of the school. We have a vision and all we ask is that our capabilities measure up to our zeal.

Genevieve A. Hayes.

Julia Richman High School.

Ignis Fatuus

To mount high lectern of proclaiming soul
And lead confiding minds toward hollow goal,
To dare assume a speaker's role of choice,
With futile voice—
To lure a heart in hope of precious gift

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And leave it groping, aimless, and adrift,
To bid it hearken incoherent lay,
Were to betray.

To pen a line of doubtful light or leading,
To raise a call in dubious sense or pleading,
To breathe a word devoid of simple sooth,
Becloud the truth—

To strike a chord that deadens minds' desire,
To sing, and lack the spirit to inspire,
To play upon a stringless, rifted lute,
Were best be mute.

To sound an empty message, feeble song,
To strain all ears and patience overlong,
To mouth resounding phrases, meaningless—
Best silentness.

To dampen or debase the living flame,
To make of holy speech a sordid game,
To muddy hallowed source of sacred thought—
Were better naught!

—"HERMES."

Student-Made Murals in Spanish Classroom

Dr. Hymen Alpern, First Assistant in Modern Languages at the DeWitt Clinton High School, announces the successful completion of a mural competition conducted jointly by the Spanish and Art departments of that school.

Five prizes were awarded by the Spanish Department for the five most effective murals pertaining to South America, Central America, Mexico, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Spain, Pan-Americanism and/or any phase of life pertaining to the above. The prize winners were: George Fox, William Vreeland, Jack Weinstein, Peter Chiarelli and Nathan Piccirilli.

The murals measure 20 feet by 2 feet 10 inches and are worked in different media—oil-paint, water colors, tempora-crayon. All murals submitted are the original work of the students of the school done under the supervision of Mr. Hyman Getter of the Art Department. They are decorative and extremely rich in color schemes. Before their execution was authorized, competitors submitted to Mr. Getter preliminary sketches, one in line and one in color (30 inches by 4¼ inches) for approval. Pictures, photographs, travel folders, posters and illustrations from Spanish books and magazines in the collection of the Spanish Department were made available to competitors as suggestions. The finished products, however, showed unusual originality.

All of the five winning murals now adorn the walls of the Spanish classrooms, adding color and life to the language recitations.

A description of each of the winning murals by the student artists themselves follows:

1. *By George Fox, Winner of First Prize:*

"The central theme depicts the coming of white men to the new world. To the left of that we find a modern revolutionary scene showing heavily armed men typical of the Spanish-speaking American countries. That is followed by a picturesque pirate group reminiscent of the Spanish Main. To the right of the central theme we find a Jesuit Mission with the ever-present priests in the foreground. Then comes a South American cowboy, or Gaucho, surrounded by cacti. This is in turn followed by a typical group of city laborers working amid steam shovels, ocean vessels, and tall buildings.

"Together, all the groups form a composite picture of Spanish America, past and present."

2. *By William Vreeland, Winner of Second Prize:*

"My mural deals chiefly with the every day life of Spanish American peoples.

"On the left hand of the mural I have depicted a view of the ocean from a section in a small city, and to the right of this I have pictured a Spanish celebration. Below, I have expressed what I believe was the method of warfare in the past.

"The right half of the mural deals with three other phases of Spanish life. In the first panel is pictured a cathedral, to the right of this is a café. Below, is pictured the simple method of transportation by oxen.

"A scene from a Court of Justice decorates the central panel."

3. *By Jack Weinstein, Winner of Third Prize:*

"I divided my mural into five phases of Spanish life. At the extreme left, I portrayed the festival with its colorful surroundings. My next phase depicts Spanish types including a blacksmith, a beggar, and a traveler. The middle of the mural is occupied with the bull-fight, typical of Spain. On the right of the bull-fight I have shown the Spanish vender, selling his olives at the market. Lastly, I have portrayed the gaiety of the Spanish people by showing a dancer and guitar players. In these five phases, I attempted to cover as much as possible the complete life of Spain."

4. *By Peter Chiarelli, Winner of Honorable Mention:*

"In this mural, I attempted to show the gaiety of the Spanish people by bringing forth the spirit of the fiesta. By picturing the joyous Spanish people in song and dance, and in their popular sport of bull-fighting, I tried to make this idea prominent. In the left section of the mural, I have portrayed the more common people in their more simple style of entertainment by picturing the ox-drawn cart. The central portion of the mural reveals the merriment of the Spanish in musical and colorful surroundings. Finally, to complete the feeling of joy, I have shown the happy faces of the spectators at the bull-fight."

5. *By Nathan Piccirilli, Winner of Honorable Mention:*

"The central idea of my mural was the portrayal of Spain's history. I chose some outstanding events and bound them together into a unit. On the left, there is a scene showing the real beginning of Spain's history with the conquering of the Moors. This

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scene leads into the period of exploration and from thence to the great Spanish conquests in South America, picturing the life of the Incas and the Axtecs. Finally, the mural ends with a display of the modern types of Spain. All the figures are shown in full form. In the background are found different pieces of architecture which combine with the sky and mountains to form a unit."

New York High Schools Observe Fourth Pan American Day

Pan American Day, 1934, the fourth occasion on which this inter-American holiday-to-be was observed, was celebrated by the students of the high schools of New York, constituting The Pan American Student League of New York, at a city-wide gathering held in the Auditorium of the College of the City of New York, at Lexington Avenue and 23rd Street, on Thursday, April 12.

Since its proclamation in 1931 by President Hoover in this country and by the presidents of the respective Latin-American republics as a day to be observed throughout the Americas by all who cherish the hope of true inter-American friendship, this international semi-holiday of the Western World has steadily grown in the affection of the people of the Americas, and especially has it taken root in the hearts of the young generation, on whom the future of peaceful civilization in this continent depends.

In 1931 but a handful of the high schools of the city held suitable exercises on that day. This year not a school has failed to pay its homage to the Bolivarian ideal of a united Greater America at special assemblies, whose programs in word, song and dramatic presentation expressed the spirit of friendship, the attitude of respect and admiration and the effort of the "Good Neighbor" to make life in America better, happier and richer for all Americans, whether they speak English, Portuguese or Spanish.

The program of the special assembly held at the DeWitt Clinton High School under the auspices of its Chapter of The Pan American Student League of New York will suffice to indicate the nature of the local celebrations in each of the city's high schools. The program was arranged by the Faculty Leader, Mr. Nathan Lipschitz, and the able student officers of his Club: Herbert May, President and Samuel Pollack, Secretary. The program was as follows:

President Herbert May, Presiding

1. The Presidential Proclamation of Pan American Day.....*Ralphael Gold*
2. Excerpts from the National Anthems of the 21 American Republics.....*Orchestra*
3. Group of Spanish-American Songs.....*Agustin Miquel*
   Popular Spanish Radio Tenor
   Accompanied by Murray Morrison (Clinton Student)
4. Address: "The Significance of Pan American Day and Its Future"...*Dr. Carlos Bermeo*
   Noted Latin-American Jurist
5. Group of Spanish-American Songs.....*Agustin Miquel*
   Accompanied by Murray Morrison
6. "La Nación," Argentina's Great Newspaper, in a 2-Reel Film
   (Decorations: the 21 American flags, 4' x 6' each)

For the city-wide celebration, the Superintendent of Schools authorized the early dismissal of 1000 students, to be escorted in each case by the Faculty Leader of their respective chapters of the League. The program was arranged by Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages in the High Schools, and Mr. John J. Clisham, Secretary of The Pan American Society, in coöperation with whom this annual event has been held by the League since the first occasion.

The beautifully decorated Auditorium was the scene of a most enthusiastically received inter-American program of music, drama, addresses and dances. The best description of it is the program itself, which follows:

ASSEMBLY AND PLEDGE TO THE FLAG.

Greetings by:
MR. JOHN L. MERRILL, PRESIDENT, PAN AMERICAN SOCIETY, INC.
(Reading of message from the President of the United States)

Musical Number:
FLYING DOWN TO RIO
CARIOCA

Presentation: Argentina: "Café del Gaucho," by
THE GROVER CLEVELAND CHAPTER OF THE PAN AMERICAN STUDENT LEAGUE, UNDER THE DIRECTION OF MR. EMILIO L. GUERRA.
The scene shows the interior of a Cafe in Argentina. The following numbers are presented:
LA CUMPARSITA EL CHOCLO QUEJA PAMPERA

Address by:
HIS EXCELLENCY JOSE RICHLING, MINISTER OF LA REPUBLICA ORIENTAL DEL URUGUAY.

Musical Number:
LA PALOMA

Address by:
MR. JAMES S. CARSON, CHAIRMAN, COUNCIL ON INTER AMERICAN RELATIONS

Musical Number:
QUIEREME MUCHO

Presentation: Central America: "La América Central," by
THE FLUSHING HIGH SCHOOL CHAPTER OF THE PAN AMERICAN STUDENT LEAGUE, UNDER THE DIRECTION OF MISS PAULINE KREPELA.
An allegorical sketch given by eight actors—six girls each representing a Central American country, one boy representing Uncle Sam, and one girl representing Friendship or the Spirit of the Good Neighbor. The song "Many flags wave o'er many lands" will be the finale.

Presentation: Colombia: "El Pasillo," by
THE THEODORE ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL CHAPTER OF THE PAN AMERICAN STUDENT LEAGUE, UNDER THE DIRECTION OF MRS. EMMA B. PENNOCK.
Regional dances. Native music by a student orchestra.

Presentation: Mexico: "Los pies de yeso," by
THE WASHINGTON IRVING HIGH SCHOOL CHAPTER OF THE PAN AMERICAN STUDENT LEAGUE, UNDER THE DIRECTION OF MRS. MARIA FRANKEL.
A historical sketch in Two Acts and Ten Scenes. Two announcers will explain the action. The first act shows a religious ceremony in Aztec Mexico—Montezuma and his high priestess invoke the long vanished Fair God.
In the second act Cortez arrives accompanied by his soldiers and by Spanish missionaries. The Indians at first bow down before the magnificent stranger thinking he is their Fair God, but they soon discover he has feet of clay.

Address by:
MR. DAVID SCHOR, PRESIDENT, PAN AMERICAN STUDENT LEAGUE.

Musical Number:
PAN AMERICANA

Presentation by:
MANHATTAN COUNCIL, THE BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA, OF THE COLORS OF THE TWENTY-ONE AMERICAN REPUBLICS AND PLAYING OF EXCERPTS OF THE NATIONAL ANTHEMS DURING THE PRESENTATION.

Musical Number:
BOLIVAR MARCH.

NOTE:—*The general organization of the above numbers by High Schools students has been in charge of Mrs. Maria Frankel of the Washington Irving High School. Music by the Wolfsie Orchestra, M[illegible] Wolfsie, directing.*

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As these programs, held annually, both at the city-wide celebration and the local school assemblies, reach thousands of students who do not study Spanish, their real Pan American significance becomes clear. Pan Americanism, to achieve its objects, must not be the exclusive interest or concern of those who study Spanish. It must not be forgotten that nearly a half of the Latin American population does not speak Spanish, but Portuguese. It would, therefore, be narrowing in its influence if this activity were looked upon as simply one suitable for students of Spanish. Pan Americanism is the concern of every American north and south of the Río Grande. It should really be considered the function of American schools to supply the deficiency in existing courses on American history by acquainting their pupils with the aims and history of Pan Americanism. One of America's great historians, Professor Bolton, has given expression to this idea in his scholarly statement of the unity of American history, Anglo- and Hispanic-American, and has clothed his concept in the term: Greater America. There is no doubt that such programs as described above help to make our young generation Greater America conscious.

JOSHUA HOCHSTEIN.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

The Fusion of Plane and Solid Geometry

The question of *fusion* first came into public prominence in the days when mathematics, both for its content and the manner in which it was being taught, was being attached. At that time, alert and interested mathematics teachers throughout the country valiantly arose to help in the reorganization of the curriculum and courageously started their clubs and sections for the discussion of problems arising in the teaching of mathematics.

It was found, at that time, that mathematics was no longer being insisted upon as an entrance requirement to the colleges, not even by the technical schools of the country. As Longley said in his article in the Third Yearbook, "Solid geometry was unpopular with students and teachers alike." However, many of our leading educators believed that there existed certain values in solid geometry which made the subject important enough for our students to take, even if the course of study had to be condensed to fit the requirements of the fused course.

One leading educator advanced as an argument for the retention of solid geometry the statement, "We live in a world of three dimensions, yet we teach the geometry of flatland." Why, indeed, make our children plane-minded, when we live in a world of three dimensions? Another argument advanced for the solid geometry is that it refines and perfects our perceptions as no other subject is apt to do. Those who study it are apt to be more cautious and less sure in their assertions, for what seems to be so very often isn't so in solid geometry.

As an illustration, comparison of distances in a plane are comparatively simple, whereas on a spherical surface, it requires much deliberation and rejection of hastily drawn conclusions. For these and other reasons, educators believed that solid geometry was important enough to retain in the curriculum in the form of a fused plane and solid geometry course in the 10th grade.

On the other hand, many educators are against the teaching of solid geometry in the 10th grade. There are many who wish to preserve a distinct place for the solid geometry because it is so valuable in teaching spatial relationships. This has been met with the statement that trigonometry can do that as well as or better than solid geometry. Teachers' statements that they cannot teach plane geometry in one year, much less together with solid, have been met with the counter statement that less ground will be covered in the plane geometry. Schlauch, however, contends that "the amount of subject matter in both plane and solid geometry will have to be cut to such an extent that the student's view of both sciences becomes inadequate. He will not have a feeling of mastery of either at the end of the year's work." It has been argued that because of the eagerness of teachers to cover a fair portion of both plane and solid geometry, representative selection of book propositions with their proofs will probably be presented to the class, proofs will be committed to memory, and the chief value of the logical training will undoubtedly be sacrificed. Another argument advanced against fusion is that the difficulty of visualizing the figures of solid geometry is greater than that of visualizing those of plane geometry. Hence, the student is likely to become discouraged early in his studies. It must be remembered, however—it has been argued—that our ancestors represented things in two dimensions for a long time before they attempted to represent figures in three dimensions. Psychologists have maintained that the child recapitulates in its development the cultural development of the race. Hence the study of the plane before were attempting the solid has been advocated.

This brings up the question of exactly how the plane and solid geometry would be fused. Let us concentrate, therefore, on some of the plans advanced for the teaching of plane and solid geometry in the 10th year.

One plan advanced is that the solid be taught as a concentrative unit taken last of all. (This would eliminate the Recapitulation theorists' argument.) There wouldn't be time for much solid geometry, it is true, but the fundamental principles of perspective drawing, as well as accurate and effective computation (both numeric and algebraic) in connection with the mensuration of the standard solids, probably might be covered.

Another and more popular plan is that the plane and the solid geometry be fused at those places in which it seems most desirable and probable. The advocates of this plan believe

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that the extension of certain concepts from the plane to the solid is easily effected, that is, that it is easy to go from the angle between two lines to the angle between two planes, that the concepts of parallel lines is easily extended to parallel planes.

A third plan advanced is that solid figures be brought in to serve as an introduction, and to make clearer and more interesting the more abstract phases of plane geometry. The child lives in a three dimensional world; hence the principle of symmetry is clearer, it is said, if introduced with the two hands as a model, rather than by means of a plane figure. Parallelism is better represented by parallel walls, or the picture molding and the ceiling, than by parallel lines in a plane.

Not very much on the question before us has been offered in the line of experimental evidence. Experiments, on the whole, have been carried on privately and certainly not extensively. If we are to take seriously the results of the examination given by the College Entrance Examination Board to those taking a course in which plane geometry and solid geometry were fused, we should say that fusion had failed, for the students showed clearly that they knew very little of plane, much less of solid geometry. However, it is unfair to arrive at such a conclusion unless the experiment had been performed with a greater number of students and without the handicap of no text-book.

The crying need is a good text-book. To my knowledge, no adequate text-book has appeared offering plane and solid geometry fused according to any one of the three plans outlined above. And so until a carefully worked out text-book appears, I am afraid that the entire question will be as good as dormant—although a more restless and fitful sleep I can not imagine.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Since this article was written McCormack's Plane Geometry (Revised Edition), 1934, fuses solid Geometry with the Plane Geometry to a large extent.

LILLIAN DREILING.

Erasmus Hall High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

An Investigation in Social Studies Curriculum Revision

In addition to the generally recognized need for continuous study and development of school activities to keep them abreast of our changing civilization, the impact of the depression and the consequent demand for a greater knowledge of the social world have created a special need for immediate revision of the social studies curriculum. It was to meet these needs and to throw light on a question raised by a group of chairmen as to the advisability of continuing prescribed Early European History for general students that Mr. John M. Loughran, Principal of the Tilden High School, appointed a committee of teachers at the school.[1]

The committee, whose function was confined to fact-finding, went about its work in the following ways: (1) By means of a questionnaire, data were secured on the extent to which the social studies were taught in the high schools of New York City. (2) One member of the committee was assigned to report on the trend of the social studies in the curricula of schools throughout the country. (3) To obtain the views of leading educators on matters concerning the place of the social studies in the curriculum twenty letters were sent. A number could not be reached. Eleven responded.

The facts revealed by queries 1 and 2 simply indicate that less attention is paid to the social studies in New York City than in most of the progressive schools outside.[2] This is particularly clear in the case of general students. These facts, of course, are not new and are known to teachers who are conversant with trends in the teaching of the social studies. What is illuminating, however, is the reaction of the leading thinkers in the field. There was almost unanimity of opinion on the desirability of alloting more time to the social studies! I will let them speak for themselves.

1. William H. Kilpatrick, Columbia University:

"In general I am in no doubt that the work along the lines of social science should be at the least the principal part if not the central core throughout the whole of the high school period."

2. Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University:

"It seems to me that the importance of the social sciences in the subject material which pupils need to know in order to function well in life is widely apparent and widely recognized. The four-year sequence in social studies for four-year high schools is becoming more and more the customary practice."

3. George S. Counts, Columbia University:

"The need for such an emphasis would seem to me to be obvious to anybody at the present time, assuming of course that schooling has any value at all . . . I will say this, however. It seems to me that the program of social science instruction in the American secondary school should devote much attention to the growth of industrial civilization, consequent trends from individualism to collectivism in economy, the numerous problems arising out of this transition, the contrasting programs and philosophies now emerging in the world, and the numerous potentialities for the enrichment of the common life arising out of the growth of science and technology."

4. Franklin Bobbitt, Chicago University:

"It is my judgment that in a four-year high school there should be a

[1] The members of the committee were Miss Lucy F. Mohan, Miss Elsa G. Becker, Mr. Albert C. Zahn, Mr. Elias Blechman, and the writer.

[2] See the "Fourth Yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies."

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compulsory four-year sequence in the social sciences . . . It should be mainly social science rather than political history, though of course the historical background is necessary for understanding the present."

5. E. R. Mosher, College of the City of New York:

"In my judgment, a compulsory four-year sequence in social science is desirable."

6. Leonard V. Koos, Chicago University:

"I can state that judging from trends and from needs the social studies should be included in pupils' programs in every year throughout the elementary and secondary school periods."

7. E. George Payne, New York University:

"If the social science places emphasis upon the development of culture, including both material and non-material culture, with particular reference to the problems of twentieth century society, a four-year requirement is certainly advisable."

8. R. M. Tryon, Chicago University:

"Many school systems throughout the country are adopting a four-year sequence in the social studies. I certainly hope that New York will follow suit."

9. W. G. Kimmel, Columbia University:

"It seems to me that all current trends indicate the desirability, and I might even say a very definite necessity, of a compulsory four-year program in social sciences. While the effects of the depression will probably be felt for some time in the organization of secondary school curricula, it seems perfectly apparent in the more progressive, experimental as well as public high schools that they are not only insisting on a four-year sequence but many of the experimental schools are making social studies the so-called core of the curriculum, and a few of them are giving as much as ten hours per week to social science."

10. John Monroe, Long Island University:

"The three fundamental sciences are the human sciences: biology, psychology, sociology, and all these should be taught on the secondary level. They are basic to all thinking, to all motivation, and to all development of personality in a modern age.

"Most of the history as taught is no better than so much Latin or so much Latinized English. It is not social science.

"The ordinary run of civics is taught factually and has little bearing on modern social and political movements. You cannot call it social science until it is reorganized.

"I am heartily in favor of the increase of the subjects and materials of the social science areas, but only if taught in the light of modern experience.

"Next comes the science area. This should be greatly increased and dovetailed into the area of width."

11. Edgar Dawson, Hunter College:

"Of course, I am in favor of the four-year sequence in social studies; but I am not an unprejudiced judge. That is my field and my sight is darkened. No one knows what is the best four-year sequence, and it may be that there is no *best*.

"The leading authority of the country is Mr. W. G. Kimmel. . . ."

In conclusion, it would seem that there is no question in the minds of educators that a four-year sequence in the social studies is desirable. However, there is also made the proviso in almost all cases that revision of both subject matter and teaching along more realistic lines is essential to make the program worthwhile.

SAMUEL STEINBERG.

S. J. Tilden High School.

The Case for the Chronic English Flunker

The Forgotten Man in our educational system today is the unfortunate youngster who starves in a world of intellectual plenty. He lives in a cultural storehouse stocked with solid food from cellar to roof—yet he partakes of none of it. Enthusiastic chefs concoct the most tempting morsels for him. Devoted waiters affectionately dish them out to him. The ungrateful youngster turns disdainfully away and surreptiously reaches for a frothy, gooey confection which he has somehow hidden about his person.

"He's on a hunger strike!" the chefs moan.

"He won't eat what we serve him!" the waiters groan.

On occasion the chefs and the waiters conspire and plot and invent new ways of preparing and serving the hated food. The youngster tastes it and disdains it. Then the enthusiastic chefs lose their enthusiasm and the devoted waiters their devotion, and they become irate and wrathful and the punishment they mete out is cruel and vengeful, for they now place before him and compel him to eat the food which he had refused for months. Only now it is stale and even more unpalatable, for the familiar food is without freshness or flavor.

The picture, unfortunately, is not exaggerated. Daily the teacher dishes out the concoction prepared for him by the curriculum makers, garnished appetizingly by his own ingenuity. Always there are youngsters who refuse it. When pleas fail he has recourse to threats. Ultimately the ungrateful wretch flunks—and the process is repeated.

Ask the teacher of the chronic flunker why he fails. Quick as a flash will come his answer, "He's really a *problem* child!" Press him for particulars. His diagnosis is just as sure, as confident: "He just can't do the work," "He just won't do the work." "He's a pest." "He's just dumb."

Ask the student to explain his failure. He is as succinct: "Aw, I don't like to read." "I don't like English." "Aw, I don't like them books." "I can't write or get up and talk."

You will notice that the teacher squarely puts the blame on the pupil and the pupil humbly accepts the responsibility. It is as simple as all that! The teacher says, "The assignment for tomorrow is—" and he sighs

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when his "motivation" is not sufficiently intriguing to excite his problem child into doing his homework. "He just isn't interested," he murmurs, as he carefully puts a zero on his Delaney card.

Yet the problem pupil has his cultural interests—very definite ones. He reads the tabloids, the pulp magazines and detective books. He visits the movies and listens to the radio. To rant against these interests, to condemn them or to ignore them is as futile as yelling at the waves—and as silly. Instead of denouncing the interests much in the manner of the latter-day politician, the teacher might better exert his energies to exploit them—to the pupil's advantage. Although we recognize the tabloids, the movies and the pulp magazines as our competitors for the youngster's cultural patronage, we are woefully ineffective in meeting and combating that competition.

If you were an automobile repair man with a Packard agency, and a man brought his old second-hand car into your shop for a gear job, you might try to sell him a Packard; but failing that, you'd certainly not refuse to handle his car because it was a cheap one. Lots of good it would be to tell the man with limited financial resources that it's better to drive a Packard! Lots of good it does to tell the pupil with a limited intellectual background that it's better to read good books! Better, if you are sufficiently expert, to show him how to get much more out of his cheap car than his neighbor who drives the same model!

Why can't we apply the methods of competitive business to the teaching of the problem child? You can't sell him a Packard? Then overhaul the car he's got. And while he looks on, you can explain how some of the parts work. Oh, he'll listen all right. It's his car you're discussing. Before he leaves the shop, your customer may discover that his car contains other parts in addition to his horn, brakes and cigar lighter. He may even develop an intelligent interest in these newly discovered parts—a critical interest even.

Today the youngster reads the tabloid for its sensational news, sports, and cartoons. Tomorrow he may discover the book section and the editorial page. But if he's still excited over the account of yesterday's ball game, why despair? *The Times* also has a sports page. Perhaps when he's cooled a bit, and when you've cooled a bit, you may both discover that the tabloid sports writer is vivid and animated, that he has an eye for detail and dramatic incident, that he uses picturesque language (I *mean* slang), and that you have a really fine model for a pupil account of the Monroe-Morris game (or the sand lot ball game) played that afternoon—if he feels the urge to write it up. If not, he'll be willing enough to talk about the game providing you're not too formal in your demands. Turn him into a sports reporter and assign him to cover the game if you must have a written account.

Similarly, you might turn your radio fan into a sponsor looking for talent, and reporting to his board of directors. Your movie fan becomes a screen critic, your pulp magazine reader a book reviewer, and so on.

If the modern high school is a child-centered school, then by all means, let's pivot our work about the child's interests, whatever they may be. With these as the nucleus, the classroom as the incubator, who knows what may hatch out or develop? Never mind the ancestry or the hashed figure. Environment has proved its potency over heredity often enough for us not to discard, as altogether hopeless, the "bad egg."

A layman will tell you that the incubator child needs special nurturing and a special diet. Yet we "experts" feed him food he can't digest and we are extraordinarily amazed because the infant remains anaemic. A mother doesn't refuse mush to her ailing child because her healthy children scorn it, nor does she feed him meat no matter how carnivorous she herself may be. But "What's one man's food is another man's poison" has, apparently, still to be discovered in the schoolroom.

Time we gave up education through coercion. We've got something to sell and a potentially lucrative but hitherto unresponsive market to sell it to. To capture the market, we've got to revise our sales methods and—this is the most unkindest cut of all—even compromise with the quality of our product. The customer is always right!

HARRY NAPARSTECK.
James Monroe High School.

Foreign Language Entertainments

A study now in process has as its objective a published collection of tried material for the use of classical and modern foreign language teachers in assemblies, auditoriums, and other entertainment projects. It is believed that the hard-pressed teacher will welcome such a collection, in which good examples of varied types of assembly programs will be instantly available.

The occasion of this study is the revision of Galvin and Walker's "Assemblies for Junior and Senior High Schools," a standard work in this field. In order to make the new edition comprehensive, the publishers (Professional and Technical Press) are adopting the rather unusual practice of extending a general invitation to teachers in this country and abroad to contribute. Authors of contributions that are used and their schools will, of course, be duly credited. Those who furnish substantial contributions that are used will receive a printed copy of the results of the study for foreign languages. In addition, in consideration for such contributions the publishers stand ready to lend their advisory service to authors in educational fields, and to make available their up-to-date bibliographies.

Concerning this project Dr. J. Carleton Bell, Professor of Education at the College of the City of New York, has written to Arthur Minton, one of those engaged in it:

"Your proposed investigation of the extent to which modern foreign languages are being used in the schools of the country in presentations at as-

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sembly exercises, and in dramatic productions, interested me greatly. Anything that would facilitate this use of the foreign language would add greatly to the interest of the pupils, and a book that would embody materials for use on such occasions would be of great value to teachers. I wish you all success in the study, and I should be glad to know the results when it is completed."

Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages in the high schools of New York City, has commented as follows:

"I hope you will be able to secure abundant information about the assembly programs given by the modern language departments. There is a great deal of this done in the schools and it will be valuable to have as complete a picture as can be made of this activity."

Classical as well as modern languages are to be included.

If you have an entertainment program to which you would like to give wider currency—such as especially successful plays, pageants, dances, or music—your material will be received with interest. Manuscripts may be addressed to Lillian Duell, 42 Fire Island Avenue, Babylon, New York, or to Arthur Minton, 2 Grace Court, Brooklyn, New York.

Why Teach Aviation in Our High Schools?

Much criticism has been recently directed against our high schools for teaching aviation to the large number of students who are now giving much of their school time to that subject. The criticism appears at first hand to be a just one. The Haaren High School has approximately two thousand such students.

The query usually is to this effect: "How can so many students be given employment in that industry?" The answer, of course, is that they can not. Employment within a particular industry is the goal toward which our industrial high schools direct their students. The industrial high school gives specialized training in a certain trade, and this training should be adequate for entrance into that trade. Here, quite obviously, the absorption point of the particular industry must be carefully considered. An over-supply of human material is as undesirable as an over-supply of industrial products.

In our high schools aviation is planned with the industrial arts, rather than the vocational goal, in sight. Generalized training takes the place of specific training. Direct entrance into one of the many fields of employment involved is possible for from ten to fifteen per cent of the total student body. For the remainder of the students aviation serves as a driving force from within which can not be replaced by any amount of driving from without. This comparatively small percentage of placement would be unfair to the remainder of the student body if the subject matter taught were in a narrow and confined field. Fortunately for school authorities and

student body this is not so, as will be indicated later.

All of us have witnessed the tremendous interest and enthusiasm in aviation which has been aroused in boys in their early 'teens. This enthusiasm has bred a confidence and determination that will carry on, schools or not. It will be carried on in cellar and attic and vacant lot. There will probably be no one to plan and direct this work; the enthusiasm will be less, the interest will cool, and the potential value, for the most part, will be lost.

One of the elements of good teaching is that of arousing the interest of the child. By field trip, moving picture, and other means the teacher has attempted to do this. If that interest can be aroused, the well planned lesson will proceed with greater profit to the student and a greater degree of satisfaction to the teacher. Why, then, if interest plays so important a part in our teaching, should we not capitalize these resources? To allow this interest to spend itself in poorly directed channels is to neglect one of the fundamentals of teaching.

The student should not be led on by an untruth. To tell him that all could realize the aspiration of most boys, that of being the pilot of a meteoric military or transport ship, would, of course, be untruthful. We can, however, tell them that the best of them, physically and mentally, may reach that goal. More important to our average student is the fact that each ship in the air requires ten men on the ground to make the safe landing of that ship possible. These ten men occupy positions of importance, ranging from the sweeper and grass cutter through the mechanic and his helper, the draughtsman, the radio operator, the weather man and the engineer. What a range in the abilities required to fill these positions!

But let us get back to the larger group, those who probably will not enter aviation. All of them are required to take most of the high school academic subjects. If these subjects can be better taught by directing a little of that interest and enthusiasm in the proper way, one phase of the teacher's problem has been solved. Each subject has its own course of study, and deviation from that course is not recommended. Principles may often be explained or developed by means of facts aeronautical. Often this calls for no special training on the part of the subject teacher. The following will serve to illustrate the application to several subjects:

1. *Science.* Such subjects as weather, climate, temperature, atmospheric pressure, physical geography, and the planetary systems are directly involved in the study of meteorology. Other phases of science together with the counterpart in aviation follow:

Phase of Science	*Involved in Study of*
(a) Heat	Combustion within the engine.
(b) Sound	Propellor and engine noise reduction. Cabin insulation.
(c) Electricity, Magnetism	Airplane magneto. Airplane wiring for lights, etc.
(d) Mechanical movements	As found in parts of airplane and airplane engine.
(e) Axes	Three axes of the airplane in flight.
(f) Radio	Use in weather reports, radio beams, military use.

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2. *Mathematics.* All forms of mathematics are involved in aviation, beginning with shop mathematics and proceeding through algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. In the engineering and designing fields higher mathematics is essential. Several applications follow:

Phase of Mathematics	Involved in Study of
(a) Areas of circles, etc.	Wing areas, wing loads, piston displacement.
(b) Ratio and proportion	Aspect ratio of wing, ratio of wing to tail surface.
(c) Use of graphs	Problems involving speed, time, gas consumption.

3. *English.* This is, for the type of student involved, a difficult and often uninteresting subject. Motivation may be secured in the following ways:

(*a*) Composition, oral and written:

1. Newspapers, magazines, and books give much space to the field of aviation. Reports may be called for on this material.

2. Telling and writing personal experiences, such as visits to airports and factories.

3. Talks and written themes of expository nature, such as how an airplane part is made or works.

4. Written descriptions of aeronautical commodities.

(*b*) Letter writing:

1. Compiling reference material for this purpose.

2. Writing business letters such as orders, requests for catalogues, and government publications.

3. Writing friendly letters, such as one describing the first ride in an airplane.

(*c*) Word study:

Spelling, syllabication, pronunciation, meaning, etymology, and use of words used in both shop and theory classes.

4. *Physical Training.* Physical training is directly involved, in that mechanics and pilots must be in fine physical condition. The flight physical examination as given by The Department of Commerce can be used. The value of good sight is realized when the student learns that this ranks high in importance where the physical condition of the pilot is concerned.

In the non-academic fields, such as drafting and shop, there is close connection also. The reading of blueprints and the use of drawings in the various shops give opportunity for the practical use of the knowledge gained in the drafting room.

The above are but a few instances where wise correlation of these subjects with aviation may help the teacher in the presentation. As stated before, it is not suggested that aviation take the place of the above subjects as prescribed in their courses of study. Nor should aviation be introduced on too flimsy a pretext. There are, however, as several years of experiences at the Haaren High School have indicated, instances where direct application is clearly involved.

In the shops, while the general field of study is that of aviation, actually the following trades are involved:

1st Term..... Woodworking.
2nd Term..... Metal work.
3rd Term..... Elementary engine work (automobile).
4th Term..... Advanced engine work (airplane).
5th Term..... Electrical work.
6th Term..... Rigging (airplane assembly).

Since the Haaren High School does not make the claim of complete preparation for the above trades, the introduction of the various fields is justified as follows: first, a good try-out set up for vocational guidance purposes is provided; secondly, the two most universally used fields, that of woodworking and metal working come at the time of heavy school mortality. Experience gained by this large number of drop-outs would be of value in other fields as well.

The work given on engines would apply quite as well to automobile, tractor, or motorboat. The electrical work has its carry-over in these fields as well, and introduces radio, which is becoming increasingly important.

The students who remain after this part of the course has been reached include, for the most part, those who have possibilities in aviation. Upon examination of record and recommendation by teachers, the student may, with his parents' consent, coöperate at one of the airports near the city. This permits one week of work in school, followed alternately by a week at the airport, under the supervision of a licensed mechanic. In this way, too, the gap between school and job is made less difficult for the student.

From the foregoing it will be realized that aviation involves many phases of training and that this training applies as well to other fields. The enrollment of thousands of students in this intensely interesting field gives the teacher the opportunity of capitalizing the tremendous enthusiasm which aviation has aroused in American boys.

GEORGE T. LUHRS.
Haaren High School.

A Repeated Entreaty

Contributors to HIGH POINTS are again urgently entreated to sign their articles.

A propos of which, the article by "X. Y. Z." printed with the title of "The New Economic Geography," page 63 of our June issue, was written by Mr. Brendan Byrne of the John Adams High School.—EDITOR.

REVIEWS

Pupils of Low Mentality in High School

By Lillian G. Portenier, Ph.D. Columbia University Press, 1933.

This is "Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 568." It is a 1933 production and appears as the latest word concerning the surveys that have been made by experts, of the segregation and progress of low mental groups throughout the high schools of this country. Its author, Dr. Portenier, would seem especially qualified for conducting the study. She has

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for more than a decade been occupied in close study of the field. Her Master's Thesis at the University of Nebraska, 1924, was "A Classroom Study of Differentiated Groups of High School Students." At that time she found that most of the lower group of pupils (I. Q.'s 67 to 102) were able to succeed in high school in so far as success is measured by teachers' marks. But this fact conflicted with the expressed ideas of Terman, Proctor, Bright, Cobb, all of whom from 1919 to 1922 discouraged such pupils from attempting high school, as, in the opinion of these authorities, they were doomed to ignominious failure. Even as late as 1931 Pintner writes in "Intelligent Testing" (Henry Holt): "As our high schools are at present, children with I. Q.'s between 90 and 100 will have great difficulty in passing." This conflict of opinion and fact, for, to quote the author, "available records show that many with I. Q.'s below 90 are being graduated from standard high schools all over the country," led to the present study now being reviewed.

The investigation includes two aspects: (1) changes in the range and mean of intelligence in high school enrollment during the past decade, and (2) certain differences other than mentality between the lower and higher groups of high school pupils as measured by group intelligence tests. Part One deals with the first aspect or the intelligence of high school pupils; and Part Two with the second aspect or the differences other than mentality among high school pupils.

PART I

Eight cities representing seven states, in widely scattered sections of the country, furnished the data for determining the constancy of the range and of the mean level of intelligence for high school freshmen. "There seems, however," deplores Miss Portenier,

> "little uniformity in any one school system and none at all in the various school systems of the country as to the most helpful period in a pupil's school progress for administering mental tests, the tests to be used, the methods of recording and expressing the results, and the time intervals at which such tests should be given. Most of the school systems studied in which some mental testing has been done have varied the tests used, the groups to which they were administered, the time of the year for conducting the tests, as well as the method of handling results. This marked variability . . . renders the results of little value in answering the questions considered in this study."

Nevertheless, the data do indicate trends, and may be summarized as follows:

The mean intelligent quotient of high school pupils seems to have decreased a few points the past decade. Also a decrease of from six to eleven months is shown for the mean mental and chronological ages of high school freshmen. The decrease is less marked for the chronological ages than for the mental ages. Furthermore, a small increase is evident in the percentage of pupils of low mentality who enter high school and remain to be graduated. From this the conclusion is drawn by Dr. Portenier that there is a fairly consistent tendency going on in our midst today resulting in a lower degree of mental maturity among the pupils we teach as well as a gradual increase of the percentage of pupils of low mentality who enter our high schools, and an increase of those who remain to graduate.

PART II

Part Two of the study is concerned with noting differences other than mentality between high school pupils ranking below average on group intelligence tests, and the pupils ranking as strong average or better in the freshman class. As Terman has classified all children ranging from 90 to 110 I. Q. as normal or average in intelligence, the author defines pupils of low mentality for this study as those having I. Q.'s of 85 or less, or mental ages below thirteen years, six months.

The subjects were selected from West High School, Denver, a four year high school enrolling approximately 1,500 pupils. For the most part pupils came from good substantial homes as shown by the results of the Simms Scale for Socio-Economic Status. A mean level of intelligence of 101.1, with a standard deviation of 12.9 indicates it to be a typical American high school of the present day. An experimental group of 100 pupils was selected on the basis of a recorded I. Q. of 80 or less. The experimental group was enrolled in grades 9 to 12 inclusive. To these was given a second Terman group test of mentality, Form A, as a check on the intelligence of the group. In this way the experimental group was reduced to 66, thirty boys and thirty-six girls.

A temporary control group was formed from a random sampling of 100 Freshmen with I. Q. of 99 or above. Owing to retesting and absences, this group was reduced in numbers to eighty, forty-one boys and thirty-nine girls.

Both groups were given the New Stanford Achievement Test, advanced examination Form V. Furthermore an exhaustive study through tests, rating scales, and questionnaires over a period of one year, was conducted personally by Dr. Portenier. Taken as a whole, the results of the tests, rating scales, questionnaires, office records, teachers' estimates, etc., seemed to give a fairly accurate picture of the two groups.

The findings suggest that promotion is becoming more and more automatic to meet the problem of low mentality in high school. "Many teachers," she affirms,

> "realizing that one measure of their success as teachers is a low percentage of failures, are giving pupils marks of D—a barely passing mark —rather than failures which (she believes) their achievement merits."

To continue the findings: the author believes the facts indicate that the experimental group is inadequate for much of the work now offered in the high schools, but, on the other hand,

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she recognizes that satisfactory adjustment to school conditions is no small factor in determining a pupils' attitude toward his school work and not infrequently influences teachers' marks.

Results also indicate that although many pupils of low mentality are continuing in high school and in many cases being graduated, their records show school marks decidedly below the average and more failures, which no doubt indicates more time required to complete the course. The author deplores and reiterates the most significant finding of the data, that teachers' marks do not bear out the results of the achievement tests. "Pupils" she says,

> "are receiving A and B in courses such as English and history when not only the mental age but also the educational ages in these fields are decidedly below average. Some pupils with educational ages below the norms for grades six and seven are being marked average and above in their courses . . . teachers are marking pupils on achievement in relation to capacity and many personal qualities, not on achievement alone. Eighty-seven and five-tenths per cent of the teachers answered the question in this way."

Besides the teachers' marks, two other factors appear to be playing an important role in keeping in high school until they are graduated pupils of low levels of mentality and achievement (on the basis of standardized tests). These are (1) the courses for which they are enrolled, and (2) the pupil's attitude toward the courses offered.

(1) Says Pintner ("Intelligent Testing"; Henry Holt): "We note further as the high schools have expanded and increased the variety of their courses, the more intelligent tend to be found in the more academic courses, and the less intelligent in the more practical courses." And Miss Portenier finds in her investigation that the control group in larger numbers are enrolled for English, the social sciences, languages, mathematics, physical education. The experimental group, on the other hand, exceeded numerically in science, commerce, home economics, drawing and art, and industrial arts. The two groups are alike in their enrollment in music. In this way she believes that her study bears out Pintner's statement, and summarizes significantly that the differences between the two groups are more pronounced in the enrollment in language and mathematics, the most purely academic subjects, and in commerce, home economics, and industrial arts, the most practical subjects.

(2) An estimate for a pupil's liking for a subject was obtained by means of a rating scale. The control group seem to prefer English, social sciences, languages, mathematics, sciences, and physical education, while the experimental group show a higher preference for commerce, home economics, drawing, art, and music. Both groups show the same liking for industrial art. It, therefore, seems reasonable to conclude that "liking for a course" is a strong factor influencing the choice of electives.

From the foregoing it appears that three factors play an important role in keeping pupils of low mentality in high school, viz., teachers' marks, courses for which the pupils are enrolled, and the pupil's attitude toward the courses offered.

Teachers' judgments on the various factors of character and personality were secured through rating scales considering self-control, intelligence, personal appearance, lack of conceit, sustained effort, general deportment, general quality of work, popularity with schoolmates. The smallest differences in average ratings for the two groups are found in lack of conceit, general deportment, popularity with schoolmates, and self-control. The greatest differences are found in intelligence, general quality of work and sustained effort. This rating was checked a year later with a similar result. In the second rating the greatest differences for the two groups were in leadership and originality, as may be expected with the marked differences in intelligence. In this connection the opinion of Turney is interesting. His is perhaps the most comprehensive study of "factors Other than Intelligence that Affect Success in High School." It was made as recently as 1930 (University of Minnesota Press). Some of the factors which Turney concludes are operating to affect success in high school are: industry, coöperativeness, perseverance, ambition and dependability. Turney considers each of these five traits to be equal to or greater than I. Q. in their effect upon achievement as measured by teachers' marks.

Results were also secured for sixteen of the twenty-three items of the Sims Socio-Economic Scale. These items range all the way from "Have you a telephone?" to "What is your father's occupation?" or "Does your father own an auto which is not a truck?" The total socio-economic status of the experimental group is above the average of an unselected group of pupils. Thus the experimental pupils as a group seem to be some of the lowest levels of mentality found among parents of high average and superior social status. Therefore, one of the important factors operating to bring the mental misfit into the standard high school is the superior social background of the child.

It is also evident to Dr. Portenier that many of the experimental group do not realize their inability to compete successfully in the vocation of their choice, and that while many of them are continuing in high school and college work, they are doing so at the expense of greater time and effort devoted to study, a finding that would seem to me not undesirable in itself, though possibly expensive for the state.

From the questionnaire to teachers, Dr. Portenier secured information concerning changes made in the classroom in the amount and nature of the work presented, the methods of in-

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struction used, and special help and guidance given to the individual pupil. It developed that English courses are modified both as to content and as to method, and outlined carefully for three levels of ability, the bare essentials for groups of most limited ability. Other conscious adjustments include sympathetic understanding of the pupil, conferences with the administration, more time devoted to explaining assignments, carefully supervised study periods; simpler reference material used, time given to individual guidance in study, visual aids, much review. The work is frequently arranged in contract plan, which allows pupils to advance at their own rate. The teachers keep in touch with parents by personal calls and by telephone. Sixty per cent of the teachers feel that they have lowered their standard of work a little, and 87.5 per cent consider achievement always in relation to capacity. Fifty-six per cent of the teachers consider the inferior (*sic*) pupil more difficult to deal with.

In summarizing, the author claims that social pressure is a big factor accounting for continuance in high school. Many pupils are continuing in high school because it is the thing to do, it is a fad, all their friends are there, it offers the line of least resistance, and satisfies many strong drives.

In discussing the extreme discrepancies, the author points out that the two groups show considerable overlapping. On every measure except intelligence, the best pupils in the experimental group excel the lowest control pupils. It would seem that some pupils in the experimental group are achieving beyond the expectation of the mental test and that some pupils in the control group are not achieving commensurately with their abilities. It is also shown that the results of the achievement tests do not bear out teachers' marks. To quote Dr. Portenier:

> "Most teachers say that they feel under pressure to pass a large percentage of their pupils. This fact was stressed again and again in the personal interviews. Consequently the pupils of low mentality are given the lowest passing mark possible, which is D. Several of the teachers interviewed stated that many pupils receiving D should be marked F since they really are failing in their work even though an attempt has been made to adjust courses to the low levels of mentality. Thus while an average of D for the experimental group may seem near an average of C for the control group, as is true for languages, mathematics, and science, in reality it represents a marked difference in achievement which is brought out by the results of the achievement tests."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In her final summary, Dr. Portenier says,

> "On the part of the school as well as the pupils is being misdirected, which if guided into proper channels, should result in a more wholesome and more adequate adjustment to the problems that these young people will be called upon to meet . . . Disappointment leading to emotional maladjustment for the young people and severe criticism of the schools are inevitable." "It is interesting to speculate," continues Dr. Portenier, "what unfortunate results, both for pupils and for school, must be experienced before American educators will face facts more fully and provide courses better adapted to the needs and abilities of pupils of low mentality and give more diligent intelligent guidance in planning their life careers."

The book is bristling with charts, graphs, questionnaires, and bibliography. It is a most sincere and comprehensive study giving evidences of little haste but of extensive research over a decade of time. It might well be added to any library dealing with the proper adjustment of the nation's young people. It is perhaps the best summary that exists of what has been thought along this line.

ELIZABETH M. BRYAN.
Washington Irving High School.

Find Yourself

By I. David Cohen, Sears and Company, New York.

"Find Yourself" is a text book and guide for junior high and high school boys and girls. It is a book which gives the boy or girl who is ready to choose the type of vocation or profession he should prepare himself for, an insight into these vocations and professions, and an insight into his own potentialities. He is in this way better able to judge whether he prefer one or the other type of work. Having been published recently, the book is modern and suitable for high school, as it takes in inventions and machines of modern use.

The preface states that the book has a message. It bids you "Plan, prepare, persevere, and produce." The author hopes that it will unlock many doors of opportunity.

The first chapter deals with planning the future. Here you must consider your health first and what you are best fitted for. There are also certain questions to be answered so that you can analyze your own abilities. The important thing is to "Know Yourself." The second chapter deals with this problem and gives methods of self-study. There are then cited cases of famous men, such as Balzac, Henry Ward Beecher, William Cullen Bryant, and Richard Wagner. There are three guiding principles: (1) Find out your interests and abilities; (2) Find your limitations; (3) Beware of your physical and mental defects. There is a questionnaire which helps one to know one's self.

Chapters Three through Six deal with the age and its problems, and the different trades and occupations of men and women. In these chapters, the author gives an insight into the different mechanical trades and the business world. There are some helpful questions to aid the youth to decide whether he should enter this field of endeavor.

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There then follows the usefulness, opportunities, advantages, and disadvantages of the professional life. Work in the public service, the different positions available, and their advantages and disadvantages are fully discussed.

Art as a life work, the different types of art and an extensive questionnaire to help the child to determine whether he is capable of success in this field, is the topic of a chapter. The risks and advantages of farming, fishing, and mining are also given. He is told how and where to get his training, the different types of schools, a detailed description of them, and how to use his leisure wisely.

How does one advertise for a job, and how does one hold it after obtaining it? There is a whole chapter on this. Typical cases are discussed illustrating success and failure, and the reasons why some people fail. The secret of success is hard work, and the key of opportunity may be found in the word "ethics." Education, training, health, intelligence, and industry, character, and success then follow.

What could be more fitting than the messages from great men and women, and the list of good books to read that is presented here. There are examples from the lives of Edison, Colgate, Benjamin Franklin, Roosevelt, Louis Pasteur, Helen Keller, Robert Louis Stevenson, Beethoven, and others.

The conclusion has a number of self-analysis charts to help the youth study himself. There are Aptitude Questionnaires to aid him to discover his interests, inclinations, abilities and aptitudes; and vocational aptitude charts to study the requirements of various occupations.

"Find Yourself" is a very concise, complete work for the boy or girl who wishes and is ready to choose his life work. This book has very interesting and concrete illustrations and pictures; and will not only interest youths but adults as well. It is very comprehensive, enjoyable and simple enough for anyone to understand, and is particularly suited for the high school boy and girl.

HELEN KAPLAN.

Just Plain Larnin'

By James M. Shields, Coward-McCann. $2.00.

This is a tale of what happens when the higher purposes of education conflict with the dominant aims of a powerful vested interest in the Southern industrial Town of Nugget City. The forces of progressive education, in the person of Professor Kalb, a Columbia professor, and his brilliant but erratic assistant, Chenault, are virtually ridden out of Nugget City. What the Board of Education wants is "just plain larnin'," no fads or frills. With the ignominous departure of the prophets of the new, the mantle now falls on the very weak and utterly incompetent shoulders of Eugene Stafford, who cracks under the strain of attempting to reconcile his principles with the demands of the local politicians.

This whole drama of sordid conniving and base compromise leaves us curiously unaffected. It has all the elements of high tragedy, and yet never attains that stature. Mr. Shields writes with great vehemence and passion. But, somehow, his characters and the plot fail to come alive. Somewhere between his pen and his heart the divine afflatus seems to have been lost. The thesis remains struggling in the mud of the commonplace, tugging to soar into the exalted spheres of universal truth. Perhaps it is Mr. Shields' wooden style. Perhaps it is his preference for the bludgeon over the rapier. Perhaps his failure to perceive that art means more than having a message is at fault. Perhaps his strident repetitiousness makes us a bit callous to the fates of his puppets. Perhaps all this, and a little more. It is slightly humiliating to confess that this well-intentioned jeremiad leaves us cold. For it touches the heart of the most crucial problem we must face today: Shall education lead the way to a new and better life, or shall it become a handmaiden to the *status quo* and sell its soul to Mammon? Mr. Shields has an answer. It is here in "Just Plain Larnin'." But the greater task of making literature out of this raw material still remains to be done. In the meanwhile educators would do well to ponder Mr. Shields' impassioned excoriations of our present system. "Just Plain Larnin'" is not art, but it has the ring of truth.

A. H. Lass.

Beyond the Street

By Edgar Calmer. Harcourt, Brace. $2.50.

The school-teacher is coming into his own these days. This is the second full-length novel this year devoted to the pedagogue and his tribulations. It differs from Mr. Shields "Just Plain Larnin'," a very heavy-handed bit of invective, for Mr. Calmer is interested in the school-teacher as a human being, not as a social problem. Hence his characters achieve a life of their own, and are not lost in a morass of philosophical and educational maunderings. In this sensitive and vivid story, Mr. Calmer succeeds in getting under the hides of all his characters. It is no very pleasing spectacle we see. For all does not appear as tranquil as it should "Beyond the Street," where Starrett High School stands aloof from the life that eddies around it. With horribly cold detachment, Mr. Calmer lays bare the souls of a few poor, warped figures ironically struggling to breathe into others the vision of a life which they never had and never can have. The school-teachers here amply dissected are seen prey to the same frustrations and neuroses that afflict their humbler and less enlightened brethren. A college degree and a mission in life apparently do not guarantee their possessors against the maladies of our time, but seem, on the contrary, to render them more acutely susceptible. For Mr. Quent, Mr. Norsworthy, Miss Treylor, Mr. Koppel and the others are a most pathetic, twisted lot, whose relations with their

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students are not always entirely academic. The students, at least those who flicker in and out of the story, are in many respects miniature reproductions of their teachers, just as confused, just as impotent, just as cheerless.

The book is permeated with what, for want of a better term, we must call morbidity, and this without implying any moral censure of much of the rather pathological goings-on between teachers and students. None of the hilarity, ribaldry, and healthy animal excitement which are so characteristic of school find any place in this novel. Mr. Calmer's treatment is a very narrow and exclusive one. He misses the broad currents of school life, and retires to study with microscopic intensity some of its subterranean rivulets. The result is a very fascinating account of what takes place in the all-too-human souls of some school teachers after the dismissal bell rings, and also between periods. It is to be regretted, however, that Mr. Calmer has turned his unusual talents to a dredging up of "complexes" which Freudian literature has by now made commonplace. The materials lay at hand crying to be moulded into exalted tragedy. But Mr. Calmer, like Mr. Shields, has made of them very poignant but very trivial misfortune.

As a commentary on teachers, "Beyond the Street" is irrelevant. It is, however, a brilliantly written human document. The aura of Joyce and Huxley hangs heavy about it. But Mr. Calmer has his own style. He is young, gifted, possessed of startling intuitions, and penetrating insights into character. His work is an effective riposte to Shaw's sour bon-mot: "Those who can, do. Those who can't, teach."

A. H. L.

Psychology and the New Education
By S. L. Pressey. Harper and Brothers.

Like Ko-Ko's brain, this book "it teems with endless schemes both good and new" for the teaching profession at large. It is filled with many pleasant bodements of a new era in textbooks on educational psychology. Dr. Pressey has wisely abandoned the traditional organization of material for a more useful, practical arrangement. Past texts have aimed at a presentation of a system of psychology logically coherent and complete in every detail. This text is predicated on the not too brash assumption that what the teacher wants is information that will be of immediate relevance and utility. Thus the vast and profoundly involved disquisitions on instincts and reflexes, original nature and other such intellectual tid-bits are rudely and ruthlessly excluded. And psychology once more begins to read like the truly fascinating tale that it is. This is not to be taken as a gratuitous denigration of the vitally essential metaphysical grubbing out of which comes so much of our valid pedagogical principles. Dr. Pressey has merely sensed the need for a book that will facilitate teaching rather than bog it in the marshes of idle speculation. It is Dr. Pressey's well-founded hope that this treatment will enable us to see "behind each generalization—children." And to the pedagogue, that is the nub of the matter: what educational psychology contributes to his understanding of the child, and to his ability to help the child realize his fullest and most harmonious development.

The book is divided into two sections:

Part I, "Development During the School Years," under which heading Dr. Pressey considers the physical, mental, spiritual, and emotional maturation of the child in his personal and social life.

Part II, "Learning in School" deals exhaustively with the nature, control and direction of learning. This section is particularly well-documented and checked every step of the way with the latest researches.

We heartily recommend "Psychology and the New Education" to those who seek guidance that is not preachy and soundness that is not dull.

A. H. L.

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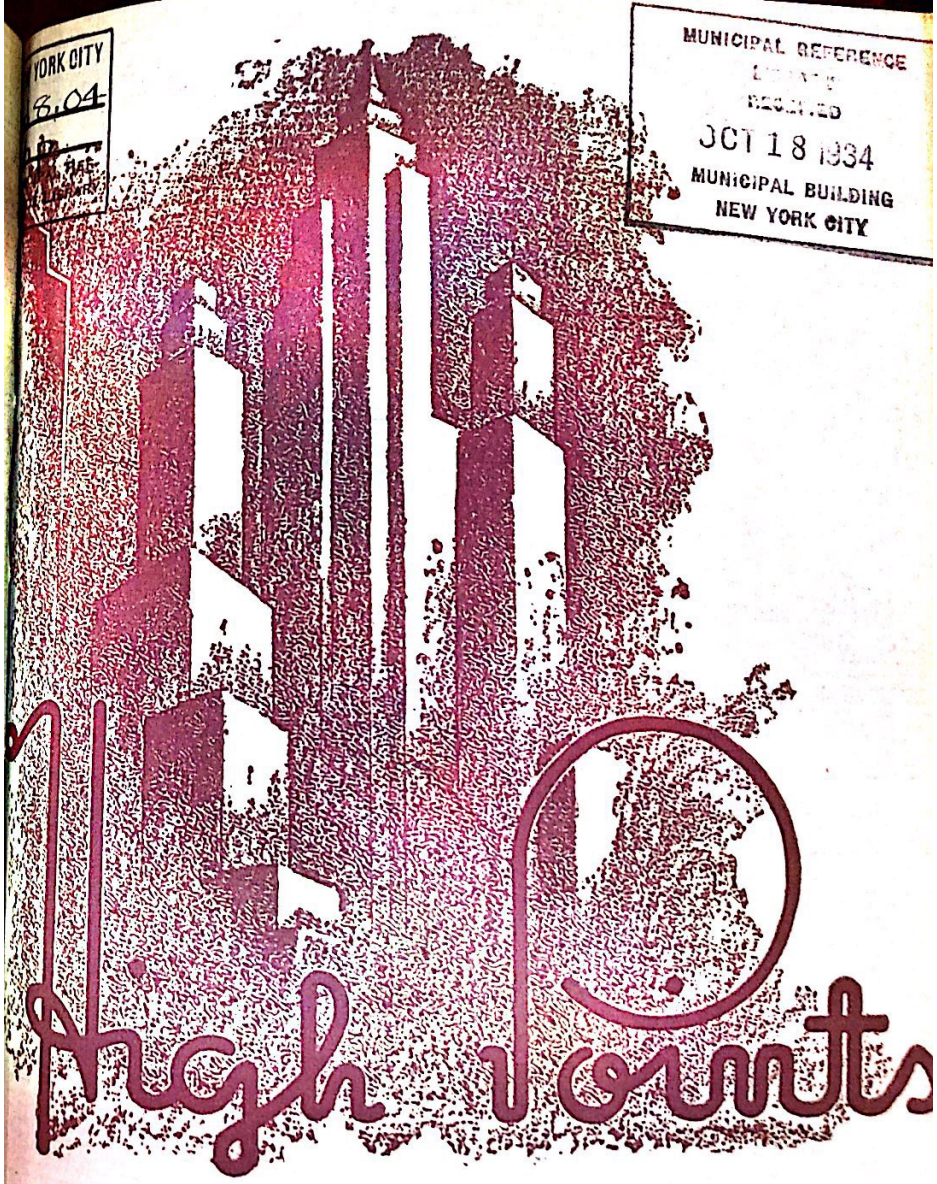

Highlights

N THE WORK OF THE
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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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ONE POINT OF VIEW

IN the language of disarmament conferences I suggest an educational holiday. I suggest an arbitrary, ruthless restriction of "studies," "surveys," "projects." I suggest an unrelenting birth control of educational associations and the adjournment **sine die** of educational conferences, which generate enthusiasm that leads to reckless speech. Incidentally, the official Directory of Education compiled in Washington lists almost two hundred national and regional educational associations and one hundred and seventy-five educational periodical publications. I suggest that educators take themselves at whatever point they now find themselves, resolving only to do well that which they are now doing. Unconvinced though they may be of the ultimate value of what they are doing, doing it well is itself an end, and therefrom they may also come to see what is more worth doing. They will at least have time to think and to form judgments. They will save the energy and time lost in false motions.

Out of the more deliberate observation of what they are doing and the cumulative gathering of thought and experience and the imaginative brooding of many minds, ideas will slowly formulate, to be caught up and given synthesis by great individuals—some Froebel or Pestalozzi or John Dewey. Parenthetically, how much of the current educational patter is a superficial rendering of John Dewey's educational philosophy! It must be remembered that Dewey, who has been our greatest pioneer in educational thought, did his pioneering before there were any Hollerith machines. And I doubt whether he could to this day make the correlations from two statistical tables. Neither, probably, will the next John Dewey be able to do so. In the intangibles of cultural progress, education included, progress cannot come by multiplication of paraphernalia or the elaboration of technics. Nor does it come by sitting down in formal scheduled conferences to evoke a philosophy before the closing address at five P.M. Friday. However it does come, at least it is never self-consciously. More likely, it is by a slow, imperceptible ripening.

NATHANIEL PEFFER

In his article, "Educators Groping for the Stars," **Harper's Magazine** for January, 1934.

BREAD AND DOGMA

(*Scene:* Hades. Assembled shades absorbed in the New Pedagogue's harangue.)

Pedagogue: And so we modern pedagogues have steered a judicious course between the absolute dogmatism which stifles inquiry and the complete skepticism which makes all inquiry useless since it contends that truth is ultimately unknowable. Both of these doctrines lead to intellectual sterility. We, however, teach no inviolate dogmas. We hold no sacrosanct principles. The dogmas of today are the superstitions of tomorrow. History has taught us that every age has its own Shibboleths, and spills the blood of its antagonists on the altars of its convictions, only to be mocked at by posterity for its worship of a simulacrum. The centuries have corroded the certitudes for which so many of you fought and died.

Socrates: I'm afraid I don't quite comprehend the situation you speak of. Do you really mean that people are no longer willing to die for their beliefs; that it makes little difference to them whether God or Satan is at the helm of human destiny?

Pedagogue: I'm afraid that is just what I do mean. The modern man finds few ideals worth fighting for, because he knows too few that are true enough. You see, science and its attendant skepticism have so eaten into the heart of the eternal truths that no idea seems sound and worth-while enough for man to stake his life upon. Religion, the family, government, love, marriage, friendship and all those virtues which formed the bedrock upon which your societies rested so securely, are slowly eroding and crumbling under the attritive action of modern thought.

Socrates: If it is true that the truths we lived by are now of historical interest only, and if some set of principles is necessary to give form and direction to human activity, how then do your people manage to keep satisfied and sane?

Pedagogue: That is a problem, indeed. The answers are many: The ignorant cling frantically to their "creed outworn," sensing intuitively that illusion is preferable to a realistic nullity. The young intellectuals sublimate their frustrations in a mad pursuit of fantastic pleasures, and in a weird devotion to cults whose only claim to attention is their novelty. Others beat out their palled brains in controversies over nugatory issues. Some, realizing the futility of it all, carry their lives to a low animal plane where, at last, such certainties as food, air, and lust are not open to question. And so it goes, each working out what seems for him the most ideal solution.

Socrates: I marvel at the coldness with which you regard these symbols of what must surely be immense emotional and intellectual travail. But another question occurs to me at this point. How are you educating your children to pass into this confusion?

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Surely, you are not allowing them to go forth from your halls of learning utterly unaware of the horrors that lurk in every corner, and utterly unprepared to cope with this life?

Pedagogue: By no means—we teach them that life is full of uncertainty. In fact, we make clear to them that the only certainty in life is uncertainty. History has taught us that. Thus armed, our students are ready to venture forth to meet any situation, since they are not handicapped by having their emotions too profoundly rooted in any one idea. Thus, in a world of rapid and incessant change, they will have the capacity to adjust themselves quickly and harmoniously.

Socrates: That is all very well—But with what positive passions do you endow these students of yours? Man's deepest life is not in mere change. He changes from something to something else. Man lives by bread and dogma. Dogma is his life-blood, whether it be biological or social. An education which does not, at least, provisionally, and with some ardor, commit itself to definite (not sacrosanct) principles, breeds social and moral indifference in its charges. One cannot live by promises of bread. One cannot live by negations. One cannot be passionate about the certainty of uncertainty. Your students must have certainties, even if they be only partial and tentative. They must be vital and deep enough to make life seem worth a fight, instead of a lackadaisical snort of contempt. Your students must be standard bearers for some cause, not pawns in a metaphysical chess game.

Pedagogue: Socrates, you have spoken well. But there is little reasonableness in your speech. You do not seem to understand that life in a twentieth-century metropolis is not what it was when you walked the streets of Athens. Life has changed.

Socrates: You mean men no longer love and hate and war upon each other; ambition no longer consumes them?

Pedagogue: Of course not, Socrates. The pace of life has changed. Things move more rapidly in the upper world. As I speak to you now, man speeds through the heavens on silver wings at incredible speed. He no longer walks. He is driven to his destination by mechanical slaves. The modern housewife does not break her back over her daily chores. She presses a button and they are done. I haven't even begun to tell you about the marvels of the world from which I have just come.

Socrates: That is very interesting, indeed. But, you laughed a moment ago when I asked you whether men loved and hated and killed each other. You admitted that they are moved by the same passions that moved us Shades. Why, then, must your educational scheme be so different from ours? Must not those passions be trained to move in response to virtuous thought? Must not men still be taught that only by a loving tolerance of each other's frailities can life be made endurable? This seems to me the main point to be decided. The externals of life may have altered.

But, from what you have said, man still seems animated by the same impulses that brought meaning into the lives of all of us here.

Pedagogue: I did not mean to imply that we do not school our children in the virtues that our racial experience has bequeathed them. You must not think that we are grown brutish. For, even in our industrial society, there is necessity for simple love and faith. I was, however, speaking mainly about the political and economic truths which history has shown us are not irrefragable. We have, from our dispassionate observations, arrived at the great philosophic principles of uncertainty and change. Heracleitus, you will remember, pointed out that the essence of life is its ever-changing nature. We thus do not believe that we should, in all fairness to our students, teach them to adhere too zealously to any one truth, for tomorrow that truth may be disproved, and then they will be rudderless in a sea of change. . . .

Socrates: Tell me, Pedagogue, under what sort of government do your students live?

Pedagogue: A democracy, Socrates, a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people."

Socrates: You mean that in your government every citizen has a vital and important function to perform?

Pedagogue: Precisely, Socrates, every citizen is an integral part of the whole structure, which rests on the wisdom and honesty of every member of the community.

Socrates: And what force holds your nation together? What guarantees its perpetuation?

Pedagogue: That is simple: the mutual sharing and appreciation of a set of common ideals. It is these ideals which solidify all the elements of our nation into one.

Socrates: And without these ideals, what happens to your nation?

Pedagogue: It disintegrates, naturally.

Socrates: Well, then, you stand condemned by your own words, Pedagogue, of conspiring to overthrow the very society that you are paid to uphold and foster.

Pedagogue: How so, Socrates?

Socratess: It is simple. You admit that a nation draws its life-blood from the fund of commonly held ideals. And yet you insist that your teachings center around the great "principle of uncertainty" which means that your young people are indirectly learning to despise those great traditions which should move them as one. I do not see how you can escape the dilemma.

Pedagogue: But, Socrates, this is putting the whole matter unfairly. . . .

Socrates: I'm sorry, Pedagogue, to be so brusque. But I see a new shade whom I must welcome to our midst. Before I go, let me leave this with you to think over until we meet again. Your colleagues would do well to stop this talk about "the principle of uncertainty." They may find themselves soon with all those who prove treacherous to the trust that society puts in them. Democracy cannot subsist long on the inhalations of uncertainty.

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your youth in a democracy must be given something more solid and palatable than uncertainty. They need positive passion for the true and noble in life. They must be taken out of the slough of apathy into which your vacillations have allowed them slide. You must construct for them out of the materials you have a vision of life. Even if that vision be not complete in all its details, no matter. You must give it to them. You must teach the whatever of truth and beauty mankind has been able to salvage from the wreckage of time. I agree with you when you say that they must not be immured against change. But they must have some beliefs in some things. They must be given a faith in their own efforts, in their own powers.

Life will come and take from them what they hold dear. What of that? Must they then be taught to hold nothing dear. What of that? Must they then be taught to reverence nothing, love nothing, place their faith in nothing, merely because the objects of their devotions may change or vanish?

No, Pedagogue. I think your task is a greater one that you have imagined. You must teach not merely adjustment to things as they are. You must teach, too, that greater harmony with things as they always have been and always will be. You must tune the hearts of your young to the eternal contradictions, the cruel beauties of life. You must make your students part of the traditions that stem from the deepest yearnings of the human heart. Change, uncertainty there will always be. But it is not around these that youth will rally its generous impulses. It is not these that youth will fight to defend. The very existence of your society depends upon the degree to which youth is steeped in your great national ideals and traditions. Leave this melancholy wailing about the "certainty of uncertainty." Take up the more thrilling call of the certainties. It is these, and only these which have given and still can give meaning, direction, and force to life.

ABRAHAM H. LASS.

Manual Training High School.

CLUB PROGRAMMING AT THE BROOKLYN BOYS' VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

A CONSIDERATION of club programming in the schools of America is particularly interesting at this time in the light of recent developments in the nation's economic status. Now, more than ever, we are able to correlate the work of the club with the new leisure that has resulted from the vast coördination of industrial facilities under the "New Deal."

The club as an educational adjunct has, of course, been generally accepted by educators for some time. The rigidity of the classroom has been found to be too great an impediment for the complete captivation of the pupils' interests along lines of total social realization.

Creative thinking during the past three decades has brought forth the boys' and girls' club which offers the most natural substitute for the "gang" and all that it implies in the makeup of child personality. It has been possible, through it, to supplement training for real life.

The challenge of the "new leisure" is one that those who are interested in clubs should welcome. Now, more than ever, does club programming become important in the educational scheme. With the acknowledged benefits of character education and personality integration, we envision the adults of tomorrow who have more "time to spare," as a result of the modifications of working conditions in industry. Practically speaking, we must train now for leisure if we wish our youth to become happy adults.

The Brooklyn Boys' Vocational High School has become particularly interested in this problem because of its close coöperation with the industrial, social and civic life of the community. Our students must actively enter and become part of that life. Realizing the swiftly changing trends of these times and recognizing also the fact that vocational schools will eventually play a greater part in the school system, we are vitally concerned in the club program as a means of educating for the new leisure.

This consideration of values is by no means new. For the past fifteen years our guidance program with our Part-time or Continuation students has pl[illegible] the club program. This p[illegible] of necessity limited to advising and contacting outside agencies that are interested in boys. The fact that the students worked all day and attended school only four hours a week made this limitation necessary. The present widening of our sphere of instruction to include full-time students permits us to extend our club programming to include curricular and extra-curricular activities as well as the services of outside agencies mentioned above.

In order to vitalize our program, an "interest questionnaire" was filled out by 1,538 students. We were interested in determining how many boys were already members of clubs and what kind of clubs they were. We were also interested in the boys who were now members of clubs and what activities they favored. A complete compilation follows:

STUDY OF CLUB MEMBERSHIP
Census of 1,538 Students
February, 1934

I

A.	Members of clubs	385	25%
	Members of Clubs—		
	Boy Scouts	43	
	Y. M. C. A.	28	
	Y. M. H. A.	2	
	Flatbush Boys Club	6	
	Navy Cadets	6	
	Radio Clubs	6	
	Aviation Clubs	6	
	Catholic Clubs	16	
	Social Clubs	27	
	Miscellaneous, Social and Athletic Clubs	145	

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B. Non-members of Clubs	1153	75%

II

A. Former membership in clubs	
Former members	790
Athletic	409
Social	128
Boy Scouts	83
Y. M. C. A.	33
Catholic	21
Aviation	9
Flatbush B. C.	5
Miscellaneous	102
B. Non-members	748

III

Activities most interested in and Clubs desired.

A. Athletic	
1. General	196
2. Baseball	138
3. Swimming	100
4. Basketball	88
5. Football	74
6. Boxing	33
7. Handball	20
8. Soccer	9
9. Wrestling	7
B. Social	30
C. Aviation	23
D. Music	19
E. Camping	9
F. Motion Picture	3
G. Naval Scouts	5
H. Boy Scouts	5
I. Chemistry	4
J. Stamps	5

Interpretation of Interest Census

1. Twenty-five per cent are already members of clubs and seventy-five per cent are not.
2. Fifty per cent of the boys had at one time been members of clubs but had dropped out.
3. The predominating interest is in athletic clubs.
4. Boys readily drop out of clubs that are not carefully programmed.
5. Specific clubs are requested.

To what extent can this school engender successful participation by the students in a comprehensive club program? It must be remembered that the majority of our students are members of the "under-privileged" class. A need for immediate employment characterizes their socio-economic status. They are concerned with learning a trade as quickly as possible in order to earn a livelihood. Another large group of our students are those who are vaguely dissatisfied with orthodox academic offerings. The senior high school with its academic interests is not to their liking and they have chosen the "vocational way" as a means of expressing themselves.

Nevertheless a student Self-Government program which has been in successful operation for several years, has shown a definite desire on the student body for further student activities. This self-motivation provides its own pupil leadership for this enterprise. A successful weekly newspaper is another indication of desire for expression along these lines. The newspaper, known as "The Opportunity News," has been published for fourteen years. It is written, printed, published and distributed by the boys themselves. Activities, therefore, are initiated to serve as a means of interesting the vocationally-minded boy in building worth-while leisure time habits and developing better attitudes.

Recommendations

I. Mass participation
1. Interclass Athletic Tournaments
2. Interclass Dramatic Tournaments
3. Organization of an annual Boat Ride
4. Improvement of Field and Track Meet
5. School Rallies
6. Better Prepared Pupil Assemblies
7. Development of General Organization

II. Individual Participation at School
1. Organization of Specialty Clubs
   a. Dramatic
   b. Radio
   c. Camera
   d. Poster
   e. Orchestra
   f. Stamp
   g. Others as demand requires

A number of these recommendations have been tried. Others need further development.

III. Neighborhood Clubs

Despite the large district covered by the school, successful efforts have resulted in establishing small intimate clubs in community houses, churches, and other civic organizations. In that way we have filled the need for the "social" club that the underprivileged adolescent voices. Proper emphasis can be placed on the social amenities and the sex problems. The schools have paid too little attention to this phase of club programming in the past.

Outside Agencies

Contact with community groups outside the school is extremely desirable. Mention must be made of the Brooklyn Boys Work Advisory Council. Organized four years ago by Mr. I. David Cohen, Principal of this school, it now includes the following organizations: Church and Mission Federation, Boy Scouts, Boys' Clubs, Y. M. C. A., Y. M. H. A., Knights of Columbus, Exchange Clubs, Lions, Rotary, Kiwanis, Junior Chamber of Commerce, Crime Prevention Bureau, Catholic Guardian Society, Settlement Houses, Community Councils, Schools.

A series of Noonday Assemblies for the student body has been carried out for the past five years. Prominent speakers in business, professional, and civic life visit the school and address the students on topics of the day and pertinent subjects of interest to them. Such subjects as Health, Recreation, Vocation, Unemployment, Leisure Time Activities, Values in Life, Coöperation — Home Business and School, etc. are presented weekly. Other activities of the Council include:

1. The development of a Gymnasium Leaders' Corps where capable boys are trained to assist in the program work of the Physical Education Department.
2. Personal counsel with boys pertaining to leisure time activities look-

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ing forward to community club contacts for the boy who needs them.

3. Securing of possible centres for basket ball and other activity groups in clubs, churches, and the like.

Various members of the Council, who are members of the organization and clubs in the vicinity, assist in the planning and development of the club work.

The Council has promoted the Borough Boys' Week program for the last three years. Boys' Week is a part of the National Boys' Week, and all organizations coöperate in developing "boy-consciousness" in the Borough. Each day of the week is set aside for a special activity such as Recognition Day, Vocational Day, Church Day, At Home Day, Out-of-Doors Day, Citizenship Day, School Day, and is usually followed by a parade of thousands of boys from the schools, clubs and other organizations in the Borough.

The Council has promoted a "Find Yourself Campaign," which is a vocational guidance project. Business and professional men interview the boys, who are particularly interested in these professions and business, and are guided in the interview by a complete analysis blank which the boy fills out previous to the interview.

The Council serves as a clearing house for all work relating to boys in Brooklyn. Its services as an agency for securing club programming facilities cannot be overestimated. Club rooms, gymnasiums, park space, permission to visit local points of interest, are but some of the possible services rendered by the Council.

The Crime Prevention Bureau of the Police Department is another agency that is of great value. Problem boys, including those who indicate that they might be predisposed toward crime, are frequently referred to the Crime Prevention Bureau. These boys are counselled by members of the Bureau. Leisure time programs are planned for them. These boys are referred to neighborhood clubs that have been investigated by the Bureau. The Crime Prevention Bureau has undertaken a survey of all the club facilities in the Borough. An evaluation of all clubs including social clubs, pool rooms, motion picture theaters, and so on, has been made so that boys can be referred to approved facilities for recreation and leisure. According to the records of the Crime Prevention Bureau, there are more billiard parlors and pool rooms than there are clubs for boys.

The Crime Prevention Bureau has organized athletic teams. These teams have baseball diamonds and play fields assigned to them and are under the supervision of a member of the Bureau. During the baseball season, these teams are taken in buses to see the Dodgers, Giants and Yankees in action. Boys are also taken in groups to swimming pools and motion picture theaters.

Special interest attaches to this association of clubs with the Bureau because of Mayor La Guardia's recent emphasis on crime prevention and his insistence that "it should be carried out in the streets and in the schools."

The control of juvenile delinquency in large cities by properly programmed clubs has been demonstrated time and again. The latest noteworthy example of this comes from the Community Boys Club in one of the most congested areas of The Bronx. In 1932 the district had the highest delinquency record in the borough and the problem was regarded as serious by all concerned. Since the inception of the club one year ago, no child has been committed for delinquency. A working agreement among the Crime Prevention Bureau, the Bronx House, and the Principals of schools Nos. 2, 4, 42, 55, and 58 has made this project a memorable one.

The Brooklyn Bureau of Charities with its welfare work has also aided us in home contacts with the students.

We hope that the foregoing is but the beginning of a comprehensive scheme for the directing toward proper leisure time habits.

Further research is necessary. The problem of exploring the recreative interests and capacities of the vocationally minded boy is still new. On a successful handling of it depends the success of a leisure time program.

HARRY WOLFSON.
Brooklyn Boys' Vocational High School.

AN EXPERIMENT IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

IN A public high school in New York City there is being carried out an experiment in language learning which will be of interest to all concerned with the teaching of both foreign languages and the vernacular. The text-book used is a so-called General Language Course* which has a constructed language as the language of the text.

There have been many claims made by school people, especially in Germany and some in England, of the benefits to subsequent work in language gained from the initial study of a Latin-derived, constructed language. One of the claims is that it is easier to make the pupil look at language objectively by this means than through the medium of the vernacular or the much more difficult medium of a natural, foreign language. Another claim is that, through the absolute regularity of such a language, it is easier to teach the pupil grammatical concepts, especially when these vary from the usages of his mother tongue, than by means of a foreign language whose irregularities and exceptions make for confusion. A third claim is made: that, by the simplified process of word-building used in these constructed languages, the pupil becomes aware of the methods of formation of words and is more likely to

*"General Language Course," by Helen S. Eaton, Banks Upshaw and Company, Dallas, Texas.

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recognize a word in a foreign tongue that has a root similar to an equivalent word in the vernacular, even though the inflectional or other affixes may be unintelligible to him.

There seemed to be sufficient evidence of a kind to make a properly carried out experiment worth while. Such an experiment was set up in February, 1934, and the following pages report progress and items of interest, although the ultimate aim of the experiment, which is to show the effect on subsequent progress in learning a foreign language, can be realized only after at least one more term and possibly two. The present experiment is being carried out in a group which will study French after the first-term work in General Language.

Forty-two pupils (1 superannuated during the term) of the incoming class, prospective French students, whose parents had given written consent, were grouped to study the Eaton General Language Course for the period of the first term instead of French. This group and a control group in the same class, also composed of 42 pupils, who were to begin the study of French, were tested in English vocabulary (Forms A and B of Thorndike's Test of Word Knowledge) on January 25, 1934. The elementary school records of the 84 pupils were also obtained. As the tests and the elementary school grades showed that the control group was of superior intelligence to the experimental group and, furthermore, as it was found that the control group was itself to be the subject of experimentation through the use of a newly-tried method in French, a second control group in the same class was obtained. This group had 37 pupils, was a beginners' French class, and the results of the English vocabulary tests (which, as a rule, can be correlated with IQ's) showed it to be more nearly equal (slightly higher) to the experimental group.

As the elementary school grades are given in terms of letters, the following equivalents in percentages were used uniformly for all three groups in order to make comparisons: A = 95; B+ = 88; B = 85; C+ = 78; C = 75; D = 65. The experimental group will be termed Group I; the first control group, doing special work in French, Group II; the second control group, doing usual first-term high school French, Group III.

	Elementary School Rating Jan. '34					*Eng. Vocab.* Jan. '34	
	Av. Age	Gen'l Rat'g	Eng.	Spell'g	Arith.	Form A	Form B
Group I	13+	85.7+	88.7+	90.	88.14	60.2—	58 5+
Group II	13+	89.6+	89.7	92.5+	88.3+	66 8+	65.7+
Group III	14—	84.	83.6+	86. +	83.	60.4+	60.2—

(It will be seen that the Elementary School ratings for Group I are somewhat higher in all subjects than those for Group III. It must be borne in mind that these are subjective marks given by different teachers in different schools and cannot be considered as valid in intelligence rating as the objective measurement tests in English vocabulary administered by the same examiner to all three groups at practically the same time.)

Objective measurement tests in English vocabulary were given to the three groups in June, 1934 (Thorndike's Forms B and C). The results follow: Total gain: Group I, 9.85+; Group II, 2.46+; Group III, 2.55—.

An objective measurement test in French vocabulary was given in June to rate progress during the first term of the two groups which had been studying French (for purposes of future comparison after the General Language Group has studied French for a term). This test was the American Council Beta French Test, Form B, Part I—100 words. The results follow:

Group II, 43; Group III, 28.8.

The same test was also given to the experimental group although it had studied no French, in order to see what language aptitude (or other benefits) had been acquired in the General Language study. Results follow:

Group I, 27.75.

It will be noted that in English vocabulary the General Language Group made about four times as much gain as either control group. In French, although it had studied no French, the General Language Group acquired nearly two-thirds the vocabulary acquired by Group II and almost the same amount as acquired by Group III.

Four objective measurement tests in Esperanto were given to Group I, two (vocabulary and written directions) before the study began; four at mid-term; and four at the end of the term.

In vocabulary (selection tests—Esperanto word with five English words from which to select the equivalent), 100 words, a total gain of 34 was made. This corresponds to a little more than the gain made in the vernacular during the first five years of school life. (21.5 of this gain was made during the first half of the term.) Score made before study: 12.6; at end of first half-term, 34.2; at end of term, 47.1.

In comprehension of written directions (25 items) the progress made was 16. Score made before study, 1.4; at end of first half-term, 11.6; at end of term, 18.—

In comprehension of aural directions (25 items), which was given for the first time at the end of the first half-term and again at the end of the term, the progress made was 11.+, 9 of which was made during the first half-term. (With this test and the following one, it is considered safe to assume that the class starts at 0.)

In comprehension of paragraph reading (connected discourse — 16 items) the gain made was 11.3.

One observation made by the teacher seems significant:

She noticed that, in the case of the pupil who makes no progress during the first three or four weeks of a language course, whereas in the study of a natural language, he becomes hopelessly confused and steadily retrogrades, in the study of the constructed language, things gradually become clearer to him and he begins to make progress even after floundering for the first month. (This is doubtless

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due to the fact that the constructed language is absolutely regular and the constant repetition of, for example, grammatical points, always expressed in the same form, eventually penetrates and clarifies the concept in the dull mind.)

The psychological benefit of such a course, in giving the pupil a sense of possession of a foreign tongue and an interest in practising it, would seem to be demonstrated by the fact that, out of the 41 pupils in the group, 25 asked to borrow an Esperanto reading-book and the text-book (which has a story in it and has not been quite finished) to read during the summer, and have bought small Esperanto dictionaries to use with the first. (The text-book has a complete vocabulary.)

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THE "BRIGHT PUPIL" IN THE CIVICS DEPARTMENT OF THE WASHINGTON IRVING HIGH SCHOOL

WHO IS THE "BRIGHT PUPIL?"

IT seems to the teachers of the Civics Department of the Washington Irving High School that the child around whom this discussion should center has five characteristics which distinguish her from her less fortunate school mates. She has intellectual superiority, manifested in our subject by an ability to see more clearly, interpret more rationally and decide more wisely in all matters affecting our community life. She has finer social and civic attitudes, and is more socially minded. She seems to have a greater capacity for emotional development, both in depth and in control. She seems to have a greater urge and zest for well-doing for the common good. Above all, she has a marked gift for leadership. This, in our opinion, is a snapshot of the "bright pupil" in Civics.

FALLACIES OFTEN ENTERTAINED IN REGARD TO SUCH A PUPIL

In our many informal talks with members of other departments as well as in conference with each other we teachers of the Civics Department have often heard the statement that "the bright child can take care of herself; it is the slow child who needs the teacher." While this seems to us to be true to a certain extent, is it not also true that the bright child needs direction, stimulus, inspiration, and, above everything else, *release* from much of the supervised study and drill so important to the dull or normal child? How stupid for us to disregard her boredom with the class routine and fail to liberate her energies for creative work!

A SECOND FALLACY

A second fallacy that one hears is the assumption that we can evaluate our teaching of the gifted child with any measure of certainty and claim definite results because of specific methods or technique. How can we even be sure that in a given case results have come from contact with a designated teacher? Children as well as adults have different "boiling points;" and a teacher endowed with a dynamic personality may kindle one pupil and fail to melt the next. We are dealing with intangibles which we have not learned to measure. In fact, we suspect we never can learn to measure them, since it is "by their fruits ye shall know them," and the fruit matures after they have left school and we are no longer in touch with them. Also, how can we know whether Mary S., who is at the present time a successful hydraulic engineer, received the divine spark which fired her imagination and started her on the road to success, in her English class, her Latin class, her mathematics' class or her first term Civics class? Or does Mary perhaps owe her success to some teacher in the elementary school, or to some fine Sunday School teacher or Girl Scout leader, or to a home rich in uplifting influences? Mary had lived for thirteen or fourteen years before her high school teachers had the privilege of becoming acquainted with her!

The truth probably is that Mary S has found something precious in many different classes and in contact with many, many teachers. All children, dull and bright, are like Walt Whitman's child who went forth every day,

"And the first object he look'd upon,
that object he became,
And that object became a part of him
for the day or a certain part of the
day,
Or for many years or stretching cycles
of years.

The early lilacs became part of this
child,
And grass and white and red morning-
glories, and white and red clover,
and the song of the phoebe bird.
His own parents, he that had father'd
him and she that had birth'd him,
They gave this child more of them-
selves than that,
They gave him afterward every day,
they became part of him.

The blow, the quick loud word, the
tight bargain, the crafty lure,
The doubts of day-time and the doubts
of night-time,
The schooner nearby sleepily dropping
down the tide, the little boat slack-
tow'd astern,
The horizon's edge, the flying sea-crow,
the fragrance of salt marsh and shore
mud,
These became part of that child who
went forth every day, and who now
goes, and will always go forth every
day.

A GALAXY OF STARS

To illustrate our thesis we might cite Brita O, Frances R, Eleanor R, Charlotte MacG, Betty G, Helen S, Edith R, Evelyn S, Ethel B and many other fine girls, all of whom were superior in their first term Civics classes, excelling in interest in their work, in an enlightened understanding of its objectives and in the number and kind of projects which they carried through, either at the suggestion of their teachers or upon their own initiative. These girls enriched the course of study for their classmates as well as for themselves. As early as the freshman year, they gave marked ability as leaders. Every one of them was later chosen by her

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schoolmates for some office on the Governing Council or school paper, and Brita has been selected this year for the school's medal for excelling in "Coöperation in Government."

It would be fallacious for us to claim that we are responsible for the success of these girls, and at the same time mock-modest for us to ignore the possibility of our having had a share in it. But to say that because Miss A of the Civics Department did or said something in Brita's class in the fall of 1929, Brita has been able to win this honor at the hands of her teachers and schoolmates,—frankly we think this is unscientific. We doubt whether Brita herself knows just what influences in her life have meant the most to her.

CASE STUDIES

What, then, have we as a department to report in our attempt to answer the question put to us? Happily we do know many "bright" girls who have apparently been helped towards a fuller development of their abilities and gifts through specific activities undertaken in connection with their Civics work.

A brief account of a few of these cases we herewith submit.

Anastasia S

A White-Russian girl who had escaped with her grandparents at the time of the Russian Revolution and had lived in Greece as a refugee, was about seventeen years of age when she came to our school. She attracted the attention of her teacher in Civics by her fine class and home work, by her special reports of visits to places of social and civic interest, by her concern about the problems discussed in class and by her exceptional sense of responsibility. When her class was studying Welfare of the Unfortunates, she visited a home for the aged, a home for orphans and a settlement house, and presented carefully written reports on each. She became interested in settlement work, attended a meeting at which Jane Addams spoke, became enthusiastic about the idea of service, and, when last we heard from her, was at the head of a home for wayward girls somewhere near Chicago. How much of Anastasia's career is due to her experience in the Old World, how much to her environment in the new, how much to her Civics teacher, who knows? But, at least, through contact with her Civics teacher, encouragement was given her to become acquainted with her city, to find out what was actually being done for our unfortunates, to study the problems involved and to try to share in bettering conditions as she found them.

Jane D

The writer well remembers visiting quite unexpectedly a class of one of the teachers in the department and finding a thirteen-year-old girl gravely leading her group in the discussion of "Carrying Out the Laws" as the subject applied to the every day life of the girls of her high school. The class came to the conclusion that regulations of the school were being disregarded through the thoughtlessness and negligence of the girls and that "something ought to be done about it." Committees were appointed, — the "Observing Committee," with the duty of watching for specific practices which needed to be corrected and reporting them to the class (the offenses, not the names of the offenders); the "Advertising Committee," whose duties were to be those of publicity for any measures the group might deem necessary, the "Committee on Arrangements," which was to interview one of the Deans and try to secure the advice and assistance of the Governing Council; the "Speaking Committee," the members of which were to prepare brief talks to be delivered in other Civics classes. The writer was very much impressed with the poise, the good sense, the tact and the complete lack of arrogance of the charming young chairman. Incidentally, it was interesting to notice that the teacher of the class spoke but twice during the entire period, both times when the girls turned to her asking her advice.

In time the class project culminated in a list of cleverly worded suggestions arranged in an anagram with school girl drawings for illustrations. A mimeographed copy of this sheet was presented to every first term Civics pupil in the school. The members of the different committees came to school out of their session to do the typing, mimeographing, and to speak to other classes. Under the most efficient leadership of Jane D, they carried through their project to a successful conclusion. A few years later we find Jane the President of the Governing Council. Jane is still in school preparing for a career as a nurse. We are happy in the knowledge that her Civics class gave her an opportunity to exercise her fine gifts of leadership and to develop them through worth-while and purposeful activity.

Concetta F

Concetta F, a smiling, brown-eyed little daughter of Italy, deplored the fact that her block in the outskirts of Brooklyn had no sewer and that on rainy days the cellars were filled with water from the cesspools in the yards. Couldn't something be done about it? Most assuredly! Why not do it? Armed with the necessary information, Concetta departed, and presently returned with the news that she had written the Borough President and that he had sent her a "paper" which she was to get signed by the property owners of her neighborhood. Concetta not only secured the necessary number of signatures, but one evening dressed in her Sunday best she called upon the Borough President at his home and presented the petition in person. Six weeks later, a triumphant Concetta reported that "they had started work on the sewer" and, later still, that the sewer was completed and everybody happy.

We do not overlook the fact that there may have been other reasons than Concetta's petition motivating the officials responsible for the laying of the sewer pipes, but that has noth-

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ing to do with the fact that Concetta functioned one hundred per cent as a citizen, and that her methods and her zeal were not only superior to those of most school children but to those of most adult citizens as well. Assistance if not the initial urge came in this case directly from the Civics teacher.

COMMENT

One of our most thoughtful teachers contends that "it usually takes many years to prove that a pupil was a gifted pupil." She cites a boy whom she taught twenty-five years ago, who was considered worthless by all of his teachers except herself. She urged that he be given to her by the school authorities as her special problem. Today this "boy" is a well known writer and lecturer on Ornithology, who says that his success is due to the fact that a teacher touched a responsive chord in a listless boy and wakened him to new life. "But," adds the teacher, "He never *was* a superior pupil."

THIRD FALLACY

This brings us to our third and last fallacy, that, since we cannot measure our results, we have no right to assume that there are any.

The writer had the rare opportunity many years ago of sitting under Professor Helen Gray Cone at Hunter College. The inspiration of those lectures, the influence of Professor Cone's personality, have lingered down the years. But in her college days the writer was a shy, reticent, inarticulate adolescent who could not possibly have voiced to Professor Cone what the lectures were doing for her. Nor does Professor Cone know to this day how much the writer owes her.

Once in a while the true teacher discovers, perhaps by the merest chance, that she has had a measure of success through some contact that she would probably have designated as casual. Then she finds new courage for her work and for the belief that the new generation will travel faster and farther than hers, thanks to the enlightened leadership of our bright pupils. The acceleration of speed and the increase in distance directly due to her efforts she knows not. Time alone will tell whether her pupils are even traveling in the right direction. But there are today many superior men and women who are spending their lives in service, who were at one time pupils in our public high schools. Of course the question is, "Are they fine because of or in spite of their teachers?"

WHAT OUGHT WE TO DO?

This question is not answered by a descripiton of technique or methodology. (See addenda for methods used in our department which we have found worth while and which, as a result of this discussion we have resolved to use more frequently in the future.) It goes deeper, much deeper than that. If we teachers are really sincere in our work, if we honestly believe in youth and its potentialities, then we shall find the ways and means of helping our bright pupils. When we discover the rarer flower in the classroom, we shall cultivate it instead of cutting off its head to trim it down to the level of the mediocrity of the schoolroom hedge. We shall do this, not by means of any devices or ingenious schemes, but by a warm interest in our pupils as we meet them day by day, and by an eagerness to inspire them to make the most of their abilities and gifts as we ourselves try to make the most of our own by dynamic living.

ADDENDA

Suggested Optional Assignments

Individual:

Camera snap shots of conditions which need to be corrected.

Photographs of the conditions after they have been corrected.

Word pictures, ditto.

"The Girl Who Sees," a part of pupil's note-book for interesting stories of community life observed by the pupil.

Writing for the school paper, the *Washington Irving Times.*

Reports of radio programs on current events or community problems.

Research work in the library.

Release from class work to browse in the department files.

Charts, maps, cartoons, graphs, diagrams, especially in art classes.

Coaching of slow pupils.

Application of the Civics work in service.

Group:

Class scrap books.

Committee projects.

Debates.

Dramatization.

Special programs for Arbor Day, Memorial Day, etc.

Club Work:

The Washington Irving Civics Club has been a splendid field for offering opportunities for the self-development of our superior pupils. Special emphasis has been placed on community service.

MABEL SKINNER,
Chairman, Civics Department.
Washington Irving High School.

THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE REVISED COÖPERATIVE SPANISH TESTS AT THE DEWITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL

IN the fall of 1932, the Coöperative Test Service requested that DeWitt Clinton High School give an experimental form of a test in Spanish to a number of pupils. We understood that the aim of this test would be to serve as a substitute for our own examinations. It was therefore thought advisable to see how well the parts of this test correlated with scores objectively obtained in our uniform examinations, as well as with the marks

1. The data furnished by the Coöperative Test Service for the experimental form of the Coöperative Spanish test did not include a total score.

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obtained in the Regents' examinations. The following information was available for 99 second year boys:

The mark obtained in the Regents examination;

The score obtained in the uniform examination (objectively arrived at);

The score obtained in the reading part of the Coöperative Spanish test (experimental form); and

The score obtained in the grammar part of the Coöperative Spanish test (experimental form).

The correlation coefficients among all the variables were calculated and are presented in Table 1.

So that we might have some measure of the reliability of our own uniform examination, the scores obtained by the same 99 pupils were divided into total of the even questions and total of the odd questions, and the correlation determined. The coefficient was .60, and when the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was applied to determine the reliability of a test twice as long, the coefficient derived was .75.

TABLE I

Correlation Coefficients of the Regents' Examination Marks with the Uniform Examination Scores and the Parts of the Experimental Form of the Coöperative Spanish Test

N=99	Regents' Examination	Uniform Examination	Coöperative Grammar (Experimental Form)	Coöperative Reading (Experimental Form)
Date	1/33	11/32	12/32	12/32
Regents' Examination		.85	.69	.64
Uniform Examination	.85		.72	.60
Coöperative Grammar (Experimental Form)	.69	.72		.59
Coöperative Reading (Experimental Form)	.64	.60	.59	

Multiple Correlation Coefficient — Regents' Examination Mark with Coöperative Spanish Test Scores in Reading and in Grammar (Experimental Forms) = .74

Multiple Correlation Coefficient — Regents' Examination Mark with Uniform Examination Score and Coöperative Spanish Test Scores in Reading and in Grammar (Experimental Forms) = .87

To determine whether combining the experimental form of the Coöperative Spanish tests with our own test would give higher correlation with the Regents' examination marks, two multiple correlations were calculated using three variables and four variables as indicated in Table I. The multiple correlation coefficient obtained for the Regents' examination mark with the two parts of the Spanish Coöperative test raised the coefficients of .69 and .64 with grammar and reading respectively to .74. A multiple correlation coefficient of .87 was obtained between the Regents' examination mark and the best weighted combination of the uniform examination score and the scores in the parts of the Coöperative Spanish test (experimental form). This was only a slight improvement over the correlation of .85 that existed between the Regents' examination mark and the uniform examination score.

If we accept the Regents' examination as our criterion of a measure of ability in, or knowledge of, Spanish, it would appear that

1. The uniform examination scores correlated highly with the Regents' examination marks. (.85.)
2. The Coöperative grammar test scores (experimental form) and the Coöperative reading test scores (experimental form) do not correlate as well with the Regents' examination marks as the uniform examination scores do. (.69 and .64 respectively.)
3. The Coöperative grammar test scores (experimental form) and the Coöperative reading test scores (experimental form) do not correlate well with the uniform examination scores. (.72 and .60 respectively.)
4. If we were to use the experimental form of the Coöperative Spanish test in conjunction with our uniform examination, the gain in information would be indicated by the increase of .02 in the multiple correlation coefficient (.87) over the correlation coefficient of .85 which exists between the Regents' examination marks and the uniform examination scores. This gain would be so small that the expense and effort involved would not be worth the improvement in results obtained.

In December 1933, a revised form of the Coöperative Spanish test was given to our pupils. The revised form of the test consisted of three parts. Part one, a twenty-five minute Reading test, consists of forty-eight incomplete Spanish sentences to be completed by one of five multiple choice phrases and eleven short paragraphs with two or three multiple choice incomplete sentences similar to the forty-eight above, to be responded to. Part two, a twenty-five minute Vocabulary test, consists of one hundred Spanish words with five multiple choice Spanish words following each, one of which is the synonym which the pupil has to select. Part three, a forty-minute Grammar test, consists of one hundred short answer grammar questions.

The following data were available for 86 second year boys and 72 third year boys:

The Regents' examination mark in Spanish 2 Years, or Spanish 3 Years.

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The uniform examination score, Spanish 4th term, or Spanish 6th term.

The Coöperative reading score.

The Coöperative vocabulary score.

The Coöperative grammar score.

The Coöperative total score.

The correlation coefficients were computed between the Regents' examination marks and the uniform examination scores for each group, that is, for second year and for third year boys. Similarly, correlation coefficients were computed between the Regents' examination marks and the scores obtained in the parts of the Coöperative Spanish test (revised form) and between the Regents' examination marks and the total scores of the Coöperative Spanish test (revised form) for each group. All intercorrelations between the different scores were also computed and are presented in Tables II and III.

TABLE II

Correlation Coefficients between Regents' Examination Marks and the Uniform Examination Scores and with the Parts and Total Score of the Coöperative Spanish Test (Revised Form) for Second Year Boys

N = 86	Regents' Examination Spanish 2 Yrs.	Uniform Examination Spanish 4	Coöperative Reading Score Revised Form	Coöperative Vocabulary Score Revised Form	Coöperative Grammar Score Revised Form	Coöperative Total Score Revised Form
Date	1/34	11/33	12/33	12/33	12/33	12/33
Regents' Examination Spanish 2 Years		.785	.563	.322	.717	.582
Uniform Examination Spanish 4	.785		.462	.535	.766	.711
Coöperative Reading Score — Revised Form	.563	.462		.472	.761	
Coöperative Vocabulary Score — Revised Form	.322	.535	.472		.405	
Coöperative Grammar Score — Revised Form	.717	.766	.761	.405		
Coöperative Total Score Revised Form	.582	.711				
Mean	72.3	131.5	28.3	28.1	49.3	105.5
Sigma	12.0	20.7	9.1	9.4	12.6	25.6

A multiple correlation coefficient of .786 was obtained between the Regents' examination mark and the best weighted combination of the uniform examination score and the total score of the revised form of the Coöperative Spanish test with second year boys. A multiple correlation coefficient of .757 was obtained between the same variables with third year boys. It should be noted that the Regents' examinations in Spanish given in January 1934, because of their difficulty, have met with severe criticism from teachers and chairmen of Spanish departments throughout

TABLE III

Correlation Coefficients between Regents' Examination Marks and the Uniform Examination Scores and with the Parts and Total Score of the Coöperative Spanish Test (Revised Form) for Third Year Boys

N = 72	Regents' Examination Spanish 3 Yrs.	Uniform Examination Spanish 6	Coöperative Reading Score Revised Form	Coöperative Vocabulary Score Revised Form	Coöperative Grammar Score Revised Form	Coöperative Total Score Revised Form
Date	1/34	11/33	12/33	12/33	12/33	12/33
Regents' Examination Spanish 3 Years		.681	.574	.581	.730	.742
Uniform Examination Spanish 6	.681		.719	.564	.717	.794
Coöperative Reading Score — Revised Form	.574	.719		.682	.678	
Coöperative Vocabulary Score — Revised Form	.581	.564	.682		.642	
Coöperative Grammar Score—Revised Form	.730	.717	.678	.642		
Coöperative Total Score — Revised Form	.742	.794				
Mean	68.3	90.0	37.1	31.3	53.7	122.4
Sigma	11.3	21.2	14.3	12.1	13.5	34.7

the State, and that it may be because of this exceptional difficulty that the correlation coefficients between the uniform examination scores and the Regents' examination marks are somewhat lower in 1933 than they were in 1932.

Outstanding among the correlation coefficients in Tables II and III are the uniformly low ones wherever vocabulary scores are involved, and the uniformly high ones wherever grammar is involved. Vocabulary being such an integral part of knowledge of a foreign language, a test of vocabulary should correlate very highly with a reasonable criterion of knowledge of that language. Even though the correlation coefficients wherever vocabulary is involved for the sixth term students are somewhat better than they are for the fourth term students, they seem to be, nevertheless, much below what one should expect them to be. Thus it was that the uniformly low correlations with vocabulary suggested to us the investigation of a possible cause. The frequency of use of Spanish vocabulary being available in the Buchanan list (*Spanish Word List*), a study of the frequency of use of the words in the vocabulary test was undertaken with the coöperation of the Spanish Department. The results of this study are given in Table IV.

The vocabulary test was made more difficult by the multiple choice words being given in Spanish. Such a test requires a knowledge of vocabulary that enables the pupils to understand the meanings of Spanish words and of

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TABLE IV

Frequency of Use of the Test Words and of the Recognition Words in the Coöperative Spanish Vocabulary Test (Revised Form)

	Test Words	Cumulative Totals	Mulitple Choice Words	Cumulative Totals	Cumulative Total Percent
1st Five Hundred of Frequency	3		42		
2nd Five Hundred of Frequency	5	8	59	101	22%
3rd Five Hundred of Frequency	6	14	51	152	33%
4th Five Hundred of Frequency	7	21	29	181	39%
5th Five Hundred of Frequency	9	30	44	225	49%
				MEDIAN	
6th Five Hundred of Frequency	9	39	32	257	56%
7th Five Hundred of Frequency	8	47	32	289	63%
MEDIAN					
8th Five Hundred of Frequency	10	57	31	320	69%
9th Five Hundred of Frequency	7	64	30	350	76%
10th Five Hundred of Frequency	5	69	77	427	92%
11th Five Hundred of Frequency and beyond	31	100	35	462	100%

Thirty-eight (38) of the multiple choice words appear more than once.

their Spanish synonyms. Three of the examples selected from the middle portion of the test are given herewith:

49. Simiente — 1. Mosquito. 2. Jazmín. 3. Aprobacíon. 4. Semilla. 5. Corrida.

59. Congoja—1. Placer. 2. Aflicción. 3. Compañía. 4. Llave. 5. Animal.

60. Estruendo — 1. Morada. 2. Sendero. 3. Escalera. 4. Gusano. 5. Ruido.

Table IV also indicates the frequency of use of the multiple choice words.

The vocabulary requirements according to the New York City syllabus for two years of Spanish are as follows:

First semester—150 words.
Second semester—200 additional.
Third semester—250 additional.
Fourth semester—300 additional.
Total—900.

The New York State syllabus of the State Department of Education, gives the following vocabulary requirements for two years of Spanish:

At the end of the first semester—300 words.

At the end of the second semester—350 additional.

At the end of the third semester—400 additional.

At the end of the fourth semester—450 additional.

Total—1500.

These requirements indicate a maximum of 1,500 different Spanish words for pupils who have completed two years of Spanish. If this basis be used as a criterion for judging the reasonableness of the vocabulary test included in the Coöperative Spanish test (revised form) then it would appear that second year pupils should be expected to be familiar with about 14 of the test words out of 100, and about 152 (33%) of the 462 recognition words. This study did not include a detailed analysis of whether the recognition words offered with the 14 test words referred to were within the 1,500 most frequently used Spanish words. Possibly they are, but it may well be that the recognition words offered in connection with these 14 test words are far beyond that which we can reasonably expect these students to know and thus further reduce the probability of a correct response.

The revised form of the Coöperative Spanish test may be taken to be unsuitable for general use in DeWitt Clinton High School in its present form from the following indications:

1. The correlations of the reading scores, the vocabulary scores, and the total scores with the Regents examination marks used as a criterion are not high enough.
2. Too great a number of the words in the vocabulary test are selected from the less frequent levels as determined by the Buchanan Spanish Word List.
3. The form of the vocabulary test requiring an understanding of the meanings of Spanish synonyms makes for added difficulty that apparently is unnecessary.

ABRAHAM KROLL.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

GUIDANCE IN THE LIBRARY

"EXCEPT a living man there is nothing more wonderful than a book—a message to us from the dead—from human souls whom we never saw who lived perhaps thousands of miles away; and yet these, or those little sheets of paper, speak to us, amuse us, vivify us, teach us, cocmfort us, open their hearts to us as brothers. We ought to reverence books, to look at them as useful and mighty things."

—*Charles Kingsley.*

This material is presented from the point of view of the guidance counselor, whose job as a worker with the individual student has grown out of the problem of mass education; and whose present job will be absorbed when each classroom becomes a one-room school where each subject teacher is all things to each child.

I consider this term's experience in the library invaluable because it has shown me a side of the student's problem that can be seen in no other way.

The library is not a haven of peace and quiet. It is a place teeming with the intellectual and spiritual activity of boys and girls seeking appeasement in books. As I see it, the school library should make itself the center around which the curricular process revolves. It should be the heart of

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the school sending vitalizing power through each artery of the school body.

If the library is to complement the work of the subject teacher it must be done in a way that will foster the reading habits of children. High school students are not accustomed to the analytical methods of research. Sometimes their way is to look for a book with a title the same or similar to the topic assigned by the teacher. In my experience this term, this has happened too often to make me believe that it is due to an assignment vaguely given by the teacher.

Let us listen to some of the questions asked by children in the library.

Noting a troubled student looking at the book, I asked if I could help him. He said he was looking for "Alcohol" for a hygiene report. Another child wanted "Scientific Management." She was told about Taylor and his time, and motion studies and Gilbreth, and was shown how to find what she wanted in books not of that title.

"Have you got anything about the supernatural and Shakespeare?" was the question of an earnest English student. She thought that superstition and supernatural meant the same thing, and after a session at the dictionary, she went her way with "The Tempest."

"Have you got another book like this?" asked a boy handing me a book on photography. He had to make a report on two books.

As photography is a hobby of mine, I was able to point out there was little gain for him in reporting on two books just because he had to; that the book he had chosen was published in 1925; that there had been many changes since that time. He agreed that he wanted to report on photography rather than on two books about photography. He was induced to delimit his project; to decide just what point he wished to convey to his teacher and the class and was then shown how to go about securing the information.

"How can I find out about the day of a noble in the French Revolution?" I answered, "Well, before you start, why not decide on an outline of a day, and then you can look up how each thing was done?" He said he didn't know, but by telling me what he did himself during the day, he outlined that a noble in the French Revolution would get up in the morning, dress, eat, work, play, and go to sleep. I then put in his hand a copy of Whipple's "How to Study Effectively"; suggested that he read about how to take notes; and left him with some books on the French Revolution.

Some time later he came over to the desk, his face shining with the joy of discovery. "Thank you," he beamed at me, "for showing me that book. I never could have done my work so quickly if I hadn't read how to do it first."

The school library needs to develop a mechanism for the student's self-help that will make research a joyful exploration in each new topic assigned. Since it is impossible for the library to give each student individual

training along these lines, a topical bibliography for each syllabus in the curriculum meets this need.

Because I am familiar with the Civics II syllabus, I shall use it as an example of what can be done.

Civics II covers the world we live in, the world as it was, and the world of leisure toward which we are evolving. Civics II is one of the most vital forms of group guidance. To function completely, it depends on creative reading on the part of student and teacher.

There is no single text-book nor can there ever be written a single text-book with which to teach Civics II. The whole world of books comes somewhere within its scope. Our own school library has a selection of books splendid for the purposes of Civics II. For proper functioning in the library, it is necessary to keep these books classified according to the Dewey system; and unless there is a syllabus index to lead one to the various Dewey classifications, the books are lost to the mind of the student and the librarian, for the purpose of Civics II or any other given subject in the Curriculum.

I have the temerity to state that books may become lost to the mind of the librarian because one has shown me that it can happen.

One day when my enthusiasm for a book on primitive man lead me to say aloud, "Here's a good book for Civics II," I was told, "That's Archeology." On another occasion when I was helping to move the books on the shelves, I noticed "Shakepeare's Day In England." I saw in it a way to tie up Civics with Literature. "Here's a delightful book of Civics II—Shakespeare's time was the handicraft period, wasn't it?" I said. "Yes," answered my partner in moving books, "but that's not Civics."

Following is a very incomplete list of books in our library which from their titles would seem useful in connection with Civics II. Careful examination of each book's subject matter in relation to the topics in the syllabus would be necessary before one could know the extent of its usefulness.

Indexing, by pages or chapters, according to the topics of the syllabus would be necessary for the student's self-help.

Putnam: Books and Their Makers In the Middle Ages.
Campbell and Thomas: Magazines and Newspapers of Today.
Flint: The Editorial.
Harrington: Writing for Print.
Lord: The Young Man and Journalism.
Rolt-Wheeler: News Hunters.
Whipple: How To Study Effectively.
Bennett: How To Live on Twenty-four Hours a Day.
Schauffler: Adventures in Habit Kraft.
Baker: In the Light of Myth.
Brown: In the Days of Giants.
Marshall: The Story of Human Progress.
Beard: America Faces the Future.
Ross: Civic Sociology.
Towne: Social Problems.

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King and Barnard: Our Community Life.
Chase: A New Deal.
Landis: The Third American Revolution.
Rugg: An Introduction to American Civilization.
Fisher: Resources and Industries of the U. S.
Lippincot and Tucker: Economic and Social History of the U. S.
Addams: Twenty Years at Hull House.
Addams: The Second Twenty Years at Hull House.
Beard: Short History of American Labor Movement.
Carlton: History and Problems of Organized Labor.
Hamilton: In America Today.
Herbertson: Man and His Work.
Johnson: We and Our Work.
Pollak-Tippett: Your Job and Your Pay.
Tufts: The Real Business of Living.
Wald: The House on Henry Street.
Chase: Tragedy of Waste.
Cades: Jobs for Girls.
Reed: Earth for Sam.
Ernst and White: Opportunity Ahead.
Fancher: Getting a Job and Getting Ahead.
Giles: Vocational Civics.
Graham: How to Get a Job During A Depression.
Hasbrouck: The Hall With Doors.
Hawksworth: What Are You Going To Be?
Kitson: How to Find the Right Vocation.
Lawes: 20,000 Years in Sing Sing.
Dewey: The School and Society.
Dewey: Schools of Tomorrow.
Jacks: The Education of the Whole Man.
Fleischman: Careers for Women.
Leuck: Fields of Work for Women.
Lyon: Making a Living.
Adams: Women Professional Workers.
Cooly, Rogers and Belman: My Life Work.
Menge: Jobs for the College Graduate in Science.
Procter: Vocations.
Allen: A Guide to the Study of Occupations.
Rodger: Careers.
Smith and Blough: Planning a Career.
Smith: Your Biggest Job.
Toland: Choosing the Right Career.
Ferris and Moore: Girls Who Did.
Gauss: Life in College.
Gauss: Through College at Nothing A Year.
Eichler: Customs of Mankind.
Bloomfield: Chain Stores.
Smith: Commerce and Industry.
Whitbeck: Industrial Geography.
Brigham: From Trail to Railway.
Bone: The Lookout Man.
Diggle: The Romance of a Modern Liner.
Forde: Ancient Mariner.
Hawks: The Romance of a Merchant Ship.
Dorling: All About Ships.
Paine: The Old Merchant Marine.
Scott: An Analysis of Writing.
Shipherd: The Fine Art of Writing.

Carpenter and Wood: Our Environment, How We Use and Control It.
Carpenter and Wood: Our Environment, Its Relation to Us.
Brown, Bumstead, Johnson, Shelsinger, Gregory, Woodroff } The Development of The Sciences
Caldwal and Slosson: Science Remaking the World.
Thurston: Our Surroundings.
Fabre: The Story Book of Science.
Law: Science in Literature.
Wiggam: The New Decalogue of Science.
Slosson: Creative Chemistry.

I have cited above books from only six of the twelve Dewey classifications, beginning with 028 P98 and going through 540 S5.

Fiction and the following numbers with their corresponding subjects have not been touched.

600	Useful Art
700	Finance
800	Literature
910, 919	Travel
920B	Biography
900, 909, 930, 999	History

Yet I know from my passing observation of the titles on our library shelves that reading material organized from these untouched numbers would yield rich results for the Civics II syllabus.

This organized material can be put in the form of a typewritten library handbook for Civics II. This handbook should be a tool for the student's succesful use of the library. If he is successful in finding information in books, we can be sure he is well on the way to the reading habit and toward what Mary Wright Plummer calls the. . . .

"Joys of Reading."

1. Joy of familiarity, the feeling that goes with once-upon-a-time stories of childhood.

2. Joy of surprise, like then-the-door-opened-and-then-he-saw-a-light.

3. Joy of sympathy, the feeling that the author is congenial, that he is telling a fascinating story and you are listening entranced.

4. Joy of appreciation, you read and smile or weep, turn back and read again, and again.

5. Joy of expansion, to feel that when you have finished a book your horizon has broadened and that your outlook on life is brighter, that your experience is richer.

6. Joy of shock, like a sudden dash of cold water, but what refreshing sensations follow!

7. Joy of revelation which comes from finding yourself in the words of some author.

ESTHER SHERLOCK.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

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HIGH POINTS

On Motivating the Composition

Every teacher has his own "pet" methods of motivating a composition lesson. Perhaps you may be interested in hearing some of mine.

1. All young boys and girls are lured by the thought of carrying on a secret and exciting correspondence with an unknown friend. Why not let your students have this "thrill?" It's not hard. Let two classes of the same grade of work interchange a series of letters through the services of a "postman," the teacher. Strict secrecy should be observed by using a system of letters, the key of which is known only by the "postman." Thus, a student designated as AKB may know merely that his unknown friend is XYZ. The children write surprisingly well, knowing their letters are to be read by a mysterious stranger. Their interest is further heightened by the promise of permitting revelations in the last letter.

2. I frequently have book reports handed in in the form of a striking advertisement, or in the fashion of a program, à la Theatre Guild. This second method encourages the study of an author's life. Book covers, too, may be used, information about the book appearing on the inner flaps of the cover.

3. All boys and girls enjoy writing for a class or interclass newspaper. Some older students prefer writing special sections of the paper. Some enjoy writing a series of editorials, or a number of letters to an editor, while others prefer turning out an original column. Many of my seventh term students have recently done excellent work in column-writing. Some of the titles of these columns are "I believe," "Twenty Years From Now," "Isn't It Surprising That—," and "What Every Well-Read Student Should Know."

4. For the student who has a flair for imaginative work, there are many methods of motivation. Tell the student to read the public notices, and the lost and found columns in the newspapers. Tell them, too, to listen to the police calls on the radio. Such sources will most certainly supply the pupil with the germ for a story. Of course, the students must be warned that their stories are not to be unduly melodramatic, but really true to life.

5. To motivate the letter of application, one of the many types of business letter which must be mastered in the English room, I occasionally allow my students to apply to some business man I know, and I let him choose the successful candidate from the most forceful letter.

6. Oral English compositions, too, need careful preparation. Young students respond well to radio hours, especially if the teacher provides a microphone and appoints a student announcer. They also enjoy interviewing each other, or persons, in their neighborhood, as, for example, the local fireman, newsboy, or grocery boy. Care should be taken in this case that the persons interviewed should be personally known by the pupils and their families. Other students enjoy giving a series of travelogues. This is especially valuable, for it correlates English work with geography, history, and art. The teacher, with the aid of the students, works out a good itinerary. Each student then chooses his favorite port of call, and seeks for information on this topic. The student should be guided by exact references to interesting books in the school library, and by the use of booklets published by travel agencies.

7. Finally, even remedial composition work should be given definite and interesting motivation. If a student needs daily practice in writing, in an effort to overcome some important structural error, let him keep a diary of his daily happening. The teacher can easily correct three or four sentences each day, and the student profits greatly by this constant supervision. The keeping of a diary, moreover, appeals to young students and transforms an annoying duty into a pleasurable task.

DOROTHY BYRNS.
John Adams High School.

Tempering Marshal Metal

The vital need for partial self-government in our educational system has recently become so apparent that today the problem of organization and administration of school government by young school citizens, appears to be one of the most important phases of citizen and character education.

This paper will endeavor to show the need for minute and detailed organization in one phase of self-government, namely a marshal force selected from the student body, and how this need is being met in our school with the hope that it may suggest methods and ideas which may be beneficial to others in somewhat similar situations.

SITUATION

First let us glance at this situation:

a Twelve teachers in an annex.

b 480 students in first, second and third terms.

c Using two floors of an elementary school building, with the elementary division up to 6A still using the remainder of the building.

d Fifty-four marshals.

May I present a brief outline of what was done.

In the Fall of 1932 Mr. Hoffman, who is the teacher in charge of our annex, permitted the writer to assume charge of a marshal force.

SELECTION

The teachers were invited to send in their lists of names of boys they could recommend for the squad, always bearing in mind ability, high scholarship and good character. These lists were fused and alphabetically arranged to avoid duplicate names.

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Each teacher was asked to consult with Mr. Hoffman about the list and to cross out any names he saw as unfit material. This list was then divided into three sections:

1. Those who "survived."
2. Those who were crossed out by only one teacher.
3. Those crossed out by more than one teacher.

List 3 was immediately filed in the waste basket; list 2 was put away for possible reference in the future, and list 1 became the official marshal list. The boys were informed that as soon as their first third marks were received, their names would be rechecked. Those failing more than one major and one minor would be dropped.

ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL

a Official Report Slips were needed. About 500 like the one shown in Figure I were printed. Each marshal was given several to keep with him for possible use.

Dean Annex - Marshal Force

Marshal Report

Name Date
Room Offense
Signature

FIGURE I

b About 200 *marshal identification cards* were printed, a facsimile of which is presented in Figure II. This was done without any cost to the school body, for one marshal who had a press of his own and was imbued with the desired spirit, volunteered to have these cards and slips printed.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON HIGH SCHOOL
DEAN STREET ANNEX

MARSHAL CLUB

ROOM
POST PERIOD
FACULTY
EXPIRES ADVISOR

FIGURE II

c "*Blue-Prints*" *of the layout of all posts*, including lunchrooms, office, staircase, halls, fountains, fire drill posts, lavatory and assembly room were mimeographed and ready for names of marshals to be inserted in proper post space.

d 150 *Marshal Buttons* were ordered, costing but a few dollars, and are used from year to year, the boys replacing lost pins.

e *A Small Filing Cabinet* with alphabetical arrangement was purchased.

f *Final Rating Sheets for Captains* of periods to use in grading their staffs were mimeographed (Figure III).

Name of Marshal	1/3 Rating	2/3 Rating	Final Ratings
James White	3	5	5
Thomas Blake	5	4	4

FIGURE III

Key to chart: 5 = Excellent
4 = Good
3 = Fair
2 and 1 = Poor

g *Supervisor's Rating Sheet* to grade all captains and marshals were mimeographed as shown in Figure IV.

Name of Marshal or Captain	Captain's Rating	Supervisor's Rating	Faculty Adviser Rating
1. Robert Glaren	4	4	5
2. Sam Blatel	5	5	5
3. Jack Strang	3	4	3

FIGURE IV

The purpose of this rating was twofold:

a. To give marshal definite G. O. credit.

b. To act as an indication as to whether or not marshal was to remain.

h "*Commendation Cards*" were printed (Figure V). This was a new idea, conceived and developed by the squad. This permits a marshal to write out a card for exceptional effort of a boy in making the running of the school more pleasant and efficient. This "positive" feature is stressed in preference to the "negative" report. In many cases one has been used to "neutralize" the other.

Dean Annex - Marshal Force

COMMENDATION CARD

Name Date
Room Post
Commended For:
Signature

FIGURE V

The greatest amount of time was spent instilling in our boys a sense of coöperation, kindness, firmness, friendliness, respect, tact and other worth-while traits. Different methods of behavior, how to set examples, how to report boys, "straightening out" boys were explained, and actually practised. Demonstrations were of the most practical nature. The boys were given to understand that the entire administration of the school was behind them; they were to be firm and just, never bold and rude. To be gentlemanly and talk in relatively low tones was the byword.

It was suggested that a marshal try to place himself in the position of the boy he had detained and then with a little clear and just thinking to do what he felt right. Thus far, the above is the best method we know of determining how severe an infraction has been committed and what type of punishment is suited to the misdeed.

The captains, who elect a supervisor and the marshal squads, number fifty-four. The reason it is advantageous to have so many marshals in the force is that the standards and ideals set up by the group are diffused more readily throughout the remainder of the school.

PRESENT TRAINING

Meetings are held about every three weeks and different problems are discussed. Varied experiences are brought up and means of coping with them are considered. The force is encouraged to ask questions and discuss freely during meetings. Methods of handling situations are suggested by member marshals and, where necessary, modified by the faculty member.

The "conference method" is stressed. This entails the marshal's explaining the infraction to the boy and in a gentlemanly tone and manner suggesting the proper mode of behavior for

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the future. A report on paper is the last resort, suggested only after several attempts have been made to "straighten out" a boy.

Marshal Check-Up

In order to maintain the high standards which the boys have set up, they are kept up to par through the following channels:

a Report card at each third of term must show no more than one major and one minor failure.
b A student may report a marshal if he has substantial grounds.
c The captains make daily check-up and written monthly report.
d Teachers are given about half a dozen cards (Figure VI) which may be filled out at the discretion of the teacher and turned in against a marshal. One such report is sufficient automatically to remove a marshal from his post.

Faculty Report on Marshal

Marshal's Name Room
Post Date
Specific Charge:
Teacher

Figure VI

Cooperation

Since the inception of the system, we have noticed a decided change in "tone" of the annex. Coöperation with the marshal force is evident in every part of the building. The teaching staff and Mr. Hoffman have been splendid in their manner of coöperation and helpful suggestions, without whose assistance the marshal system would not be the well-rounded governmental body it is today.

Progress

From our files we have noticed that the drop in infraction of rules has been about 80% since the beginning of the Spring of 1932, and we do not hesitate to say that it is in the main due to the spirit and "tone" which permeates the building and which these marshals have learned to convey to the "400." We may also add that, with their continual experiences and training, they are advancing toward a point where they will be able to judge to a small degree the moral issue involved, and with human conscience in a given circumstance choose the act which is right from that which is wrong. With this, however, they are still asked to use several grains of salt, since, as Roy E. Whitney says in "Morality in the Making:" "Right is what we approve. The limits are set only by the nature of man, and within those limits we may expect great diversity of moral reaction."

Nat L. Rochlin,
In Charge of Marshals.
Alexander Hamilton High School,
Dean Street Annex.

The Art Program at Lincoln*

The school life of the average Abraham Lincoln High School student includes a span of four years somewhere between his twelfth and eighteenth birthdays.

Art Education at Lincoln concerns itself with three types of students in its aim to stimulate good judgment, offer opportunity for its exercise, and effect emotional impressions of the right kind.

1. For the many students—all of them—who are the future beneficiaries, users, and hence controllers of art in its various manifestations, Lincoln offers (and requires) Art Appreciation for two forty-minute periods per week for four terms to the end that they may become a more discriminating and appreciative jury of the things which surround them and that they may more nearly objectify the tenets of good taste which the course seeks to inculcate.

2. For the students, who, in a world of increasing leisure time may find in art a hobby and a solace that will give emotional experiences and creational and manipulative opportunities for self-expression, the school offers an extra-curricular program of many and various art clubs. Here a teacher-adviser is able to help students to enjoy some phase of art that the teacher himself sincerely enjoys.

3. For the relatively few students who love or excel in art expression and for those who desire to test their ability and interest further, a program of elective art subjects is offered.

The purpose of the Art Appreciation course is to reveal beauty in nature and man-made things by exposing students to the more beautiful manifestations that they may share to the utmost of their ability in the accumulated wealth of the ages. The common factors that unite the art of all times are considered, also, as a basis for the understanding and admiration not alone for the creations, but for their creators—whether they be Chinese yellow, African black, or French white. This perspective on peoples who are more often measured by imperialistic limitations encourages a regard and respect for the nations associated with Japanese prints, Chinese vases, African sculpture, and French painting that political considerations alone would hardly warrant. Attempts are made also to bridge the gap of time that exists between the so-called primitive and the self-daubed modern in terms of their mutual contributions to the arts and crafts.

The specific aims of art appreciation as cited by the New York City Syllabus are:

(a) To engender love of beauty.
(b) To develop good taste.
(c) To enrich life and train for leisure.
(d) To gratify the desire to create.
(e) To encourage talent.

By art appreciation the school means enjoyment or displeasure that artistic effort may inspire, coupled with the knowledge of some of the factors that may have prompted the reaction. Skill in drawing is not here considered of prime importance although some ability to organize or to relate everyday objects harmoniously and an acquaintance with some of the masters of art are expected by-products of the course. At the culmina-

*Reply to a query from Professor G. Cox, University of California.

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tion of the art appreciation courses, Lincoln offers a test only as a measure of the success or failure of its methods of teaching. Fulfillment of a reasonable amount of attendance, research, discussion, and museum visiting is considered sufficient criteria for promotion.

In the Elective Art courses, students may add only five periods of art per week to their regular program that they may not find it necessary to omit any study from the course which the school considers a fair educational program for a generally intelligent person. The philosophy back of this ruling emphasizes the fact that possibly in art more than in any other field, must the creator be a superior person, since only those thoughts or ideas ought to be made imperishable in pigment or stone that are worthy of perpetuation. The tendency of the department is more than sympathetic towards the point of view that is sometimes called "modern." Beginning problems, for example, include compositions using geometric figures—straight lines, triangles, circles, squares, etc.—rather than realistic "steals." Stealing a head from one source, a garment from another, and a background from a third to form a so-called original composition is discouraged at the same time that beginning students are given an opportunity to get a feeling of success *honestly*. Skills are taught as the need for them arises.

The work of the students of Elective Art subjects and their contributions to the school's literary-art publications are used to help raise the standards of taste of the school generally. They are considered an important aid in the school's program because the students' creations are more readily understandable by other students than are many accepted masterpieces. Supplementing the work of the elective art students is the service rendered by an Art Squad.

The Art Squad is composed of a group of some eighteen students who take elective art subjects and use one of their free periods besides in working in the art office. They help the chairman in rendering vital service to the school in his attempt to maintain the good-will of all the other departments. They supervise, also, several Art Service periods after school to which students of other departments come with their problems that may require drawing. To them supplies are made available and student counsel given. In return for this service, the members of the art squad receive a great deal of special and individual attention which could not normally be given to a class of the usual New York proportions. This special student-teacher relationship has enabled a number of the graduating members to obtain scholarships at leading local art schools, not alone free of tuition but often free, too, of a term or more of the accepted four years of study.

LEON FRIEND.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Vitalizing an Extra-Curricular Activity

(Being the Log of the Pan American Society at the Townsend Harris High School)

Last September the Harris Chapter of the Pan American Society undertook a project to embody the detailed study of our southern sister republics. Mexico was the first country selected for special study as Project Unit 1 in this series. Each of the members selected some one phase of Mexican history, culture, or civilization that appealed to him. After some fine experience in the intricacies of research, which entailed seeking information from the various libraries of New York City, the various consular offices, the Mexican Chamber of Commerce, the Pan American Union at Washington, the United States Department of Commerce, and many Mexican business concerns, members were ready to report on their findings. The topics chosen by the club members included "Railroads in Mexico," "Aviation in Mexico," "Mexican Social Classes," "Education in Mexico," "Heroes of Mexico," and many others. It was a most gratifying experience to observe at each of the several meetings devoted to Mexico that a very spirited discussion followed each of the reports.

For several weekly meetings preceding and during the project study of Mexico, there were special programs. At one meeting Latin-American music, oral and recorded, was presented. At another meeting, which proved very popular judging by the fact that over two hundred students attended, several reels of motion pictures on Latin-America were shown. These were graciously loaned by the Grace Line.

As a climax to the study of Mexico, a real treat was provided when we persuaded Dr. Alberto Rembao of the Latin-American Press Syndicate, and editor of the "Nueva Democracia," to come to one of our meetings and tell us those things about his native Mexico that could not be unearthed in the student researches. So cordial and enlightening was Dr. Rembao that the chairman had to call a halt to the hour of student questions that the speaker so kindly entertained and answered after his own remarkable address of an hour's duration.

As the mid-year approached, the Chapter determined to study the Argentine Republic as Project Unit II. Several excellent student reports were given on the civilization and importance of this great Southern neighbor. The faculty adviser, lest he be accused of shirking his part in this "research and report" game, prepared an illustrated address on yerba mate, the favorite beverage of the Argentine. Curious eyes examined the exhibition of a "bombilla" and "mate" bowl, both of which came from Buenos Aires. At the close of that meeting, each of the members received some Argentine yerba mate. Many of the boys reported that by following suggested directions in the brewing of this characteristically South American beverage, they were able to enjoy this excellent tea.

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After the start of the second half of the school year, immediately following upon the election of the new club officers, the boys were convinced that several important plans on the club agenda made it advisable to postpone our project units for a while. But the research spirit had become so imbued in the boys that as a result of much persuasion, the program committee permitted a few general talks. The topics now included the civilization of Mu, Musical forms in South America, Airplane routes in Latin America, the sign and picture language of the Aztecs.

The gala event of this past term was the joint meeting held at the Townsend Harris High School of the Washington Irving High School and the Townsend Harris chapters of the Pan American League. At this meeting, there was presented a carefully prepared program consisting of a Spanish-English play, an address, a skit, and some unique musical numbers both vocal and instrumental. When the business of this meeting was over, refreshments and dance music were provided. It was with deep regret that members of both chapters saw this novel coöperative meeting come to a close. The tremendous success of this joint meeting would have been entirely impossible were it not for the very kind assistance rendered the club by the Director of Townsend Harris High School. Professor George M. Falion, who so generously coöperated with us in securing for us the use of City College rooms and equipment at this and many other occasions.

Many more meetings of equal interest were still to come. Through the courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History, our chapter was able to devote an entire meeting to viewing over fifty slides depicting scenic wonders of Central and South American countries. At the following meeting the boys arranged a debate upon several aspects of Pan-Americanism. The discussion of the arguments presented, enlisted eager expressions of opinion from every single member. The excitement provoked by this discussion may have been the cause of the following week's program. "Pugnacious Tendencies in South Americans" was the title of the address delivered to the club by a popular member of the faculty, Mr. L. Courtines.

As the spring season progressed the boys felt a wanderlust come upon them. They sought an open air meeting on the spacious decks of some great liner stopping at South and Central American ports. This time the United Fruit Company was kind enough to act as host to our chapter when we were permitted to visit one of their modern liners at its New York port, the palatial Quirigua. The boys showed keen interest in the explanations of the intricacies involved in the maneuvering of that magnificent liner. The wireless and chart rooms proved to be the greatest attractions. With this trip, last term's many activities of the Townsend Harris Chapter came to a regretful close.

Aside from its "home" programs at school, our Chapter was active in the larger circle of the Pan American League. We sent delegations to the City and Borough Councils and to the City-wide convention held at Columbia University. We have paid up our Chapter's dues and have given wholehearted support to the Spanish Fiesta and the inter-school showing of a Spanish talking film.

At each of the club's meetings, the student officers and the boys have conducted their business in a most gentlemanly and dignified fashion. The mature and orderly procedure of the meetings rendered unnecessary all but the most infrequent remarks that the boys called upon the faculty advisor to make. It is no wonder then, that the Townsend Harris High School Chapter of the Pan American League justified completely its existence as an important extra-curricular activity, fulfilling its cultural and social objectives. The natural lessons in social conduct, the sympathetic examination of other cultures and traditions, the inculcation of habits of orderly procedure involving obedience to the rules and the student elected officers of the club,—are unquestionably more worthy of development today than ever before.

The members of the Townsend Harris Chapter may justly take pride in their excellent accomplishments for the school year ending in June, 1934. The diversity of events that were presented at the weekly meetings contributed in no small degree towards doubling both the enrolled number and the keen enthusiasm of the members.

MILTON SCHWARTZ,
Faculty Adviser.
Townsend Harris High School.

The Service League at James Monroe High School

There is probably not one high school in New York City which does not make use of student help in some form or other, but not all have an organization called a Service League. Recently an attempt was made to establish an Interscholastic Service League. It was then found that some of the high schools, though encouraging students to render service, had no organization which brought together into one club those students who were outstanding because of their demonstrated coöperation and loyalty to the interests of the school.

Service, as one phase of extra-curricular activities, presents many opportunities for the practice of desired ideals, for it offers a "do" program, essential in making the individual become more intelligently self-directive. When such important matters as college entrance depend not solely upon scholarship, but also upon extra-curricular activities, and when our large colleges grant special honors at Commencement for outstanding service, it is an indication of the recognition of the place of citizenship training along with book learning. Bacon once said "Knowledge is power," but this is not true unless the knowledge is applied.

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At James Monroe High School the Service League has been in existence for eight years and it has proved to be a benefit to the school and a source of enjoyment for those students chosen to membership in this honor organization. The ideal of the society is best expressed in its motto, "Service Before Self." The Service League is composed of students in the third and fourth years who have rendered service to the school for not less than one year prior to admittance to the organization. In terms of points, as evaluated by a Point System, they must have received not less than 50 points of service credit, which is the equivalent of about ten periods per week for at least one year. Before becoming a member of the society, the student must have in addition to the 50 points of service (1) a satisfactory character rating, (2) a passing grade in at least three major subjects of the curriculum, (3) a satisfactory interview with the student council of the League, and (4) no unfavorable comments by either Faculty or present League members.

After the student has passed all these hurdles, he is installed as a member of the League at a special assembly in which he receives his first emblem of membership—a bronze pin. After a year's membership, coupled with outstanding service, the bronze pin is exchanged for a silver pin, and at graduation, the silver pin is exchanged for a gold one if the student has continued to render outstanding service. In this way, a stepping-up program is provided, a thing very essential in extra-curricular activities, but not widely used.

It can be seen that once a student has demonstrated his willingness to give service to others, the emphasis is placed on quality rather than quantity. No longer do points play a part in granting awards after the student has become a member of the League, but the quality of the service and the spirit of coöperation and loyalty are the guiding factors. The Service League has, therefore, brought together many students of fine character who may not necessarily have received high marks in scholarship but who possess the essential qualities of a good citizen.

The activities of the League are numerous and instructive. One of the important tasks is that of service placement. At the beginning of the term each official section receives a "Situations Wanted" sheet on which the students indicate the type of service they desire with the period which they wish to give up to school service. Faculty Advisers requiring student aid, such as grade advisers, attendance officers, departmental chairmen, supply squad, dean's squad, library work, and the like, send in their "Help Wanted" slips. A few capable members of the Service League are chosen to act as a "Placement Bureau." Their duty is to match the request of the teacher with the desire of the student. A regular procedure of notification is employed with a request for return mail so that the Bureau may know that the student was satisfactorily placed. The

transaction is completed by the issuing of a "Service Pass" to the student, which serves as a pass through the building for the period indicated thereon. Passes are made by another group of students under a chairman who assumes full responsibility for the correctness of items recorded.

Before a student is assigned by the Placement Bureau, another group of students is assigned to keep in touch with the Health Education Department. In this way students are prevented from going into service which may be harmful to their health. This is especially true of cardiacs. Light work is permitted for the physically handicapped if a doctor's and parents' consent slip is on file with the teacher in charge of health supervision.

During the term, every student in the school engaged in any extra-curricular activity, be it athletics, club, or service, receives a record card on which all activities for the current term are recorded. This work is again delegated to an efficient group of Service League members with a Chairman responsible for the general progress of the work. It has been found that these students are as careful as teachers, perhaps I may be bold enough to say, more so than some teachers. They feel the responsibility keenly and work efficiently.

Among some of the other activities carried on by the League are ushering at school functions, patrolling the halls during examination and Regents' week, supervising assemblies, conducting Red Cross and other drives, and, in general, being helpful whenever there is a call for service.

It can be seen that these students are receiving excellent business training as executives and organizers and are likewise learning the meaning of the word coöperation. Not only are we training capable leaders, but also intelligent followers. In short, these students are real citizens within their small community.

EUGENE C. HAUSLE,
Chairman of Service League.
James Monroe High School.

Speech and the Stenography Teacher

The development of good habits of speech in our pupils is the task of every teacher. One period a day devoted to the improvement of speech is not sufficient to counteract the influence of environment. The concentrated effort of all teachers, however, may be a force sufficient to make good speech habitual.

The shorthand teacher finds that attention to speech is a vital part of her work for two other reasons; namely,

a. Good speech is necessary to the writing of Pitman Shorthand.
b. It is an important personality factor which needs development if our pupils are to make successful business contacts.

Sir Isaac Pitman invented the first system of phonography because he was interested in two subjects—shorthand and phonetics. At the time he lived, shorthand was a subject for the intel-

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ligentsia, who used it for the writing of personal notes, diaries, and letters to friends familiar with the same system. There were many systems in vogue, but they were all systems of *short writing*. Isaac Pitman was an expert in the use of one of these systems. He was also a student of phonetics. In connection with his school work, he seriously contemplated the revision of English spelling on a phonetic basis. Instead of effecting this change, however, he invented the first system of shorthand based purely on *sound*.

He used geometric lines in various positions to represent the consonants, scientifically evolving their order according to the relative position of teeth, lips, and tongue in their sound formation. The vowels were represented by dots and dashes placed in relation to the strokes according to their vocalization. Sir Isaac was punctilious about differentiating between the various sounds of letters such as *g, d, c, s,* as in the words, *page, bag, red, stopped, city, cake, desk, does,* and carefully distinguished between vowels, diphthongs, triphones, and diphones.

The shorthand teacher today, therefore, has to give particular attention to speech—her own and the pupils'—if she would have her pupils invent outlines. A few specific ways in which she does this are the following:

1. In the early stages of learning to write shorthand, the word to be written is spoken particularly clearly by the teacher and the pupils before any writing is done.
2. Vowel sound drills are given daily in Term 1. Particular attention is given to *o, u, ah,* and *oo, oo, u*.
3. Correct pronunciation of words is required. Special drill is given to the short sound of *i* for final *y* in words like *valley, pretty,* and *happy*. The short *e* sound, too, found in prefixes like *de, le, re,* in words such as *describe, believe,* and *return,* require attention.
4. Careful enunciation of *t* and *d* is stressed as the omission or unnecessary insertion of either sound changes the outline of the word entirely and may affect the accuracy of the transcription.

Pitman Shorthand, however, is more than a sound-reporting art. Rightly taught, it becomes a *thought-reporting art*. When emphasis is placed on thought-getting and thought-reproducing, outlines or symbols are learned as the tools of *thought-recording* and the attention becomes focused on the meaning of the matter dictated, the emotional qualities of the voice giving utterance to the speaker's feelings, and the oral punctuation (pauses, speed, and inflection) which indicate to the transcriber the rhetorical effects desired.

One way to train pupils to become sensitive to these thought-conveying elements in speech, is to require oral transcription with emphasis placed on *thought-giving*. The first step in achieving this is to require every child to read over her notes before reciting. To the teacher who has never given her pupils time to read over their notes and to the visitor who drops in to see a class, the intense silence of the reading period seems long and a waste of precious time. Let a teacher get the habit of giving time to read and neither she nor the pupils will ever return to the old method of hurry and "word repeating" transcription.

If the stenography teacher is not only preparing his pupils for vocational efficiency, but is also helping his pupils to develop a pleasing personality, he gives speech training an important place in his program. The teacher himself must have a clear understanding of what constitutes the important elements of good speech, must practice them himself, and must be constantly on the alert to notice individual defects in his pupils. The shorthand teacher, therefore, tries to develop in his pupils a speech that is low, yet clear and distinct, that carries a smile, not a whine, with it, that is free from foreignisms and "stalling" habits, and that expresses thoughts clearly, pleasantly, and intelligibly.

EMMA K. FELTER.
Walton High School.

The Predictive Value of IQ's For Success in Algebra

Many of us are undoubtedly familiar with the following reply a perplexed pupil gave when asked how she knew whether to add, subtract, multiply, or divide in a given problem: "If there are lots of numbers I adds. If there are only two numbers with lots of parts (digits) I subtracts. But if there are just two numbers and one is littler than the other, it is hard. I divides if they come out even, but if they don't, I multiplies."

It would, of course, be an exaggeration to say that the algebra student is equally puzzled, but we all know he has his difficulties. A considerable amount of attention has been paid within recent years to the IQ in relation to the algebra situation. Thorndike[1] thinks "it would not be unreasonable to regard 105 or 110 as an approximate prerequisite" for elementary algebra. These figures refer to the Army Alpha score and are equivalent to a mental age of about 16 or an intelligence quotient of about 115 at the age of 14. (Only 26% of the cases used for this study have a mental age of 16 or over.) He believes that students below this level are unable to understand algebra, though they may pass. Symonds[2] is of the opinion that "one can advise pupils with IQ's below 110 not to take algebra." (Only 27% of the cases used in this study have an IQ above 110.)

We must admit that a very large number of our children come to school not merely for the cultural value the various subjects offer, but also for credit. Many of our students are preparing for college without asking us whether they are college ma-

[1] Thorndike, E. L.: "The Psychology of Algebra," 1924, page 37.
[2] Symonds, P. M.: "Measurement in Secondary Education," 1929, page 462.

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terial. Some of them are preparing for professional schools which require algebra. Whether we like it or not, many of them are simply interested in passing algebra.

A number of studies have been made comparing IQ's and achievement in first year of high school work (the various subjects combined). Some studies have been made comparing IQ's with achievement in algebra. Many of these studies are unsatisfactory for the following reasons:

1. They fail to mention how the marks were obtained and whether the marks were all given by the same teachers or by different teachers.

2. The number of cases used is too small to lead to any definite conclusions.

3. The correlations obtained are too low to have any predictive value. Also, the P. E. is rarely given.

There is considerable disagreement among educators as to what can be considered a useful correlation. According to Hull[3] a correlation of .50 has only 13% of forecasting efficiency. He says it is doubtful whether a forecasting efficiency of less than 13% ($\sqrt{}=.50$) will make the giving of tests worth while. He believes that a correlation below .50 is practically useless for prognosis.

Since the only way we can measure ability to learn is the extent to which learning has taken place, and since marks are the only measures we have, they should be obtained under uniform conditions of teaching and testing.

The pupils used in this study were all taught by the same teacher. Consequently, none had any advantages of better instruction and all took tests of equal difficulty. The tests were marked as objectively as possible and entirely free from the subjective element which enters into the usual marks given to pupils. The intelligence test used was the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability.

This study is based on 161 cases, all taking algebra for the first time. The IQ's range from 77 to 147. The median is 103. The mean is 104 (S. D. 13); 68% of the cases fall between 91 and 117.

The mental age shows a range from 12-0 to 19-6. The median is 15-0. The mean is 15-1 (S.D. 1-6). About 68% fall between 13-7 and 16-7.

The term averages show a range from 20 to 98. The median is 69. The mean is 68 (S.D. 18).

All correlations were computed by Pearson's product moment method.

The correlation, between IQ's and term averages is .30 (P. E. = .05). The correlation between M. A.'s and term averages is .26 (P. E. = .05).

TABLE I

Term averages and per cent of students in each group that received them.

IQ Group	No. in Group	Over 65%	Over 80%
Below 90	21	48%	10%
Below 95	35	57%	9%
Below 100	66	61%	18%
Below 105	85	58%	24%
Below 110	113	61%	24%

[3]. Hull, E. L.: "The Correlation Coefficient and Its Prognostic Significance." *Jr. Educ. Res.*, 1927, 15, 327.

Leaving out the extremes, that is, those which would be classified as below normal and very superior, and dividing the remaining cases into two groups, we get the following rather interesting results.

TABLE II

Term averages and per cent of students in each group that received them.

IQ Group	No. in Group	Over 65%	Over 80%	Over 90%
90-104	64	60%	28%	13%
105-120	67	60%	34%	12%

Table II shows that there is very little difference between the work of the lower IQ group and that of the higher one.

TABLE III

Distribution of students who passed the term's work.

IQ Group	No. in Group	Passed
Below 90	21	48%
Below 100	66	59%
Below 110	113	64%
90-105	64	64%
106-124	67	63%

Table III shows that a rather large per cent of students in each of the lower IQ groups passed. By the term "passed" is meant that the students were promoted into second term algebra. It does not refer to the marks designated in this study as "term averages." Again, we find, omitting the extremes, the lower and higher groups do about as well. (See last two groups in Table III.)

Another interesting fact is seen in studying the IQ's of the students who were exempt from the final examination because of their outstanding work. The one group in which exemptions were made consisted of 77 students and 28 of these were exempt.

TABLE IV

Distribution of exemptions.

IQ Group	No. in Group	No. Exempt	% of Cases Exempt
77-104	33	12	36.0
105-124	36	11	31.0
124-147	8	5	62.5

Here also, we find that the two groups share about equally in the exemptions with the lower group showing up even better than the higher one (omitting the upper extreme).

A study for boys and girls separately shows some interesting results. There are 101 boys and 60 girls. Although the IQ's and M. A.'s were about the same for both groups, only 48% of the boys made term averages of 65% or over, whereas 83% of the girls made such marks. Only 46% of the boys with IQ's below 100 passed whereas 67% of the girls with similar IQ's passed. Correlations for this study are given in Table V. Although the number of cases is too small, especially of the girls, the results are significant.

Since this study is based on first term algebra only and on a rather small number of cases, it is not conclusive. However, the results indicate that though there is some correlation, it is too low to have predictive value. Omitting the extreme cases we get a very definite indication that the lower IQ's do about as well as

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TABLE V—Summary

IQ	No.	Range	Med.	Mean	Sigma	Cor. with Term Aver.	P. E.
Entire Group	161	77-147	103	104	13	.30	.05
Boys	101	77-147	104	104	14	.35	.06
Girls	60	84-139	102	104	11	.23	.08
Mental Age							
Entire Group	161	12-0 to 19- 6	15- 0	15-1	1-6	.26	.05
Boys	101	12-0 to 19- 6	15- 2	15-2	1-7	.29	.06
Girls	60	12-0 to 17-11	14-11	15-0	1-4	.26	.08
Term Averages							
Entire Group	161	20- 98	69	68	18		
Boys	101	20- 94	64	64	18		
Girls	60	34- 98	74	74	15		

the higher ones. A low correlation may indicate that we are overemphasizing the amount of intelligence required to learn algebra. It may also mean that the group tests do not test innate ability or that they do not test the kind of ability required to learn algebra.

ROSE RICHTER.

Curtis High School.

A Voice-Saving Device

Weary of saying "Louder, please!" and "I don't think John can hear you," the writer finally decided to have a sign made bearing these cautions. This was placed in the form of a strip running across the top of the wardrobe at the side of the room. Thereafter, when the necessity arose, the writer would call attention to the sign (which in its final form read: "Everyone wants to hear you— Speak Louder!"), sometimes with a quiet gesture, more often with a mere glance of the eye.

During the elocution periods, when the students were delivering prepared talks before the class, a boy armed with a pointer would rise whenever necessary and point, dramatically, to the message.

In a short time the necessity for pointing to the sign practically disappeared. The mere consciousness of its existence proved a sufficient reminder.

JESSE GRUMETTE.

Abraham Lincoln High School.

Suspended Judgment in History

It is generally considered orthodox pedagogical procedure in American and European history courses to conclude the problems of the Industrial Revolution and their attendant solutions with debates on the various topics such as socialism, unemployment insurance, child labor, and the like. This is the policy invariably followed by the better teacher and approved by supervisory officials. It is supposed to result, among other things, in training in "suspended judgment" and "individual decisions" based on facts and arguments pro and con.

Despite this justification some teachers are skeptical of the value of this method of asking youngsters to reach a decision which their elders and even mature students of the subject are unable to reach. If perchance a student should have reached a decision, then we try to confuse him by declaring that he ought to suspend judgment. Inevitably this method not only leads to indecision, but makes a virtue of it. Furthermore, most teachers struggle with a twofold mental conflict: first, in avoiding the indoctrination of their own decision, and, second, in the despair of hoping that this method of exchanging pros and cons in class can ever result in a solution for the student. The more one teaches these controversial problems, the greater grow the doubts of one's own convictions and the more one feels the hopelessness of students reaching any decision, biased or unbiased. If the teacher is fortunate enough to have his problem complicated by the presence in the class of students of avowed radical beliefs, a really significant crisis is involved. It requires more than arguments to influence on one hand the radical, fully convinced of his doctrine, to suspend judgment, and on the other, the remainder of the class from ridicule of the radical's enthusiasm. And after the struggle is over one wonders how long this judgment is to be left suspended.

Suspended judgment is not a virtue in itself until it resolves itself into decision. It seems that not only are arguments necessary to establish the suspended judgment, but a method, a system or a philosophy must be provided by which this suspense may be resolved into a decision which will not, however, be indoctrination. If it does not seem to be a waste of time to spend one lesson in a debate on the relative merits of, let us say, "government control of public utilities,"—the lesson generally concluding with an exhortation to suspended judgment,—then similarly it is not a waste of time to follow up this lesson with another on how to resolve this suspended judgment into resolution, decision and justified opinion. One lesson devoted by the class to an organized mental search for a philosophy of judging is as important as a lesson in discovering that the problem exists.

A class in modern history, at the conclusion of the unit of the Industrial Revolution and the Labor Movement, suggested and evolved under the guidance and questioning of the teacher such a philosophy which is briefly described below.

The first step was to elicit from the students their choice of the political doctrines previously discussed and debated with their reasons for taking them. This random list of doctrines was drawn up and after some difficulty in organizing it, the following list was evolved, reading in the order of their increasing government control of the people and their work, from top to bottom, thus:

1. Anarchism.
2. Democracy (Economic Liberalism).
3. State Capitalism (Interventionism).

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4. Socialism.
5. Communism.
6. Fascism.
7. Absolutism.

Of course it was readily pointed out by the students that the list was inaccurate, incomplete, unfair and historically unjustifiable, but despite these protestations of the radicals in the class the list was tentatively accepted. (For the lesson itself, it matters little whether one item is given precedence over another.) Then began the application of these political doctrines:

Question: "Which type of government would best fit an island of savages?"

Answer: "Absolutism—because savages cannot decide for themselves on common aims, etc."

Question: "Which would fit a land of philosophers if such a land existed?"

Answer: "Anarchism—because men who can take care of themselves do not need the restraints of government, etc." (It was suggested by one student that ancient Athens came closest to this ideal.)

Question: "Where would democracy be successful?"

Answer: "In a country where the majority of the people could take care of themselves and where only a minority of the people created the need for government."

Similarly, each of the items listed were examined and applied to hypothetical and to actual cases, such as Communism in Russia, Socialism in the United States, Democracy in China, Socialism in England, Fascism in South America, and so on. The conclusion was then drawn by the class from this discussion and stated as a principle: "A country's government is best which best fits its level of civilization. If the civilization is low, then government control should be high; if civilization is high, then government control should be low." The teacher phrased it more succinctly by stating that on the above basis: "Government control should be inversely proportional to the level of cilivilization."

The difficulties of defining level of civilization were indicated, but the applications of the principle were made nevertheless with success. Peru, one student indicated, was not ready for Democracy on the above basis. Another indicated that the foisting of this democratic government on Peru before it was prepared for it may have been the cause of its frequent revolutions. China, because of its high civilization, was in incessant revolution, it was indicated, because on the basis of its civilization it should have at least a democratic government, but instead was weighed down by autocratic war lords. As a result of these applications of the principle and the apparent logic of its workings, many of the students seemed to apply it with more confidence than previously. Finally, the doctrinaires of the class were reached and they agreed that—if the method or principle were correct—there was no one perfect type of government, no utopian plan for all nations, that different places needed different controls and that arguments on government policies which are debated *in vacuo*, without reference to the country in which they were to be applied, were practically useless.

At the conclusion of the lesson in which this method was used, an attempt was made to see whether any impression had been made. It was found that one-half of the class rejected the method completely—which was a very encouraging sign—and the other half were undecided. There was no doubt, however, that many were beginning to question the method by which they had reached their earlier conclusions. But if the lesson indicated nothing more than that pros and cons are not enough, that argumentation, debate and refutation are worthless without some definite system to fall back on, that an elementary social, economic and political philosophy (not a doctrine) is essential for the solution of our problems—then the lesson seems to have been inherently worth-while.

The writer realizes that the conclusions reached depend upon the philosophy developed, whether rugged individualism, state control, class struggle, or any other, and that this method can be attacked as indoctrination itself. However, he does believe that it not only probes a bit deeper than selfish interests which seem to be the basis for the present alinement on poliitical philosophies, but also offers a method of judging the value of many so-called economic opinions and prejudices disguised by the respectability of the name "social philosophy."

SOL PIKHOLTZ.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

Selling the High Schools to the Community

"Whatever the schools can do to contribute to the real welfare of adolescent youth, whatever they can do to appeal to both the students within the schools and their parents, whatever they can do which appeals to the people as a whole as making this country a better place in which to live, will aid in bringing support for secondary education, for education must be 'sold' on its merits just as any other service or commodity."

This quotation comes from a paper read at the meeting of the Department of Secondary Education held at the Washington meeting of the National Education Association. The central theme of all the conferences held by the Department was: The High School and the Community. All of the papers presented attempted to demonstrate how the community benefits from the work of the high schools in general and from each of the curriculum subjects. One paper, that of Professor Lawler of Teachers College, Columbia University, concerned itself

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with the community's problem of how to finance the high school.

The September issue of *Secondary Education*, the official organ of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, carries lengthy abstracts from all of these papers. This number also contains the interesting information for high school teachers that the Department is assisting groups of high school teachers with facts and programs dealing with the problems confronting secondary education today for use in these research and study groups, and describes the work contemplated by three nationwide committees just created by the Department: A Committee on the Integration of High School Studies; a Committee on Citizenship Training in Secondary Schools; and a Committee to Promote Better International Understanding at the Secondary School Level.

The officers of the Department elected in Washington for the coming school year are: Ernest D. Lewis, New York, President; George R. Rankin, Wisconsin, Vice-President; George M. Strong, Ohio, Treasurer; and Ann M. Ryder, New Jersey, Secretary. Mr. Augustus Ludwig of Pershing Junior High School, Brooklyn, is Eastern Regional Director.

A few paragraphs from the valuable papers delivered before the Department of Secondary Education in Washington, called attention to some vital problems in secondary education. According to William Mather Lewis, President of Lafayette College, "The high school as the organization of greatest general influence in the community must give sharp and immediate attention to the education of the emotions through beauty." Dr. Henry Sloane Coffin recently said: "A man's wealth consists in the number and intensity of his appreciations. In the face of this definition and in the face of the increasing leisure-time needs of our population, the shortsightedness of those school boards which have eliminated what they ignorantly call frills, becomes increasingly apparent."

Dr. Frederick Houk Law of Stuyvesant High School, New York City, adds, "From every book that a pupil studies in high school the pupil should gain the spirit that moved its author in the writing. To teach that spirit is not to turn our high schools into Sunday Schools but to turn them into places of genuine literary appreciation. Let us away with carping criticism and cynical comment. Let us restore the old reverence for beauty and truth and goodness. That is what the communities beg us to do. That is the demand that the American people make when they read of the doings of so-called " 'Flaming Youth.' "

Joy Elmer Morgan, Editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, advances the thesis that "Just as we have planning in the national life and in each industry and major phase of life, the young person who goes out of school should have made a beginning in the planning of his own life. He should have some idea of the kind of a life he wants to live and he should have come face to face with the steps he may have to take in the realization of that dream. He may not be able to achieve the kind of life he wants. The steps may not work out as he has tentatively set them down, but in the process of planning he will have learned the technic of planning. He will have learned how to break up a problem into its parts and to organize the factors that bear on each part."

Thomas W. Gosling, National Director of the American Junior Red Cross, in discussing the community value of the scientific method, said: "If democracy is a government by public opinion, it is important that this opinion shall be liberal, self-controlled, intelligent and honest. If the propagandists and publicity agents find it useful for their own purposes to make vigorous efforts to guide and to control public opinion, it would seem that the end to be attained is of considerable importance. By the very nature of its calling, the teaching profession cannot have the sins or use the means of those who have personal interests to establish. For purely social ends, however, teachers have a binding obligation to train their pupils from the earliest years of school through to the end of formal education in habits of scientific thinking. The method of science teaches us to face the facts squarely and to recognize that a democracy involves both leaders and followers. An effective system of public education will provide well-trained followers and high-minded leaders."

An Open Letter in Reply to "The New Economic Geography"

Dear X. Y. Z.:

I read with great interest your article, "The New Economic Geography," which appeared on page 63 of the June, 1934, issue of HIGH POINTS. I appreciated the fervor which directed you; I enjoyed your allusions and analogies; I understood your sincerity. But, X. Y. Z., I am puzzled; I do not know whether you are a friend or enemy!

Presumably, considering its title, your article was to have dealt with economic geography. After a study of its contents I had the impression that you greatly desired to champion the correct placement and proper teaching of this subject in our high schools. However, I am afraid that all you did accomplish was to sponsor the teaching of economics and in your fervor you almost forgot entirely about the subject on which you were writing—economic geography.

As far as I can learn, you arraign teachers of economic geography because they emphasize geography to the neglect of economics. But, X. Y. Z., are you not as guilty in emphasizing economics at the expense of geography?

Geography is a wonderful, vitalized, practical subject. It is not solely a study of locations, drainage, temperature, precipitation, and so on. Rather, it is a unifier and interpreter of the interrelationships existing between man's activities and the natural factors of his environment. What

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subject can be more interesting; which can be more useful? The subject is very broad and it can be reduced naturally to studies in certain specialized fields, such as economic geography. Each of the specialized studies, including the example just given, is geography, not as you would seem to interpret it as a pure study of physical or natural facts with an emphasis on locations, but a clear consideration of how these natural facts affect man's actions and how man utilizes or modifies them. However, economic geography considers from this viewpoint only that field of geography dealing with the commercial and industrial pursuits of man.

On this basis, by all means let the teacher of economic geography consider such questions as the Domestic Allotment Plan, the Cotton Option Scheme, the part played by the submarginal farmer in the present chaotic agricultural production, the Brazilian Coffee Institute and its attempt to stabilize the price of coffee, and the proposed Danubian Customs Union. But, if he appreciates the meaning of economic geography, do not let him stop there. Let him teach how the natural factors of the environment were causative in the formulation of all these schemes and, furthermore, let him consider the possible success or failure of these ideas in the light of these same natural factors. In other words, a better name for a course in economic geography might be, The Geographic Basis of Economic Status.

Thus, if we consider the real meaning of geography, we should not be alarmed at the emphasis it enjoys in the teaching of economic geography, for this subject is only the child of the larger study—geography. Rather, we should be greatly alarmed at the emphasis given to economics in an economic geography course at the expense of understanding the interrelationships existing between man and nature which brought on present conditions existing in our economic life.

You see, X. Y. Z., I believe that the real geographer is interested in geography. He does not care whether it is plant geography, economic geography, history geography, or any of the other geographies. He does object to the introduction of an elementary course in botany under the misnomer of plant geography; he cannot see an introductory course in economics placed in the curriculum under the guise of economic geography. If he is dealing with economic geography he considers without bias *both* physiography (which is sometimes erroneously considered to be geography) and economics, but he emphasizes causal relations, the interrelationships between the two.

Sincerely yours,

DAVID J. SWARTZ.

Haaren High School.

National Parks Auto Camping Tour, June 30 to September 4, 1934

Expenses

Food (including meals, groceries, etc.)	$166.12
Gasoline and oil (12 9/10 to 33c)	149.65
Lodging (tourist cabins en route)	39.50
New tires and repairing	34.85
Films and developing (32x8 Verichrome 116)	32.02
Miscellaneous (national park postage stamps)	20.71
Admission fees to national parks, etc.	13.15
Bus and boat trips	12.60
Woolworth's (camp supplies and drugs)	11.35
Souvenirs	8.60
Post cards, view folders, etc.	5.65
Auto supplies (carrier, etc.)	5.33
Booklets (national parks, etc.)	4.70
Bridge tolls	2.10
Motion picture entertainment	1.20
Grand Total (four in party, $7.57 per day)	$507.53

Car Operation

1934 Chevrolet Master Coach, driven from 15 to 55 miles per hour

Total mileage of tour (New York - California - Oregon)	10,215.3
Average mileage per day (67 days)	152.4
Gallons of gasoline consumed	579.
Miles per gallon of gasoline	17.64
Oil added between changes, quart	1.

High Spots

Saturday-Sunday, July 7-8, Ascent of Paiute Peak, 13,082 ft., with Colorado Mountain Club, Dr. Smedley, leader party of 37.

Friday-Sunday, July 13-15, Ascent of Mt. Harvard, 14,399 ft., with Colorado Mountain Club, Mr. Ervin, leader party of 9.

Monday-Tuesday, July 23-24, Descent of Grand Canyon afoot (8,801 ft. to 2,500 ft.) with Sierra Club, S. F. Chapter, Mr. Bowen, leader.

Thursday, August 9, Ascent of Mt. Lassen, 10,453 ft. Ranger Farmer, United States National Park Service, 23 in party.

Saturday-Sunday, August 11-12, Ascent of Mt. Shasta, 14,161 ft., with Sierra Club, S. F. Chapter, Mr. Robert Owen, leader-guide. Party of 11 left Shasta Alpine Lodge at 1:45 A. M., arrived at summit 10:50. (Record time is 2 hrs. 24 min., held by Sierra Club.)

Wednesday, August 15, Ascent of Garfield Peak, 8,060 ft. Crater Lake, Oregon with Obsidians of Eugene. Dr. C. E. Hunt, leader party of 5.

Thursday, August 16, Ascent and Descent of Wizard Island, Crater Lake, 6,940 ft. with Ranger. Dr. Smith, Mazama Club, party of 5.

Monday, August 20, Climb into Grizzly bear den in Yellowstone Park near Old Faithful with Ranger Oberhansley and party of 35.

Sunday, August 26, Descent of 630 feet below the surface in Wind Cave National Park, 47 degree temperature with unusual formations.

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Equipment

Dickey Bird Tent 9x11 feet, steel folding table with four chairs, four folding cots, bed rolls, blankets, four suitcases with heavy clothing, three boxes of dishes and foodstuffs, three burner Kamp Kook stove, two gallon can of white gasoline, small square bath tub, two hiking rucksacks, ice ax and climbing rope, maps, sun glasses, quart and gallon Stanly jugs, electric flashlights, folding candle lamp, compass, gloves, hob nailed shoes and crampons, four duffle bags.

ROLAND C. GEIST.

High School of Commerce.

Tercentenary Committee Defines Celebration Purpose

Mobilization is under way throughout the United States for the big parade of secondary schools in recognition of their 300th anniversary in 1934-35. All schools and civic organizations are collaborating on ceremonies, orations, pageants, exhibitions, parades, and other enterprises. Meanwhile the committee for the national celebration, representing the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, is busily planning radio programs, a memorial postage stamp, ceremonies for national conventions, government proclamations, organization of a national high school band and orchestra, a national high school fair, a memorial motion picture, and the 300th anniversary issue of Scholastic, national high school weekly, to be issued next February, depicting the finest achievements of secondary schools. The Celebration Committee of the Department of Secondary School Principals hopes to defray most of its expenses through the sale of this elaborate memorial issue of Scholastic.

One of the first acts of the Celebration was to formulate a set of objectives for the celebration. These are: To present to the public the aims and works of secondary education; to emphasize the necessity of public secondary education to a free democracy; to acquaint the public with advanced developments in secondary instruction; to improve the chances for every boy and girl to benefit from the full potentialities of the secondary schools.

Through the celebration, the secondary schools have arrived at a golden opportunity to tell taxpayers of their valuable work in building careers, in developing social consciousness, in building up health, in shaping wild adolescent talents and enthusiasms toward individual self-realization, in improving personal habits, and in intensifying the potentialities of a happy life for 6,000,000 high school students.

In these days when talk of dictatorships is rife and the suppression of civil liberties is commonplace, even in this land where civil liberties are a proud tradition, the responsibility of the schools as the guardian of democracy is greater than ever. Democracy as a system which determines the best interests of the masses by free expression of popular opinion, requires a high average of critical intelligence among the voters. It may be that, in the sense described, democracy exists nowhere in the world today; but in the light of the political traditions of the United States of America, it is a paramount obligation of the secondary schools to build such a democracy. The efforts of certain groups, subconscious or deliberate, to sabotage the level of critical intelligence, must be confounded.

The third point listed among the objectives finds the schools more or less on the defensive. The budget brigades have harried progressive educators so persistently that the very slogan, Fads and Frills, is almost enough to discount in the public eye the bravest educational advance. During the celebration, secondary education must take stock of its curricular activities, of its administrative innovations, and of its financial investments. How well does the program of studies serve the curricular and vocational needs of the community? How far does education earn its keep? Does the administration conform to the best American and the best educational ideals? The answers to those questions provide the perfect counter-attack to the taxpayers associations. The success of that counter-attack will mean whether or not education is to achieve a role of social leadership, whether or not the secondary schools are to assume the logical role of equipping every boy and girl for their work in their life in the community. The implications of this point, of course, are that impoverished communities must be allowed to benefit from taxes levied on wealthy communities; that every boy and girl may be assured enough freedom from economic stress to allow for a complete education. With these points for its platform, the American high school dedicates itself to a new high in civilization.

How to Enlist Service Clubs in The High School Tercentenary

Celebration Committee on Service Clubs

Department of Secondary School Principals, National Education Association

The High School Tercentenary is a great occasion for bringing high schools to the attention of community leaders through their service clubs. The local high school principal is unquestionably the key to this feature of the celebration. However much the national committee may do to secure the coöperation of the national or international headquarters of Rotary, Kiwanis, and similar organizations, local response will still depend on the organizing skill and devotion of each local high school principal or other officer locally in charge of secondary education.

Here are a few suggestions. This list is necessarily brief and by no means exhaustive:

1. Embrace the 300th anniversary of American high schools as an exceptional opportunity to bring before your representative citizens something of the background, recent develop-

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ment, problems and significance of secondary education.

2. If there are other representatives of secondary education in your town or city, get them together and move in concert in this effort.

3. Begin early. Many service clubs plan their programs months in advance. Secure a promise from the key officials and program committees of the several organizations to give over at least one meeting during the school year to this celebration.

4. Many principals will want to proceed by calling together representatives of all the service clubs of the city and informing them as a group of the general and special plans for the tercentenary. If this is done it will be well to "prime the pump" in advance by insuring the support of one or more key people.

5. Detailed plans for the cooperation of service clubs in various phases of the wider community or school celebration should be worked out with other committees. This has reference to financial support, group attendance at school pageants or other programs, use of school facilities and student groups for club programs, and so on.

6. Do not relax in vigilance. Keep after each club committee until certain that a worthy program has been worked out. For the sake of secondary education in your community you cannot be careless about this matter.

7. Help others by sending to L. L. Forsythe, Senior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, any scheme, worked out for your local situation, which you think may be suggestive to others, to be passed on through the national publicity channels. Plans reported early will naturally be most useful.

L. L. FORSYTHE.

Is Debating Immoral?

The contention, made perennially by those who seem to believe that they are shedding new light on an ancient art, is that debating is immoral. Of course, the statement originally had a very startling effect, especially upon those who had "never thought of that before." Yet, when this awful condemnation is rationally analyzed, there appears to be less thunder and lightning than at first was apparent. If debating is immoral, it should be discontinued at once; if not, the falsity of the statement should be exposed.

First, let us review the process by which debating is proved to be immoral. We are told that the engaging in this art produces intellectual tricksters because of the innate desire for victory. Truth is sacrificed on the altar of False Logic. Because the victory depends upon the effect produced, the debaters stoop to conquer by using methods far from commendable. If a contestant cites a set of statistics that seem to prove conclusively that the United States is losing trade, his opponent seeks to contradict the conclusion by presenting another set; if unable to discover proper grrounds for refutation of the facts enunciated, he resorts to the questionable practice of improvising his own facts. Thus, we are told, the arrangement of a debate means the abetting of scheming and the encouragement of insidious mental aberrations.

If this be true, debating is the most despicable pastime ever given official approbation. It is far worse than the teaching of crime directly, for, paradoxically, that would at least be honest. Making intellectual vagabonds is adverse to the very ideals which we are seeking to inculcate; and the former is certain to undo the work of the latter. At any rate, why work at cross-purposes? Let us scrap the debating societies in all our high schools and substitute for them a system more in conformity with the trend toward honesty than toward trickery. Yes, let us obliterate them immediately if they are immoral—but let us maintain and encourage them if they are worthy.

Two considerations lead me to believe that debating should be retained and encouraged in our high schools: first, the element of victory is essentially a life condition, and secondly, proper ideals are encouraged when the club is properly supervised.

That victory or defeat are essentially elements in life activities cannot be denied. Every task undertaken, whether it be driving an automobile or performing a difficult surgical operation, meets with success or failure. It is therefore important that our children be trained in the ability to win with modesty or to lose with graciousness. One is just as important as the other.

Dispense with the announcement proclaiming the winner if you still believe that this causes immorality, but in so doing you diminish your opportunities for developing good habits. Remove the goal of attainment and there is also removed that desire to work for something seen as desirable. Pupils derive little benefit and less pleasure from mere discussion of topics; give them a goal and you double their interest.

Are ideals lost in the debating club? Do students there forget all their classroom training and become morally bad? Generally speaking, I believe that there is an inclination to take such an attitude unless teacher supervision is effective. Debaters are inclined to make the end justify the means unless they are carefully instructed in the need for honesty and truth. When this need is realized the debater has acquired more than he will ever appreciate; he has been convinced that truth is the important element and that facts are to be used only to determine or to substantiate truth. If this is immoral, it is also immoral to express a thought or to remain silent. The formality of procedure and the courtesy extended to opponents are also instrumental in developing character, and this likewise is dependent upon the supervisor.

For these reasons, and for the practice in prepared and extemporaneous speaking which is provided, debating clubs have proved themselves worthy of support through the centuries. They still represent an important factor in the lives of thousands of our

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boys and girls, who are thereby made nobler, wiser, and more resourceful citizens. While they continue to serve thus, they merit our constant support.

J. V. CUNNINGHAM

United States Educators Will Attend Inter-American Educational Conference

The United Sattes and virtually all of the Latin American countries will be officially represented at the Second Inter-American Conference on Education to be held at Santiago, Chile, September 9 to 16, 1934. While the Conference was planned by the Inter-American Federation of Education, it is being held under the auspices of the Chilean Government whose ministry of foreign affairs transmitted the invitations to other American governments.

The purposes of the Conference are to bring together representative educators of the American continents; encourage a close union of the peoples of America by means of public education; advance cultural and educational relations between colleges and universities of every kind in the countries of America; and make easier exchange of ideas, experiences and practices in educational technique and scientific research.

The working program of the Conference is not yet ready for publication but it will be arranged from the topics proposed by the participating countries each of which is entitled to submit three subjects for discussion. It must include "character education" and "vocational education," two items assigned to it by the First Conference held at Atlanta, Georgia, in 1929.

Of the four persons who make up the official delegation from the United States, Dr. William F. Notz is dean of the Georgetown School of Foreign Service, Washington, D. C., a school which trains persons of more than average talent not only for foreign service positions in the United States Government but also for foreign trade conducted by private bodies. Dean Notz himself offers courses in public finance, banking and exchange, and economics and because both of his training and of his position, will bring to the Conference an unusual fund of knowledge and a keen interest.

Miss Faith Hunter Dodge, a journalist and instructor in Spanish in the schools of Chicago, has travelled widely in Latin America, speaks and writes Spanish fluently and has a main interest in carrying to and bringing from the Conference those things that are useful in rousing class-room children to know and appreciate the lives of children in their neighbor countries.

Dr. Harold Benjamin is assistant dean of the school of education of the University of Minnesota. He took passage on the steamer Santa Elisa on August 11 and will reach Santiago some days before the discussions open. Trained mainly in institutions of the Western United States, Dr. Benjamin knows of Latin America and its cultures. His special fields are secondary education and psychology in both of which he can find much of value at a meeting such as the coming conference.

Dr. J. C. Wright, chairman of the delegation and Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education of the United States Office of Education left New York Saturday for the Conference. Dr. Wright's interest is, of course, mainly in the many types of technical and vocational education offered both in the United States and abroad. After the closing of the Conference he will take advantage of his trip to South America to visit Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil, and study several phases of education in those countries.

—Release of U. S. Office of Education.

The Henry Ford Trade School for Boys

I wonder how many teachers visited the Ford Motor Car Exhibition in the Port Authority Building during the month of December, 1933. One saw there the manufacture of all materials that go into the making of a Ford car, from raw materials to finished products and their use in assembling and producing the car. As an exhibition it was most instructive. One section of the exhibit which particularly interested this writer was the Henry Ford Trade School for Boys.

One secton of the display was devoted to a miniature school. There were twenty boys, two instructors and about twenty machines used in the Henry Ford School. Exhibit placards nailed to the pillars of the building, surrounding the improvised school, gave information about it. Visitors were allowed to interrogate the boys and instructors, who answered questions cheerfully. The students were working at various tasks, but quickly stopped their work, which consisted in mending machinist's goggles, repairing tools, and winding armatures, when interrogated.

The Henry Ford Trade School for Boys in Detroit is apparently a model institution. Founded on October 26, 1916, its purpose is to help the mechanically and technically minded boy find an agreeable life occupation, make him a worthy member of society and incidentally to train skilled workers for the Ford plant. All training is free, and there is no obligation on the part of the student to seek employment at the Ford plant upon the completion of his course. The buildings and machinery are given and the salaries of the teachers are paid by the Ford Company.

There is at present an enrollment of 1,280 boys at the school. There have been 3,672 graduated at the various times from the institution, and many more thousands have attended, but have not completed the course of instruction. The plan on which the school operates is one week of class work followed by two weeks of shop work. The school is organized on a three shift basis. During a year a boy attends 14 weeks of class work, 34 weeks of shop work, and has 4 weeks of vacation.

The school equipment consists of 38 classrooms, 100 instructors, and 3 acres of floor space. The value of

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the equipment and machinery, which consists of 46 shapers, 100 mills, 149 lathes, 96 grinders and 200 miscellaneous machines driven individually, is estimated to have cost $2,000,000. As new machinery is introduced in the factory, a sample machine is donated to the school.

The program of studies for 14 weeks of class work by years follows:

I	II
1. English	1. English
2. Drawing	2. Drawing
3. Shop Theory	3 Shop Theory
4. Arithmetic	4. Algebra
5. Science	5. Geometry
6. Civics	6. Civics
	7. Auto Mechanics

III	IV.
1. English	1. English
2. Drawing	2. Drawing
3. Shop Theory	3. Shop Theory
4. Geometry	4. Trigonometry
5. Physics	5. Chemistry
6. Chemistry	6. Economics
	7. Auto Mechanics

The program of studies for the 34 weeks of shop work by years follows:

I	II
1. Sanitation	1. Electrical Shaper
2. Small Tool Repair	III
3. Valve Repair	1. Lathe
4. Drill Press	2. Mill
IV	
1. Grinder Bench	

During the four years in which the average boy attends the school, he has the choice of some training in any of the following fields:

Foundry	Precision tool repair
Electroplating	Shop drafting
Painting	Machine repair
Sheet metal	Heat Treating
Carpentry	Pattern Making
Blacksmithing	Welding

According to the individual boy's choice, he may become a skilled workman in one or more of these fields.

There is a special section in the school for boys between the ages of 12 and 14 who are not elementary graduates. After 14 years of age, all boys are enrolled in the main body of the Henry Ford Trade School. Pupils range in age from 12 to 22. If a boy on the completion of the curriculum described above, desires further training, he may procure it at no cost to himself or his parents. He may attend the Ford Apprentice School for two and a half years and become a specialist in his chosen field of work. If he then desires even further training, he may attend the Ford Engineering School for from four to five years. All these institutions are housed within the same buildings. No one attending any of the schools is compelled to work at the Ford plant.

When the boy completes his training, he is free to go and seek employment wherever he chooses. It is true most of the boys seek work as skilled workmen at good wages at the Ford plant. Not only does the Henry Ford Trade School for Boys offer such special training for mechanically minded youth, but it offers the individual skill in a chosen life occupation. It makes the boy an economic force in society and helps him find his niche in the economic world. It teaches the boy the nobility of all labor, provides him with the means of gainful employment and makes him a worthy American citizen.

EDWIN M. KELLY.

Stuyvesant High School.

Extension Courses in the New York Psychoanalytic Institute

The New York Psychoanalytic Institute offers the following extension courses during the academic year 1934-1935, beginning the first week in October 1934.

1. *The Application of Psychoanalysis to Social Work*—15 sessions. An advanced course for executives in social work, experienced field workers, and visiting teachers of commensurate status. Approved for alertness credit by the New York State Education Department.
   Leader: Dr. I. T. Baldwin.
2. *The Utilization of Psychoanalytic Viewpoints in Social Case Work*—10 sessions. (Begins in January 1935.)
   An intermediate case discussion seminar for social workers.
   Leader: Dr. Adolph Stern.
3. *Psychoanalysis in Medicine*—15 lectures.
   An introductory clinical course for physicians. (Not a training course.)
   Lecturers: Drs. Daniels, Lehrman, Lorand, Meyer, Oberndorf.
4. *Parent-Child and Sibling Relationships* (With special reference to maternal over-protection, maternal rejection and sibling rivalry.)
   6 lectures. General Course.
   Lecturer: Dr. David M. Levy.
5. *Popular Lectures on Psychoanalytic Topics*—5 lectures.
   Open to the general public. (To be announced.)

For information in regard to further details, apply to the Executive Director, the New York Psychoanalytic Institute, 324 West 86th Street, New York City.

High School Pupils and the Library

In November, 1930, the Library adopted regulations restricting the use of the Reference Department by college students to books and periodicals, needed for special individual assignment, which were not found in the college or university library. Changing library conditions and overcrowded reading rooms in the Central Building necessitated this step, and the decision was taken only after a long period of study and experimentation. The experience of the past two years has shown clearly the need for such a policy of control. The results have been less-crowded reading rooms, and improved service to the general public and to advanced students who could not obtain the books they needed elsewhere.

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Pupils in public high schools and in private secondary schools also come within the scope and intent of the regulations, which are designed not to discourage readers, but rather to enable the Library to make proper provision for the general public by referring special groups to other libraries better adapted to their needs.

The Library earnestly requests teachers not to send pupils, either singly or in groups, to the Reference Department for books needed for school work. The branch libraries are making every effort to build up their reference collections for the use of high school students. If the books required are not available in the high school library, or obtainable through the school library, or through the Bureau of Libraries, the nearest branch library will be glad to serve to the extent of its resources.

In the Borough of The Bronx older pupils might be sent to the Bronx Reference Center at 2555 Marion Avenue, Fordham.

Before sending a group of students or an entire class to a branch library, arrangements should be made in advance with the branch librarian.

Teachers will often find it advisable to communicate with the Superintendent of School Work (Miss Mabel Williams), whose office (Volunteer 5-8173) is at the 58th Street Branch (121 East 58th Street), before making a class assignment requiring the use of books not available in the high school library. Teachers in high schools in the Boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens should consult the officers of the Brooklyn Public Library and and the Queens Borough Public Library.

The above notice is published at the request of the Chief of the Reference Department of the New York Public Library.—EDITOR.

The New York Classical Club

The dates for the meetings for 1934-35 are:

Luncheon meetings:
November 3, 1934
February 16, 1935
May 4, 1935

Forum meetings:
December 8, 1934
March 23, 1935

CHARLES A. TONSOR,
President,
The New York Classical Club.

REVIEWS

Education and the Social Order

By John Dewey. League for Industrial Democracy, New York. 5c. 12 pp.

Within these dozen pages, we have a concise analysis of some vital problems confronting the world of education today. Undue emphasis of the informational aspects of our school studies; the deadening hold of the disciplinary coloring of our courses of study; failure to give adequate recognition to the social forces making and unmaking the world we live in; the snares of indoctrination; unionization of teachers; the economic illiteracy so prevalent among teachers and the taught; adult education; and the race between reorganization of education on a social basis and the re-fashioning of our society towards dictatorship—with such is this pamphlet concerned.

Dr. Dewey condemns the failure of our schools to recognize adequately and properly provide for an understanding of the important social forces in operation today. This he ascribes to a "hang-over" from our pioneer society, namely, that education exists primarily to provide the tools for individual success. This educational lag must be taken up. Let us not be deceived by expansion and modernization of school equipment, by increasing school population, by ever-expanding curricula, for "there has been no fundamental change in spiritual motivation."

Are we then to include Dr. Dewey in the growing cult of indoctrination? He is careful to disassociate himself from such membership. "There is an important difference between education with respect to a new social order and indoctrination into settled convictions about that order." Dr. Dewey appeals for the former; he definitely rejects the wisdom and possibility of the latter. For he accepts the thought of many that schools in the main but reflect the society that is; they cannot ordain the society to be. One suspects, however, that the educational set-up here advocated is, nevertheless, strongly tinged with the very indoctrination he refutes.

The measures suggested for hastening the new order of things are five in number:

1. Teachers should affiliate with the Federation of Labor, thus making for a social consciousness in the teaching force.
2. Teachers and adminstrators should thoroughly ground themselves in economics and social problems.
3. The schools should be conducted as coöperative communities, with emphasis on student self-government and democracy in supervision and administration.
4. Adult education must promote an intelligent citizenship in support of a just society.
5. Subject-matter and methods must be given a social basis and a social aim.

It is refreshing to note Dr. Dewey's warning against pinning all hopes for social reconstruction on methodology alone. Equally important are the teacher's social philosophy and equipment as a professional person.

ISIDORE DUBNAU.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students

By W. L. Schwarz, L. A. Wilkins, and A. G. Bovée. Washington, D. C. National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, 1934. 40 pages. (*The Modern Language Journal* supplementary series, No. 1.)

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"He reads but he cannot speak Spanish,
He cannot abide ginger beer:
Ere the days of his pilgrimage vanish,
How pleasant to know Mr. Lear."

And how *profitable*, also, to know "Mr. Lear" whether you just read or speak Spanish or other foreign languages. This encyclopedic pamphlet introduces its readers to the Messrs. Lear, of sixty occupations, who give candidates frank and authoritative statements as to whether foreign-language knowledge is a primary requirement, or a distinct advantage and sometimes a secondary requirement, or an asset in achieving success in the occupation under consideration.

When students say, "To what practical use can I put French, after I have learned it?" or "In what United States Civil Service examinations is German required?" or "Now that I have this medal for good work in Italian, where can I get in touch with a job as an interpreter in New York City?"—in this Modern Language Teachers pamphlet are the answers. The occupational descriptions, including intellectual and pecuniary compensations, are from practical workers in each placement field, and ingenuity has been used to discover the sources of information, printed and personal. Student advisers — vocational, grade and register, and modern-language advisers—will all wish to consider sending for the publications mentioned and establishing contact, at least by letter, with some of the corporation personnel directors.

Portuguese is featured, by the American Manufacturers Export Association, as the fourth most useful language needed — after Spanish, French, and German. It may not be many years, as airways bring the Portuguese-speaking half of South America close, before New York City schools will need to teach the language in Brazil. This possibility gains force from the statement of the Associated Press Chief of Foreign Service that "Like the State Department, the Associated Press has adopted the policy of making South America the field to which new recruits in the service are sent first."

In six occupations are foreign languages a primary requirement—in the United States Foreign Service, in work in the United States with the embassies and consulates of foreign countries, in interpreting, in work with the foreign-language press in the United States, as a nursery governess, and as a translator. Among the vocations in which foreign languages are sometimes a secondary requirement are those of international literary critic, correspondent abroad for United States newspapers, librarian, secretary, social worker, travel agent, visiting professor, and of course, foreign trader.

The last two-thirds of the sixty occupations include those in which foreign languages are an asset in achieving success—they range alphabetically from advertising to social secretary. Had there been space, statistical work and zoölogy might have been included as well as aviation, dentistry, experimental medicine, botany, horticulture, and landscape architecture, and any other vocations in which a world view—indigenous views—of the subject is important. For the statistical work we should hear from Mr. Leon M. Estabrook of the International Institute of Agriculture's World Agricultural Census; from the Rockefeller Foundation, concerning languages and public health work abroad; and, from some plant explorer, such as Dr. David G. Fairchild, of the value of languages in biological circles. Information concerning the fields of special interest not included in this pamphlet will gladly be supplied by the authors and a number of the last vocations mentioned may be found in such publications as (page 16) the *Directory of American Agencies concerned with the Study of International Affairs.*

MARIE K. PIDGEON.
Curtis High School.

The Teaching of Biology

By William E. Cole. D. Appleton-Century Company. $2.00.

This is the first book devoted to the teaching of biology which has been released in some years. In some two hundred and fifty pages, the author has brought most of the more modern educational concepts in so far as they relate to the Teaching of Biology. Many of these concepts can, of course, be found in books published several years ago dealing more generally with the methods employed in secondary schools.

The book treats briefly (too briefly in most cases) the history of biology teaching, the present status of biology in secondary school, the problem of objectives in the teaching of biology, methodology in the teaching of biology, teaching aids in biology, tests and measurements. A really excellent bibliography is one of the outstanding features of this work.

The experienced teacher who has kept up with recent developments in the field will find little that is new in this book. But for the others and for prospective biology teachers-in-training this volume will serve as a very useful summary.

N. S. KLINE.
Manual Training High School.

Movies, Delinquency, and Crime

By H. Blumer and P. M. Hauser. Payne Fund Studies. Macmillan.

Directly and indirectly, motion pictures play an important part in stimulating juvenile delinquency both male and female. And contrary to oft asserted claims, this study shows them to have little or no corrective or reformational value. The authors are unequivocal in their censure of the pernicious stuff to which our youth is daily exposed. They lay the blame where it belongs, to the motion picture directors and producers. As yet, we have heard no penitent cries of "Peccavi" from the motion picture officials. Nor shall we, unless we exert ourselves in the interests of youth. Teachers, principals, parent-teachers associations and others concerned with youth and its problems should read this study with care. It is a document of great social import.

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For it illustrates with numerical finality the subtle and pervasive influence of a force that is highly active in nullifying the constructive efforts of church, home, and school. It should be used to mobilize public opinion against those who, in the name of art, place personal profit above decency and order.

A. H. L.

Educational Psychology

(Revised Edition)

By A. M. Jordan. Henry Holt and Company.

With very few changes, the text of Dr. Jordan's book remains substantially the same as the edition of 1928. Two new chapters have been added, on measurement of personality, and on maturity and growth. The treatment is traditional and, at times, despite Dr. Jordan's demurrer, unduly statistical. The bibliography has been brought up to date.

This is a solid, substantial book, but not very lively reading.

A. H. L.

After the Great Companions

By Charles J. Finger. E. P. Dutton. $3.00.

In this volume, Mr. Finger chronicles his literary pilgrimage from the dime novel to Parnassus. Into it, he has packed the mellow and mature reflections of a life-time of "adventuring among the masterpieces." The same spacious salubrity that has marked his life breathes through this running commentary on books and letters. Mr. Finger is no cloistered pedant, and "After the Great Companions" is no literary manifesto. It is passionate summary, a fond garnering of the joys of reading. For those who under the press of time and duty, have forgotten the deep and abiding experiences which reading offers, we recommend this lusty affirmation of the abundant life with which our literature teems.

A. H. L.

Saints of Chaos

By Peter Oliver. William Parquhar Payson. $2.50.

This is a very impassioned and very unconvincing tract on contemporary chaos. Mr. Oliver, riding Carlyle's "hero" interpretation of history very hard, lays our present confusion at the doors of five "Saints of Chaos." Luther he holds responsible for our spiritual decadence, since he levelled the blow which shattered the unity of the medieval church. Galileo, Beethoven, Watt, and Hobbes, he in turn roundly abuses for having respectively initiated our scientific, esthetic, industrial, and political chaos. The cure for our ills, Mr. Oliver seems to imply, will come when we kneel "at the old altars once more," and re-affirm the ancient credo which finds such exalted expression in Bach's B Minor Mass. Mr. Oliver sees no unity possible without a restoration of the triune principle of the Good, the True, and the Beautiful. It is the violation of this principle in the lives of these five "saints," he contends, that has disrupted the universe and shaken it loose from its moorings. Only religion, says Mr. Oliver, can weld our diversity into a satisfying unity.

We have heard all this before. But reputable historians have hesitated to attribute our cosmic discontent to a mere five men. Mr. Oliver's audacious misreading of the course of history is thus a slightly novel experience. None will cavil at his charge that we are spiritually bankrupt, but few will concur in his rash inculpation of these five "saints." Mr. Oliver's treatment of history is an egregious example of the "hero" theory gone to seed. That there is an element of truth in conceiving history as the "biography of great men," none can deny. But to attribute the shaping of our present rather dubious destiny to a few individuals is a glaring distortion of history in the interest of a preconceived theory.

Fortunately, Mr. Oliver's etiology has little bearing on the soundness and lucidity of his analysis of these parlous times. His plea for a spiritual unity, somewhat reminiscent of Henry Adam's nostalgic yearnings, has a sincere and ardent ring. It is a fervent attempt to re-synthesize human experience in the light of those great spiritual truths which have almost been submerged in our mad pursuit of material advantage.

A. H. L.

Orientation In Education

Edited by T. H. Schutte. Macmillan.

Assisted by some twenty experts, Dr. Schutte assays a panoramic view of education today. It is our sad duty to relate that Dr. Schutte and his colleagues have bitten off considerably more than they can comfortably chew. In attempting to make their book mean all things to all men, they have failed to make it really useful to any. It is too condensed and sketchy for the beginner, in whom it will inevitably breed the very confusion it seeks to avert. It is far too skimpy and superficial for the mature student of education. The title itself is enough to frighten off the general reader, at best never passionately interested in education. And the contents of this volume will not even faintly tickle his very capricious palate.

Without impugning any of the contributors to this ambitious survey, it can safely be asserted that no fair appraisal of all the numerous divisions of present-day educational effort is possible in the space of five hundred pages. The adequate one-volume summary of education has yet to be written.

A. H. L.

Pictured Story of English Literature

By J. W. Cunliffe. Appleton-Century.

This hefty tome has but one feature to recommend it: its illustrations. There are some two hundred and thirty-six of them, many hitherto unknown to the average text on literature. Dr. Cunliffe has performed an admirably fine bit of work in assembling and annotating them. They lend

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vitality and reality to a sometimes dreary study. Dr. Cunliffe justifies every extravagant claim made by his publishers. Here is a unique collection of pictures, indeed. The text itself is not quite so rewarding. It is, in fact, a very superficial re-hash of much that others, including Dr. Cunliffe himself, have said before, and with greater point and brilliance. There certainly seems little excuse for another manual unless it has something fresh and new to say. It is little short of brazenry to offer, without a deep and humble apology, a volume which professes to treat of English Literature "From its Beginnings to the Present Day", and gives a few lines to James Joyce and leaves T. S. Eliot utterly unnoticed. It would have been infinitely wiser to have ended this "history" with the section on Victorianism which is handled with some competence and completeness. For the chapter on the "Twentieth Century" is woefully mangled and adds very little to Dr. Cunliffe's reputation as literary critic.

To those who like to have their reading dramatically illustrated, we heartily recommend this "Pictured History of English Literature." School libraries will find this book a useful addition, in this sense, to their lists of collateral readings. The serious-minded student, however, will have to seek elsewhere for "sweetness and light."

A. H. L.

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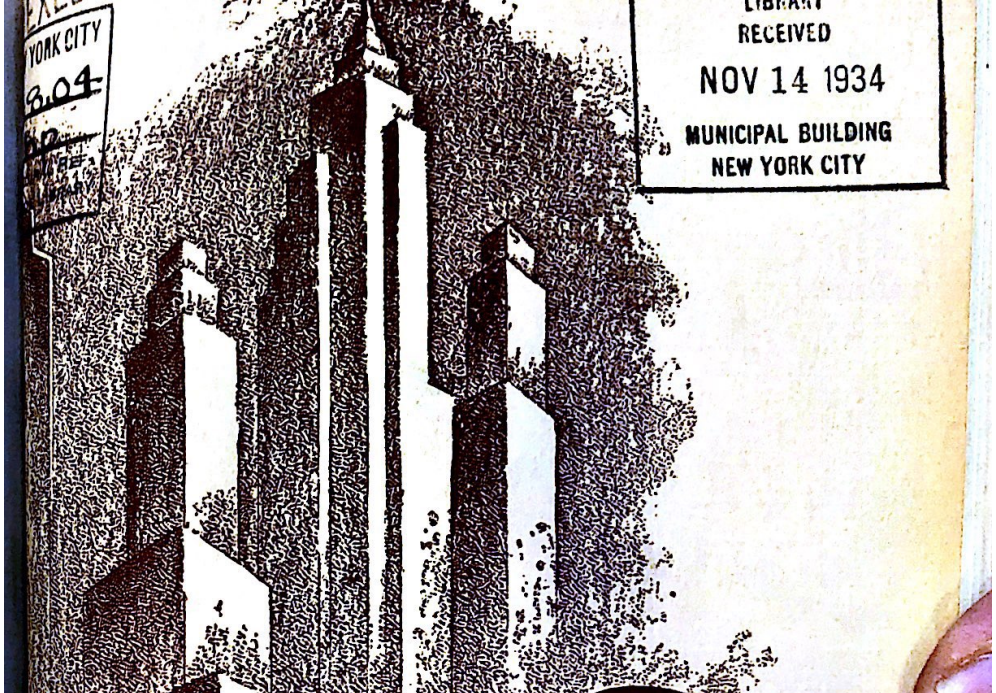

High Points

N THE WORK OF THE
IGH SCHOOLS OF THE
ITY OF NEW YORK

VEMBER • NINETEEN HUNDRED THIRTY FOUR

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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Books concerned with educational matters may be sent for review to Mr. A. H. Lass, Manual Training High School. School text-books will not be reviewed.

The columns of HIGH POINTS are open to all teachers and supervising and administrative officers of the high schools. Manuscripts not found available for publication are not returned to contributors unless return is requested. All contributions should be typewritten, double spaced, on paper 8½" by 11" in size. They may be given to the school representative or sent directly to the editor.

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PEACE THROUGH EDUCATION

DOWN through the centuries men have longed for freedom and yearned for peace; they have dreamed of democracy and prayed for good will among men. Down through the same wearisome cycles of time they have tried endless successions of superficial expedients in fruitless efforts to satisfy the aspirations of aching hearts. And now after all of these years of crushing defeats and of building houses upon sand, they turn with confident hope to education, broadly conceived, and ask that through it they shall learn to live happily and to walk the paths of peace. Yes, they turn to you and to me and ask us to lead them out of the wilderness and up to the land of sunshine and joy. I wonder if we know how. I am certain that we are ready to try. . . . I know it may be said that it is a far cry from the seemingly trivial tasks of each day's teaching to these great challenges of such colossal proportions. I know full well too that it is not easy to connect directly with these broad and abiding purposes of education the work of each class each day. But that is not the test. The test is to be found in a consciousness of growth in our ability to interpret these basic human needs and thereby to secure out of the work of the days and weeks and years as they pass and through the vehicles of subject matter, student activities and methods, those attitudes, ideals, and habits of human sympathy, kindliness, and fair play which we do recognize as essentials to democratic living and brotherly love.

J. W. STUDEBAKER
Commissioner of Education
In **School Life** for September, 1934

SILENT READING WITH FIRST-TERM PUPILS IN THE THEODORE·ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL

The First Silent Reading Test

MORE than eleven hundred girls and boys were candidates for instruction in first-term work in Theodore Roosevelt High School in January, 1934. Of this number about three hundred and seventy-five were repeaters; they had been in the school from one to six terms and had not been able to meet the demands of its courses. These failing pupils alone were enough to challenge the ingenuity of the supervisors in charge of them, because failure is expensive in terms of money and in terms of human achievement. Dr. John L. Tildsley is authority for the following statement regarding failure: "In addition to the irreparable damage inflicted on the youth, the cost of failure to the tax-payer is very great. For example, assuming that first term pupils who fail to pass a subject, repeat it, the cost of repeating the term's work in the regular prepared subjects of the general course by those who failed in these subjects last June is, for the current term, approximately $450,000, using as our base $15 per failure." [1]

It seemed imperative to do something definite and constructive in preventing failure in Roosevelt High School, and also to get some measure of the greatly varying skills and abilities of the hundreds of newcomers. In order to deal most intelligently with this large Freshman class in English in the immediate present, and in order to plan their high school courses more efficiently, Miss Stella S. Center, Co-Chairman of the English Department, initiated a program of testing and instruction in Silent Reading which has been far-reaching in its significance.

On March 13, the New Stanford Silent Reading Test, Form V, was given to all first term pupils who reported for English. Final and complete records show that 1,010 pupils were tested, with the following results:

Third grade level	1
Fourth grade level	5
Fifth grade level	46
Sixth grade level	149
Seventh grade level	195
Eighth grade level	199
Ninth grade level	192
Tenth grade level and above	223
Total	1,010

This summary indicates that approximately 22% of the first term pupils examined were decidedly above the reading ability demanded in the ninth grade; 192 or approximately 19% were at grade, but 595 or approximately 59% were decidedly below grade.

[1] From a circular issued by Dr. Tildsley.

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The 1,010 pupils were grouped in twenty-six recitation classes with registers ranging from 29 to 48. The program committee, in organizing the work for the spring term, followed its usual procedure of organizing the classes as heterogeneous groups. It was not possible in January for the department of English to secure homogeneous grouping. Some of the classes of largest registers were the classes presenting enormous problems of other kinds. For example, Class 151, with a register of 44, was a class of cripples and Class 1105, with a register of 48, was a class of many repeaters and at least eight habitual truants. A study was made of the range of ability in each of these classes (as shown in a later table), and it was found that the range in each class was enormous; in some classes it was astounding. In Class 151 the range was from the fifth grade level through the tenth, with more than half the class below the ninth grade level; in Class 1105, the range was from the third grade level to a point greatly above the tenth grade, and two-thirds of the class were below the ability expected of pupils in the ninth grade. It is scarcely necessary to suggest what stupendous problems were presented to the teachers of these classes if they were to give anything resembling adequate instruction to their groups. In the presence of these facts, only a sentimental Pollyanna could deny the crying necessity of homogeneous grouping and differentiated work.

As a part of this study and survey, an attempt was made to study the correlation of the reading scores of the pupils with the intelligent quotients sent by various elementary and junior high schools. All available data were assembled and the record is a part of this study. It proved a disappointment because of the total lack of uniformity. Although a great many schools include this quotient in the pupil's record, many do not. Some give the actual quotient while others report, *normal*, *bright*, or *slow*. Again there is variety in the tests used; some schools report the use of the Otis Self-Administering Test, others, the National Intelligence Test, and so on. At least six different tests were reported. Therefore, this generalization only can be offered, that there was a wide though not complete agreement of intelligent quotients and reading scores where both were available.

About this time of the term (March 15), the first marking period came to a close. An examination of the marks of the first-term pupils disclosed the following record:

Grade One

Register 1118.	
Passed all subjects	399
Failed one subject	272
Failed two subjects	198
Failed three subjects	112
Failed four subjects	67
Failed five subjects	43
Failed six subjects	26
Failed all subjects	55
General average of 80 to 84.9	77
General average of 85 or more	23

An exhaustive study of all these failing pupils in relation to their reading scores would have been profitable, had time permitted. An effort was made to study the records of the 55 failing in all subjects. It is significant that of this number of fifty-five, thirty-three were repeaters, nineteen were in the first term official class for the second time, seven for the third time, five for the fourth time, one for the fifth time and one for the sixth time. At least half of the number were absent from the test, but the scores of the 25 who took Stanford Reading Test, Form V, range as follows: one is at ninth grade level; two are at eighth; seven, at seventh; nine, at sixth; four, at fifth; one, at fourth; there is one at tenth grade level. No claim that failure to read accounts for the record of failure above can justly be made. It is simply a matter of record that the percentage of failure in the above report corresponds almost exactly with the failure in the first silent reading test.

When the results of this first test were published in the school, the Health Education Departments, both Boys' and Girls', were interested to examine the pupils with lowest reading scores in order to determine whether or not defective sight or hearing were causing failure. These reports seem to be negative in significance. Following is the one from the Girls' Department:

Of 115 girls examined, 29 were found to have defects:

Eye	1
Hearing	0
Skin	5
Cardiac	4
Thyroid	1
Tonsils	3
Under-weight	10
Endocrine disturbance	1
Sinus	2
Feet	2
Total	29

All cases are under treatment.

Remedial Measures

If this study had not gone beyond this preliminary stage of testing and publishing results, its effect would have been salutary, for teachers and pupils alike were awakened to a situation which challenged their finest efforts. However, under the direction of Miss Center, intensive training in silent reading was undertaken in all the first-term classes. Perhaps it will not be amiss here to define the levels of mastery in reading accepted by the supervisor of this study. They are set forth in the new syllabus in English for the state of New York as follows:

"There are four readily distinguished levels of mastery of reading. The beginner is principally engrossed in mastering the fundamental reading skills. In normal cases, this phase of learning to read is largely completed by the end of the third or fourth year.

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The second phase is the period (from the fourth or fifth to the end of the eighth or ninth grade) in which very wide reading of an easy type is done. The basic reading skills become automatic, the vocabulary is widened, and under normal conditions, the reading habit is definitely established. The third phase is concerned with the mastery of the technics of special types of literary material. During this period (ninth to eleventh years) the pupil gains the special information he must have to read the drama, the novel, the essays, etc., with maximum understanding and pleasure."[2]

The program of silent reading was a series of twelve lessons or three weeks' work based on modern contemporary material and including all types of writing; for example, the newspaper story, poetry, narratives, explanation, and other types of material. Learning procedures and classroom procedures, general and specific objectives of all lessons were clearly stated and all material was mimeographed and placed in the hands of both teachers and pupils. Specifically the lessons aimed to promote the following learning procedures:

I. Learning to read and follow directions.
II. Learning to find facts in a paragraph.
III. Learning to find the central thought.
IV. Learning to find details which support the central thought in paragraphs and to recognize them as supporting when found.
V. Learning to find certain definite points through rapid reading of a selection covering several pages.
VI. Learning to identify the large general divisions of links in longer selections.
VII. Building up power of interpretation.
VIII. Increasing rate of reading.
IX. Varying the rate of reading in accordance with the reader's purpose and with the nature of the selections.
X. Looking for the author's central idea and the leading divisions of his thought.
XI. Making mental reviews, or taking backward summarizing looks, during the reading.
XII. Making active contributions to the reading; reading between the lines; reading with questions in mind; raising questions while reading; getting more than the literal meaning whnle reading; getting more than the literary meaning.
XIII. Finding special information, or locating particular passages; finding special evidence.
XIV. Making comparisons; passing judgment upon the author's thought; supplying information to one's own problems.
XV. Analyzing sentence patterns.[3]

The teachers extended the value of the lessons by assigning a great variety of class and home work designed to meet the needs of individual pupils. Since homogeneous grouping was not possible, grouping was done within classes and some differentiation of work was attempted. Coöperation of other departments, notably that of Stenography, was enlisted; an attempt was made to make the school reading-conscious. The department of English regarded the situation as an emergency condition, and was unwilling to postpone the attack on silent reading until homogeneous grouping could be secured.

As a part of the remedial plan, everything possible was done to engage all pupils in an extensive leisure reading program with a range as wide and as varied as their reading abilities. By actual check, the range was from Pinnochio to Ibsen. Old and time-honored schemes of so many book reports on such and such types of books were banned completely and irrevocably, and much informal talk about books and the enjoyment of them became the order of the classroom. Because of inadequate facilities, classes were driven to provide their own libraries from donations of teachers and pupils.

The gifted group of this Freshman class was organized into an honor society by Miss Center. A study will be made of their individual programs to see that they are taking the courses suited to their abilities and possibilities. Wherever it seems expedient they will be advised to take courses leading to college, because it is from a group like this that professional people are to be expected. The group is to be sponsored by the English faculty, and kept under friendly guidance throughout their four years in high school. They will be informed specifically about the existing opportunities for securing college scholarships. An effort will be made to put them in touch with every agency of culture in the city.

The Second Silent Reading Test

After two months of as intensive work as was possible under the circumstances, a second silent reading test, the New Stanford Reading Test, Form W, was administered. To be exact, this test was given on May 16. This time 966 pupils were tested, with the following results:

Third grade level	1
Fourth grade level	2
Fifth grade level	25
Sixth grade level	74
Seventh grade level	147
Eighth grade level	151
Ninth grade level	229
Tenth grade level and above	337
Total	966

This summary indicates that, of the number tested, approximately 35%

[2] See *Syllabus in English for Secondary Schools;* published by State Education Department of the University of the State of New York, 1934. P. 25.

[3] Course of Study; University High School, University of Chicago.

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rated at or above the tenth grade level; 229 or approximately 24% rated at the ninth grade level; 400 or approximately 41% rate below that level. It is not a strange coincidence that in the first results (those of the Form V Test) 41% of all pupils were at proper grade or above and that 59% were below, and in the Form W Test, 59% are at and above grade and 41% below; rather it is the gratifying result of concentrated effort by all concerned. Even the pupil who read on the third grade level gained a few points.

By a careful checking of class lists of both tests, it has been determined that there were 953 pupils who took both tests. A tabulation of the scores of these pupils does not affect the percentages of either test, as is shown in the table below:

Of 953 pupils in both tests:

In Form V,

215 rated at ten or above; 22½%
182 rated at nine; 19%
556 rated below nine; 58%

In Form W,

336 at ten or above; 35%
227 at nine; 24%
390 below nine; 41%

Comparative Study of Recitation Classes
Stanford Silent Reading Tests, Forms V and W

(Reading Grade Level beyond the tenth grade is indicated by 10+)

These figures are based on 953 pupils who took *both* tests.

Class	Number of Pupils Tested	Range: Lowest Reading Grade From	Range: Highest Reading Grade To	Number of Pupils at 9th Grade	Number of Pupils Below 9th Grade	Number of Pupils Above 9th Grade
V 151	42	5.1	10+	4	25	13 V
W 151	42	4.2	10+	7	19	16 W
V 161	25	5.8	10+	1	21	3 V
W 161	25	6	10+	10	9	6 W
V 171	40	4.7	10+	7	25	8 V
W 171	40	5.6	10+	12	17	11 W
V 172	33	5.8	10+	9	18	6 V
W 172	33	5	10+	7	13	13 W
V 173	39	6	10+	3	25	11 V
W 173	39	5.7	10+	8	16	15 W
V 174	41	5.7	10+	5	29	7 V
W 174	41	5.7	10+	9	24	8 W
V 175	36	5.5	10+	6	18	12 V
W 175	36	6	10+	10	10	16 W
V 181	41	4.1	10+	4	30	7 V
W 181	41	5.7	10+	5	27	9 W
V 182	41	5.7	10+	5	23	13 V
W 182	41	5.7	10+	5	19	17 W
V 183	39	5.7	10+	7	21	11 V
W 183	39	4.7	10+	9	16	14 W
V 184	38	5.7	10+	13	19	6 V
W 184	38	6.5	10+	8	16	14 W
V 185	30	5.1	10+	3	23	4 V
W 185	30	5.7	10+	8	15	7 W
V 191	35	5.1	10+	10	20	5 V
W 191	35	6.4	10+	8	11	16 W
V 192	31	6.6	10+	7	9	15 V
W 192	31	7.4	10+	9	4	18 W
V 193	28	5.7	10+	6	18	4 V
W 193	28	5.5	10+	8	12	8 W
V 1101	40	4.4	10+	12	18	10 V
W 1101	40	6.1	10+	7	17	16 W
V 1102	42	5.7	10+	10	21	11 V
W 1102	42	5.7	10+	13	11	18 W
V 1103	38	5.7	10+	4	23	11 V
W 1103	38	5.8	10+	8	16	14 W
V 1104	36	5.7	10+	8	18	10 V
W 1104	36	7.1	10+	12	14	10 W
V 1105	38	3.4	10+	7	26	5 V
W 1105	38	3.8	10+	11	17	10 W
V 1111	38	6	10+	9	26	3 V
W 1111	38	6.3	10+	14	17	7 W
V 1112	36	5.5	10+	7	16	13 V
W 1112	36	6.7	10+	9	11	16 W
V 1121	38	5.6	10+	8	27	3 V
W 1121	38	5.9	10+	8	24	6 W
V 1122	37	5.5	10+	7	24	6 V
W 1122	37	5.4	10+	11	13	13 W
V 1123	36	6.1	10+	11	14	11 V
W 1123	36	5.5	10+	3	10	23 W
V 1124	35	5.0	10+	9	19	7 V
W 1124	35	5.5	10+	8	12	15 W
Totals	953			182	556	215 V
	953			227	390	336 W

Terman Group Intelligence Test

As has been stated earlier in this report, the intelligence quotients included in the elementary school records of these pupils were too varied, incomplete, and entirely unsatisfactory for use. It was therefore decided to fortify this survey by giving an intelligence test to the class. The Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Form A was administered during the last week in May. The test was given to 930 pupils and their intelligence quotients were computed. (Truancy

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and absence again played havoc with class registers!) The mean intelligence quotient was found to be 99.756, which indicates that the class, in general, is possessed of normal ability. The results of this test are shown in the table below.

52 pupils have I.Q.'s of 121 or above (they are of very superior ability).

134 pupils have I.Q.'s that fall between 111 and 120 (or in the superior group).

490 pupils fall in the average range, 90-110.

245 pupils are in the range 70-89, which is considered dull.

12 pupils have I.Q.'s below 69, or in the very dull range.

In other words, 19% of this group examined appear to have superior ability.

An examination of the reading scores of the 181 pupils in the superior group reveals that 156 of them read on the tenth grade level or higher. An examination of the reading scores of the 15 pupils in the very dull class shows that only one of their scores reaches the seventh grade level in either test; all other scores are on the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade levels, with the majority on the fifth grade level. Seven of this group are repeaters in Roosevelt, and whatever I.Q.'s have been reported by their elementary schools are low.

The general scholarship report of this class for the entire semester (January-June, 1934) is as follows:

Register	1,061
Passing all subjects	426
Failing one subject	244
Failing two subjects	152
Failing three subjects	91
Failing four subjects	48
Failing five subjects	35
Failing six subjects	24
Failing seven subjects	30
Failing eight subjects	11
Failing two or more majors	287
General average 80-84.9	53
General average 85+	14

In view of the records of these pupils in the Terman Intelligence Test and the Stanford Reading Tests, it seems fair to suggest that the achievement of many pupils is far below the measure of their ability. Of course, the intelligence quotient is not an infallible basis for judgment of pupils, but it seems logical to expect that with a group of 181 pupils of superior ability, more than 67 should be doing work of the 80% quality in all subjects. And if 678 have intelligence quotients above 90, ought it not to be expected that more than 426 should be passing in all subjects? If all the pupils who have failed return to school next term and repeat all the subjects in which they failed this term, the cost of this instruction (according to Dr. Tildsley's base of $15 per subject) will be $21,450. But even more important than saving money for the city of New York is the obligation to save the girls and boys whose records to date indicate low ability and repeated failure and who have up to the present time been

programmed anew for courses for which they are totally unfit.

A study of the intelligence quotients and a consideration of the progress in improving reading skill in a period of only two months, in connection with the scholastic report at the end of the term, force one to the conclusion that the pupils in Roosevelt are falling far below what they are capable of doing. The median intelligence quotient indicates normal intelligence; the pupils made a remarkable response to definite, systematic training in reading. The inescapable conclusion is an indictment of the guidance and instruction the school is giving.

Results of This Silent Reading Survey

1. The girls and boys concerned have been made aware of their limitations in reading skill and have made marked improvement.

2. There has been a better and wider program of leisure reading in connection with English work.

3. The objective tests have given the teachers a surer estimate of their pupils' abilities early in the term.

4. The tests have made individualization of work imperative.

5. The tests have measured progress objectively for both pupils and teachers.

6. The great need for homogeneous grouping of pupils was shown in the wide range of reading ability revealed in each recitation class, and it has become a reality for next term. All second-term English pupils are programmed in high, medium and low groups based upon the results of the two Stanford Reading Tests, the Terman Group Intelligence Test and the teachers' estimates of class work.

7. Special text-books designed to meet the needs of each group have been ordered, and methods of teaching will be adapted to the various groups.

8. Parallel low groups will be further reorganized until the pupils of lowest ability will be in classes which will become clinics.

9. Intensive instruction in silent reading will be continued in the second term classes and two silent reading tests (Haggerty) will be given this class next semester. In January, 1935, it will be possible to measure the results of a year's instruction in silent reading.

10. There is compiled and available for all teachers in charge of this group (and others interested) one record showing the scores made by the pupils in each Stanford Test, the I.Q. of the Terman Test, and the first-term English class mark.

11. A committee of teachers is at work making case studies of the pupils who are habitual truants and failures.

12. Various departments of the school are coöperating actively in the study; this refers especially to the Health Education and Stenography Departments.

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IN CONCLUSION

From the viewpoint of supervision, Miss Center summarizes the implications of the study as follows:

"The program of instruction in silent reading is a unifying, integrating force in the school. Reading skill is basic and essential to success in every subject. Under the leadership of the department of English, various departments have become aware of the value of silent reading skill to success in scholarship and have begun active cooperation with the department of English. The interest in silent reading has begun a much needed fusion movement to bring the whole program of instruction into a unity, breaking down to some extent the water-tight compartment system of departments. Out of this common interest should emerge a policy of sound correlation.

"The program of objective testing in connection with the instruction in silent reading has had an excellent influence on the teachers of English. They attack their work in a more systematic fashion because they have definite objectives to accomplish. The results of teaching can to some extent be measured, and teachers have experienced the exhilaration which comes from worth-while accomplishment. For example, when pupils make gains of several terms in a brief period of time and prove their progress by an objective test, both teacher and pupils deserve congratulation.

"A program of objective tests enables teachers to become acquainted with their pupils more quickly than they would without the tests. It is imperative in large classes that every device possible be used to break up the mass into individual boys and girls, each one with strong and weak points. Objective testing enables a teacher to differentiate text-books, methods and procedures from the beginning of the term without waiting weeks before individualizing instruction.

"It has been a hopeful sign that the program of objective testing and silent reading instruction has aroused considerable interest in teachers in the scientific study of education. There has been in Theodore Roosevelt High School a quickened interest in professional reading bearing not only on silent reading, but on all educational questions.

"Perhaps the best outcome of the program of silent reading has been the effect on the pupils themselves. Their mental processes are more reliable. When they are called on day after day to get the thought accurately from the printed page, they improve in the quality of their thinking.

"No supervisor can organize a program of instruction in silent reading without sensing the necessity of defining the curriculum on a three-track basis, re-examining text-books, re-allocating text-books, and reorganizing the system of examinations. To use reading efficiency as one of the measures of testing scholarship achievement is to relegate the perfunctory and the stereotyped to disuse. It means teaching and learning. It is not too much to claim that efficient reading means a high level of scholastic achievement in all subjects.

"A program of objective testing is useful to the supervisor. Given two classes with the same median intelligence quotient and similar reading skill, according to a standardized reading test, but with widely varying results in reading progress, measured by the same variants of reading tests, the supervisor cannot escape the obligation to discover the reason for the difference in results. Creative supervision requires that the supervisor with patience and skill raise the level of teaching of the less successful teachers. There is something impersonal about tests. Both pupils and teachers face the figures with no resentment and begin to compete with their own records."

GLADYS L. PERSONS.
Theodore Roosevelt High School.

THE FITNESS OF TEACHERS IN TRAINING IN MUSIC

DURING the fall term of 1933, the Director of Music, Mr. George Gartlan, the assistant directors of music, and the principals and the chairmen of music departments of certain high schools assisted in a survey conducted by the Board of Examiners into the professional and personal qualifications of persons who had in recent years been licensed and assigned as teachers in training in music. The purposes of this summary are:

(1) To report on the results of this survey,

(2) To illustrate how examination procedures may be improved by professional cooperation between supervisory and examining officials, and

(3) To thank heartily for their cooperation those who took part in the survey.

	Definitely superior	*Presumably acceptable*	*Definitely deficient*
1. Use of methods of instruction based on common sense and sound psychology	12	16	5
2. Ability in management, keeping records, school "housekeeping"	16	15	2
3. Ability to maintain good discipline	15	10	8
4. Manners; personality	19	11	3
5. Sympathy with and understanding of high school students	19	19	5
6. Cooperation with other teachers	19	13	1
7. Readiness to take advice	23	8	2
8. Willingness to work hard during regular hours	28	5	0
9. Willingness to do extra work	22	10	1
10. Use of oral English	13	18	2

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A. The Investigation

Data were secured through a questionnaire sent to high school principals concerning the fitness in actual service of 33 teachers in training in music. To insure objectivity and impartiality, no names were used in reporting on these teachers.

I. One set of items related to personality and to other general qualifications of the 33 persons in question. The results of this part of the questionnaire are herewith summarized. (See page 15.)

II. A second set of items in the questionnaire related to the professional musical equipment of the 33 teachers in training. A summary follows:

	Definitely superior	*Presumably acceptable*	*Definitely deficient*
1. Knowledge of musical science and history	16	14	3
2. Background of musical experiences	15	12	6
3. Ability to sing	5	16	12
4. Voice quality	7	15	11
5. Ability to play piano	18	8	7
6. Ability to conduct	11	12	10
7. Ability to instruct orchestra, band, etc.	11	10	12
8. Appreciation for music	20	12	1
9. Tone discrimination	9	19	5
10. Ability to impart enthusiasm for music	18	8	7

III. (a) Other items of *superiority* noted for certain teachers in training were: initiative, self-improvement, ability to gain student confidence, ability to handle student groups.

(b) Other items of *deficiency* noted in some other teachers were: lack of initiative, inability to organize or hold student groups, inability to secure individual recitations, unwillingness to assume increased responsibility.

IV. The 33 cases may be further summarized as follows:

"Superior" items predominating	25
"Inferior" items predominating	5
Neither items predominating	3
	33

V. Among numerous suggestions made by principals or by music department chairmen for the improvement of the examination in response to the questionnaire, the following are here recorded:

a. A moderate degree of ability to play piano should be required of teachers in training in orchestral music.

b. Teachers in training in music should know more about the principles of voice classification and production.

c. The written examination should cover not merely general musical information, but should include some tests of musicianship.

d. Personality should receive increased emphasis.

e. A more severe standard should be set up in piano playing.

f. Applicants in orchestral music should be tested on the use of the baton.

Competent specialists in educational measurements were also consulted. They contributed several additional suggestions incorporated in C below.

B. Summary of Findings

I. With respect to personality and general qualifications, the Board of Examiners has on the whole been fortunate in the choice of teachers in training in music. Particularly noteworthy in the analysis is the large proportion of young teachers rated definitely *superior* with respect to readiness to take advice and willingness to work hard during and after school hours. Their chief shortcoming is in their ability to discipline, which is to be expected in young teachers, especially in music; yet even here almost half of these beginners are rated definitely superior.

II. With respect to professional equipment in music, the Board of Examiners has been somewhat less successful in the licensing of teachers in training. More criticisms were leveled against the vocal ability of teachers in training than against any other qualification. The ability to handle instrumental groups and to conduct was also found deficient in about one-third of all the teachers rated. In other respects, a large majority of the teachers in training seem to give evidence of having a reasonably good musical equipment or better.

C. Examination Changes

As a result of this investigation, the following changes were introduced into the December 1933 examination for licenses as teacher in training in music and in orchestral music:

I. *The written examination:*

a. The short-answer test was made more reliable by extending it from 50 to 100 questions.

b. General information questions in music which a cultured layman might be able to answer were supplemented by more technical questions which only a student of music could answer.

c. 15 questions on voice production and classification were included.

d. 15 questions were introduced to test auditory imagination and ability to read music at sight. In these questions applicants were required to identify printed excerpts from relatively familiar vocal and instrumental music.

II. *The performance tests:*

a. For candidates in orchestral music:

1. A higher standard of musicianship in the performance on two orchestral instruments was exacted.
2. A test in conducting an orchestra was introduced.

b. For candidates in music:

1. A higher standard of musicianship in both singing and piano-playing was exacted.
2. It was agreed that applicants should reach a passing grade in each of these items. Here-

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tofore a moderate deficiency in either item could be compensated for by superior ability in the other.

III. *The interview test:*

a. In addition to the usual tests, candidates were questioned concerning fundamental principles underlying music teaching in high schools.

b. More attention was paid to those personality qualifications that would tend to insure success in discipline.

D. Examination Results

While it is still too early to pass final judgment, the opinion of all the assistant examiners who took part in the examination is that the persons licensed as a result of this examination are possessed of higher potential fitness than any other group heretofore licensed.

William A. Hannig,
Examiner.

CHARACTER FORMATION*

Those who undertake to train character must know the kind of character they wish to produce. It is, of course always a moral character. But what is moral? What is morality?

There is the morality of law and custom, expressed in ancestral codes like the Ten Commandments, which everybody understands. But the Commandments are not sufficient guides to conduct. We are commanded "Thou shalt not steal," but men are constantly asking, "what is stealing?" Is it stealing to sell a stock which I know (from a private leak in Washington) is going to fall in price?

Another commandment says: "Thou shalt not kill." But suppose your wife goes philandering with a traffic policeman, is it wrong to kill him? A jury recently acquitted Mr. Cuevas of Long Island City who was on trial for killing policeman Mischia. That jury did not consider the Mischia killing in the sense of the commandment.

Few people consider the rule applicable to the execution of criminals or to killing in war.

In hundreds of daily instances, as well as in critical situations, individuals are compelled to decide what is right and wrong within the law. They are constantly in danger of making mistakes and incurring the condemnation of some, at least, of their fellowmen. They have to make their choice and abide by the consequences. Every man, in other words, is obliged to create his morality as he goes along. We have, therefore, the rules of law and custom which are very crude guides to conduct, and the morality which each man is obliged to make for himself. Obviously, in choosing one's style of conduct one is not free to act upon the impulse of the moment, or to give way to every unconsidered emotion. A teacher can't tell either his supervisor or his pupils to go to the devil whenever he feels like it. If he did, he would soon find himself in a still more uncomfortable situation than the one from which he had hoped to escape by the use of that execration. There is no help for it. We who have our own design for living to create must understand two things—our own human nature, and the dilemma we are in when we try to live morally.

The curious thing about our own human nature is that we can't know what it is, nor can anyone else, until we have acted. The act not only reveals it, but creates it. When Odysseus had himself tied to the mast as he sailed past the Sirens, it was a wise confession of distrust as to what kind of man he really was. He did not dare leave himself free to act when the Sirens' voices should fall upon his ears. In planning his conduct Odysseus had not only himself to deal with. Whatever he decided to do would affect the sailors whose captain he was and who relied upon him to lead them back to their homes. There were Penelope and Telemachus awaiting his return. And there were the inhabitants of the island of Ithaca, the subjects of Odysseus, the rival chiefs, and the neighboring tribes. There were the gods observing him, and especially Juno. His conduct was to reveal not only his own character, but it must inevitably affect the destinies of other selves around him.

Moral acts work in two directions—on the social environment and upon the self or character. But the individual and the social environment are not two distinct entities. They form one organic system which is influenced in all its parts by stresses and strains set up anywhere within the system.

The individual's desires, his ambitions, his standards of conduct are part of his social environment. Yet his character is, in a way we do not fully understand, his own creation. In the words of Professor Dewey, in choosing one object rather than another, one is in reality choosing what kind of person or self one is going to be. This is sometimes expressed by saying that acts form habits and habits form character; or: "Sow an act and reap a habit; sow a habit and reap a character; sow a character and reap a destiny."

If it is true that the individual by his conduct in a moral situation is thereby choosing what kind of person or self he is going to be, we must assume that he has some conception of what he is trying to create, and we may well ask how he comes to choose one sort of personality rather than another.

The process of character-creation is probably similar to that which occurs in the creation of any other work of art. The painter has seen pictures, the musician has heard music, and the young boy or girl has seen, whether in real life or fiction, a personality he has admired, a parent or teacher, a

* A paper read before the Gestalt Group of Seward Park High School.

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hero of history, epic or romance. It is, of course, impossible for the young man to live again the life of his hero for any considerable period. Soon he is compelled to improvise for himself. Now and then he may be able to produce a fragment of almost perfect imitation of the pattern before him. But there will not be many such fragments if he is genuine. Very soon he will be forced to abandon the attempt and to deal with the raw material of life as it comes to him. His design will take on definition as he works. A new pattern will emerge out of the apparent chaos of experience, different from the early ideal, yet to some extent produced under the influence of that ideal. The task of the artist in living now is to round out this original pattern and to act consistently with it, following the rule: "To thine own self be true."

Disobedience of the Shakesperian injunction through conduct that is uncongenial to the pattern of character previously chosen and created by the individual, tends to produce a disharmony or a split which can be repaired with difficulty. It sometimes happens that the design is abruptly destroyed by an external event not of the individual's making, leaving him with only shattered fragments of the design for living upon which he had set his heart.

These are critical periods in the individual's life. Will his vital energy be sufficent for the task of resuming the interrupted work of creation, or will he thrash around for a while aimlessly and finally end up in hypochondria, insanity, crime, hysteria, or death?

Integration of personality or the struggle against disintegration, is the primary objective of moral living. Often the work of integration is resumed after such a disaster as that referred to above. If the work is successful, a new pattern arises, bearing some resemblance perhaps to the old one, but often so different that we speak of leading a new life, which is literally true.

Freud has pointed out how a personality that has been wrecked by moral shock may be carried over the dangerous period and restored to normal vigor. The following statement of the Freudian view is from Beatrice Hinkle's "The Recreating of the Individual."

"Freud has described how the patient becomes more interested in the life and personality of the analyst than in his own treatment and also alludes to the phenomenon of the almost miraculous improvement in the symptoms and general condition which frequently occurs as the first fruit of the analysis when an early transference is established. . . ."

"The actual personality of the analyst largely disappears and is replaced by the ideal personality created by the patient and corresponding to his own deepest needs. All the characteristics most admired or wished for are projected upon the person of the analyst regardless of whether they conform to reality or not."

In his "New Introductory Lectures on Psycho-Analysis," Freud remarks: "You will, no doubt, have assumed that the thing which is so hard to define, but which we call 'character' must be thought of as belonging entirely to the province of the ego. We have already learned something of what it is that creates this thing called character. The incorporation of the early parental function in the shape of the super-ego is no doubt the most important and decisive element; next come identifications with the parents of a later date and with other persons in authority, and the same identifications as precipitates of abandoned object-relations. We can now add to this list, as contributions to character, formations which the ego acquires, first in making its repressions, and later in a normal way in repudiating undesirable impulses."

In order to present the Freudian view of the processes of character reintegration with some degree of completeness, it is necessary to add a few more lines from B. Hinkle's "The Recreating of the Individual:" "There is revealed very clearly in this situation the basic nature of love which causes the individual to lose himself in the interests and being of the beloved, in contradistinction to the basic nature of the ego interest which would dominate all others to its own supremacy."

"Now, of course, we know that this positive transference is the same process which takes place so universally during the full flush of a love relation and which Freud refers to as the overvaluation of the love object. Ordinary examples of this are women who endow the most commonplace men with the attributes of a deity, or men who see in some ordinary ltitle girl all angelic virtues. Truly, love is blind to actual reality and the external object is loved only as it conforms to the psychological need of the individual."

It seems fair to sum up the Freudian method as a process of acquiring a new personality through identification with another, by losing, so to speak, the shattered personality and taking on the personality with which identification has been made.

The probability of the correctness of the Freudian view is increased by the fact that essentially the same process had been resorted to long before Freud was born and is still being practiced in circles where his name, if known at all, is spoken of with abhorrence. I refer to the field of religion, where broken personalities are repaired not by recourse to a physician, but to a divinity.

"There is but one salvation for all mankind," wrote the English mystic, William Law, the teacher of John Wesley. "And the way is one, and that is the desire of the soul turned to God. This desire brings the soul to God and God into the soul; it unites with God; it coöperates with God, and is one life with God."

Law was only amplifying the first of the Ten Commandments of the Old

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Testament: "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, with all thy soul and with all thy might."

Matthew Arnold, expounding Paul's statement of his own mysticism, wrote: "We identify ourselves—that is the line of Paul's thought—with Christ. We repeat through the power of this identification Christ's death to the law of the flesh and self-pleasing."

The Freudian method of character-restoration or reintegrating a personality seems very much like an echo of the method of religious mysticism. The same result, we must admit, is often accomplished by the old and well-tried method of falling in love. It is sometimes done by "identifying one's self" as the phrase goes, with a Cause. A Communist, in fighting for the Commonwealth of Man or the City of God forgets the miseries of his actual existence.

After what has been said, we are forced to the conclusion that "character training," as used in pedagogical circles, is a contradiction in terms. If character could be trained it would be an undersirable thing. Since character, as we have seen, evolves with action, a child trained so that its conduct could be predicted would be no better than a trained seal. There seems to be good reason for the feeling of revulsion many have at the thought of so-called trained young people. It has its roots in the well-founded suspicion that they are hollow, and that they probably would be unable to react effectively to any but the most conventional situations. We would not trust them in untried emergencies. We certainly could not bear to live with them. Most of us prefer original people, whose depths have not been plumbed, and whose characters develop naturally from within. One would hate to think of onesself as a trained character, the perfect product of some teacher's subtle designing.

Can teachers, then, do nothing about character? The reply is that teachers have done much for character development ever since there have been teachers and pupils. Teachers have always served as objects for their pupils to identify themselves with, to fall in love with. We do not refer merely to the familiar crushes of opposite sexes, but to the more common phenomenon of admiration of the teacher, trying to be like him or her, or like the person one imagines the teacher wants one to be like. In short, the teacher is there to be idolized for character-formation. It is, to be sure, a difficult rôle, and one hesitates to prescribe the technic available to the teacher for enhancing his or her charm. That must be left to the teacher's own personality and character.

And another conclusion one may safely draw from the above considerations is that it is futile to expect a teacher with an undesirable moral character to produce desirable character in his pupils, unless it be by repulsion. And if that is true, how vain would be a syllabus of character training with rules and exercises issued from headquarters for the use of all teachers in all classrooms!

ABRAHAM LIPSKY.
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A NOTE ON THE INFERABILITY OF COGNATES

I TRUST the editor of HIGH POINTS will allow me to make a fourth in the discussion between Messrs. Rosenthal, Jackson and the Straw Man.

I wish to sympathize with Mr. Rosenthal in his remarks on the subject of cognates. They constitute a great problem to the construction of text-books. The situation as I view it is as follows.

When one is writing reading material for children in the Far East one may be sure that practically all the words introduced are entirely unfamiliar*. The only doubtful point which arises in this case is the stretching of meaning of a word taught already, for example: *To wrap, A wrap.* Where the stretching is slight, one brackets it and does not count it in calculating the density (= number of running words per new word).

These bracketed words constitute a grave strain upon one's honesty. One's tendency is to count as mere stretchings of meaning things which really constitute new words and should therefore be counted as such, e. g., *To match, A match.* Naturally one wishes to show a nice level density throughout all the stories in a book; one wishes also to tell good stories and to tell the stories eloquently. One therefore tends to produce a good, eloquently told story at the desired density by the simple process of bracketing all the items which are above the required number of new words. The temptation to a writer of English books is considerable. The temptation to a writer of French books for English children is enormous, for here one has the help of cognates. If you have not a word for "bury," you write "enterrement" which is cognate with "internment," and you shove a bracket round it.

Needless to say, all the writers of text-books within limited vocabulary are well aware of this danger and are extremely careful and conscientious, but I am sure that none of them will feel resentment if I say that we all of us from time to time give way to temptation.

I believe that the only satisfactory way of preventing misuse of stretchings of meaning and of cognates is to evaluate the difficulty of every such stretching or cognate on a Rating Scale, for example, that published in Bulletin I of this institution. I do

* Except a very small number of adopted words, e.g., *football*, but these vary so much from country to country that they cannot, as a rule be relied upon.

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not go so far as to suggest that the ratings of the words need necessarily be published, but I do believe that the actual practice of rating these items is extremely conductive to honesty on the part of a text-book writer.

In reading French after he leaves school, the child will certainly be called upon to guess meanings of quite a number of cognates and stretchings. It is an excellent thing that our school text-books should give him practice in guessing. The word-difficulty-rating scale enables the text-book writer to consider whether this thing which he has bracketed as an inferable item (and has therefore not counted), is really guessable, or whether he is trying to get away with a concealed new word so as to produce a gratifying, but fictitious, word-density, or to show what a lot he can say with his vocabulary.

Exactly how far children can guess cognates is unknown. It depends of course very much on the context, also on the age, also on the vocabulary in the mother tongue, and lastly upon previous intelligently directed practice in guessing. We do not know how far the semi-false cognate can be detected by the child so trained. There is much work to be done in this field, but in the meantime I would advocate (1) the use of a rating scale in constructing all reading material, as a safeguard and tonic to the writer's conscience, and (2) the very great value of inferential reading.

Schoolmasters tend to regard guessing as a wicked crime, whereas it is actually a most healthful exercise, provided that the child is given adequate clues and a fair chance of success. The wild guess and the boner occur when a child untrained in inference is called upon to guess a tricky cognate in a passage which has not been adjusted to give him any help or warning.

The following passage may amuse your readers. It illustrates some of the little traps into which the guesser may fall; but that does not mean we should stop children guessing; it means that we must teach them to guess cautiously and wisely, and not allow our system of word-counting to set them problems which they cannot guess.

En sortant, Jacques se huerta contre la porte. Il regarda sa bosse. Puis il dit "Au revoir, Madame la Directrice." Il se trouva dans la rue. Dans la rue des ouvriers travaillaient; ils avaient posé leurs couffes par terre et avec des smilles ils s'adressaient aux pals. L'un d'eux chopa une chique à son voisin. Une noise commença; quelques autres riotèrent. Jacques entra dans une librairie où il y avait une belle collection d'estampes. Deux éditeurs le regardaient; l'un d'eux portrait une casquette qu'il venait d'acheter chez le confectionneur, et l'autre tenait à la main un paquet de primeurs pour ses enfants. Jacques ne resta pas longtemps, car il allait voir son cheval. En arrivant il chercha sa housse, car il devait le seller. Il ne la vit pas, mais il vit des haltères. Quand Jacques s'approcha de son cheval, qui était attaché à côté d'une mare, il s'aperçut qu'il s'était écorché la main. Il fit une courte promenade à cheval; puis il retourna en ville voir un notaire avec lequel il s'était accointé. Ce notaire était accointé. Ce notaire était fort industrieux et sympathique. Il était question pour Jacques de payer des rentes à son frère qui n'était plus aux appointements, et il devait aussi signer un bail pour la location d'une nouvelle maison. Il dut attendre quelques minutes, car le notaire était occupé à faire une lecture; il set mit à regarder une toile qui était suspendue dans le cabinet. Elle représentait une femme qui trépassait dans un jardin plein de fleurs; Jacques trouva que la carnation était très bien peinte. Quand le notaire entra, Jacques le salua; puis il lui fit part de ses griefs. Le notaire semblait assez distrait. Jacques lui demanda des nouvelles de sa femme qui était en collapsus, à la suite d'une intoxication. Son état ne s'était pas altéré depuis la veille. Le notaire donna des avis et quelques avertissements à Jacques; puis ce dernier lui fit ses adieux, aprés que le notaire lui eût donné une note qu'il retira d'une case.

(*E. Plunkett Fraser*)

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KEYNOTE ADDRESS AT THE AUGUST HIGH SCHOOL CONFERENCE

IN THE entire picture which education presents today, secondary education probably stands out in boldest relief. It offers the most perplexing problems. It is inter-related with social and financial conditions as is no other field of education. The aim of our conferences today is to direct our attention and that of the public to several of the most pressing problems that confront us.

Never has the path of education been beset with greater difficulties than those that face the high schools of our country today.

Although we find a constantly increasing high school registration—100 per cent in the last ten years—we are being asked to finance it with decreased funds. Society believes that it is protecting itself by compelling its members to secure a minimum education. Accordingly it has enacted compulsory education laws.

As a result of economic conditions, employment opportunities are reserved

* Given August 16, 1934, before the High School Conference held under the auspices of the National Association of Public School Business Officials. For program of this Conference, see page 60.

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largely for adults. Adolescents with neither money nor work are turning to the secondary schools to keep themselves profitably occupied and happy. Yet a dilemma faces these same pupils. Will they, when they reach the end of their high school course, if they complete this schooling successfully, find remunerative employment awaiting them? The experience of their friends is not encouraging. Young people do not remain inactive. They insist on being engaged in some activity, good or bad. Educators and the public generally hold that it is cheaper to retain our unemployed youth in school than to expose them to conditions which breed delinquency and crime.

We are told that a new age has come to stay, one in which every member of society will have a large increased amount of leisure time. Shall we educate especially for these leisure hours? We try to assure youth that material values are not the only goal to be sought, that many intangible values will accrue to them from a secondary school course. Are we certain of these intangible values? Are they real or imaginary?

Present day views of education appear to indicate that our educational philsophy has pretty well merged into a social philosophy. What progress have we made in adapting the high school curriculum to meet this tendency? In our rapidly changing social set-up, the worth-while of today appears valueless tomorrow. Is this also true of educational values? Are there any constant social or educational values? What are the important social needs of our high school pupils, and how can these needs be determined? If we find it possible to arrive at an answer to the last two questions, to what extent shall social needs determine the studies which pupils shall follow?

Our high school curriculum is being attacked as impracticable, as not preparing our boys and girls for life. Measured by the criterion of social needs, what value can be placed on the subjects which our secondary schools are now offering? Ought we to re-evaluate in the light of social demands such subjects as algebra, geometry, foreign languages, and the like?

While we all agree that English is essential, we will not agree that the way in which it is frequently, if not customarily, taught proves most effective from the social standpoint. Are we stressing those phases of English which function most prominently in actual life? Could we, for instance, well afford to eliminate Burke, Milton, and much of Shakespeare, and substitute courses aimed to produce effective oral speech, since the call upon ordinary individuals for effective expression is at least twenty parts oral to one written?

The secondary schools of our country have never before had so conglomerate a group of pupils. Does our curriculum meet the widely divergent abilities, aptitudes, and likings of these pupils?

All will agree that a major objective of our high schools is to turn out good citizens. Is there any convincing evidence that what we have done in the past is contributing materially to this end? When accused of failure we are apt to point out that actual contact with our charges is possible for only a small part of their waking hours. How can we link our work with those channels in which pupils find themselves when not in school? What agencies in the community can assist the high school in developing in our boys and girls a more practical idea of citizenship? What form of coöperation can these agencies and the schools give one another? The claim is made that the modern home has lost its influence over the child. Does the school have any responsibility in this situation, and how can more helpful ties be formed between these two powerful social agencies?

If it is true that our present philosophy of education is largely a social philosophy, then it follows that as citizens of tomorrow our pupils must somehow acquire those traits, attitudes, habits, which society in general adjudges to be worth-while. In this connection, courage for truth, open-mindedness, tolerance, and honesty are mentioned. On the one hand we are told that we are pussyfooting in not openly and honestly discussing contentious questions in the classroom. On the other hand we are assured that by permitting such procedure we are fostering a radical, rebellious citizenry, with no due regard for law and order and government. It may be easy enough to list a half dozen traits or qualities—characteristics of the perfect citizen—but it is quite a different matter to give such training as will result in the desired product. Shall these desirable qualities be taught directly, or shall they result as by-products? Shall, for instance, the major objective in the teaching of geometry be exclusively a knowledge of geometry, or shall the fostering of the habit of reflection, a courage for truth, open-mindedness, and the like be given greatest stress?

In my opinion, the investment which the taxpaying citizenry is at present asked to make in education is sound or worth-while only if our teaching aims directly and primarily at building a better and a happier society. How can our secondary schools contribute toward this end?

From all sides, today, friends and foes of public education are calling on society to decide what basic principles it will accept in regard to the education of its youth; what educational and social policies it is prepared to enforce and support. Are we ready to make effective the nationally accepted democratic principle that equal educational opportunities shall be afforded to all the children of all the people? Does the community believe that such opportunities should be the heritage of every boy and girl, and does that same community stand ready adequately to support such project?

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It is significant, though at times disquieting, that a small group of rather prominent individuals in our Empire State are obviously opposed to free public education. They would limit many educational opportunities to the financially favored who can take advantage of private school facilities. This group of American citizens—I refer to the State Economic Council—now propose to disfranchise those men and women whom misfortune has placed on the relief lists of our nation. They would turn the clock of human progress and enlightenment, as we see it, back centuries. By robbing their more unfortunate fellow-beings of the sacred rights guaranteed to every individual by the constitution of our country, the State Economic Council proposes practically to enslave 10,000,000 free American families. This same group, through its spokesman, Mervin K. Hart, as recently as July 25, at a public hearing in Albany, on State aid for education, blatantly described public education as a "racket." We are at a cross-road in this matter of free public education, and it is for society to decide which course it will follow.

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THE ADVANTAGES OF TEACHING THE SOLUTION OF VERBAL PROBLEMS BY THE MULTIPLE-EQUATION METHOD*

It certainly is not necessary to point out to an audience of teachers and supervisors of mathematics the important place that the solution of verbal problems occupies in the curriculum of algebra, and in the minds of pupils and teachers. Nor is it necessary to remind you of the untiring energy, and the many hours that are expended in teaching that topic. Yet, even the most optimistic among us will have to admit that at best we succeed in teaching the students how to recognize the types of problems and to perform the solution appropriate to each of them. But we fail signally to inculcate a true appreciation of the value of symbolic representation—how to reduce statements to symbolic form, and how to operate with symbolic forms. In the words of the recent outline of objectives, proposed by the standing committee, "we forget that symbolic representation is the essential functioning tool of all organized knowledge, especially mathematics."

To a large extent, the cause of this deficiency can be traced to a blind adherence to a tradition which dictates that for a great portion of the time we should teach the method of one unknown to solve problems—90% of which really involve more than one unknown. My thesis is threefold:

1. That it is possible to teach the solution of problems by using *many* symbols and *many* equations from the very beginning of the course.
2. That there are certain defects in the traditional system which are remedied by the multiple equation method.
3. That other advantages follow from an early introduction of the proposed method that make its temporary adoption for experimentation, at least, highly desirable.

The traditional method is so well known to you that I shall not bore you with a detailed description of it. I shall however go through, in some detail, the solution of a few problems that are usually presented to beginners, in order to indicate the possibilities of the multiple equation approach.

1. The greater of two numbers is 7 times the smaller. Their sum is 56. What are the numbers?
   let g = greater number.
   let s = smaller number.
   $g = 7s$.
   $g + s = 56$.
   substituting
   $7s + s = 56$.
   $8s = 56$, etc.
2. In a triangle ABC, angle B is 20° more than angle A, and angle C is 5° less than angle A. How large is each?
   $A + B + C = 180$.
   $B = A + 20$.
   $C = A - 5$.
   substituting
   $A + A + 20 + A - 5 = 180$.
   And so on.

Now that we are somewhat acquainted with the proposed method, let us review some of the defects of the traditional method.

I. The most glaring one is the erroneous impression given the beginner that a problem involves but one equation—and but one central thought. In consonance with this theory, the advice meted out to the struggling beginner on the best way of tracking down the elusive equation is often as ingenuous as it is futile.

I quote from a well known book.

1. "Every problem gives a relation between numbers." (Observe the words, "a relation.")
2. "There are as many distinct statements as there are unknown numbers." (This is certainly false.)
3. "Let x represent the number that the problem calls for." (This conflicts with the advice given in the next book, to be quoted.)

Another book advises the student to do the following: "Determine what quantity you will represent by an unknown letter. As a rule, it is best to let the smallest or simplest quantity be represented by the unknown number." This advice is certainly bad.

* An address delivered at the Hotel Astor on Saturday, February 17, 1934, at the Annual Open Luncheon and Meeting of the Mathematics Chairmen's Association.

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Often the conditions of the problem are such that using the larger number as an axis of reference yields a simpler equation. Very often it is quite a task, especially for a beginner, to discover in advance which number is the smallest.

A third book is responsible for the following:

1. "Read the problem carefully to find out all the numbers either expressed or implied."

How does one go about finding out the numbers that are implied? If a student knows what the word "implies" means, and also knows how to list the numbers that are implied, he does not stand in need of such counsel.

"Let a letter represent the number we know least about."

This couldn't be very helpful to a helpless beginner. In his state of knowledge, it is quite a task to determine which number he knows least about.

These quotations illustrate the vagueness and futility of the advice given, in spite of the best intentions. It is however not the fault of the writers, but rather that of a system of instruction, which attempts to force the solution of problems that actually involve two unknowns and two equations, into the mould of one unknown and one equation.

In contrast with the above advice, please observe, the simplicity and naturalness of the multiple equation method. There is no need to search for *the* equation, nor is there any need to find out which number you know least about. You just translate the statements as you go along into their equational equivalents. If an equation is missing, you look for a word or phrase that may be expressed in the form of an equation.

When the problem reads "Divide 52 cents among Mary, Jimmie and Fred," you write

$$m + j + f = 52.$$

When the problem goes on "so that Mary should have 3 cents less than twice as much as Fred," you simply write

$$m = 2f - 3,$$

and when the problem concludes, "Jimmie has 5 cents more than Fred," you conclude by

$$j = f + 5.$$

It remains only to get the solution of the set of equations by the method of substitution. This technique is one which is learned very quickly and liked very much. For it gives the pupils a feeling of power and mastery which they do not ordinarily acquire until the second term.

II. Another grave defect in the customary teaching of the solution of problems is that it opens a way to three and even four different ways of doing the same example. To illustrate: "The sum of two numbers is 30. The smaller one is 4 less than the larger one. What are the numbers?"

The pupil may recall that the teacher admonished him, in cases where the sum of two numbers is given, to let

x = the smaller number

and $30 - x$ = the larger number,

and he bases the equation on the second statement that the smaller number is 4 less than the larger.

(A) $x = 30 - x - 4$

He may however recall that the teacher said that sometimes it is wiser to let x represent the larger number. Perhaps this is the occasion. So he lets

x = the larger number

$30 - x$ = the smaller number

so that the equation becomes

(B) $30 - x = x - 4$

If he is not sure whether it is $30 - x$ or $x - 30$, he will skip the first statement and go on to the second for the symbolic representation of the numbers, with the following result. Let

x = the larger one

$x - 4$ = the smaller one

(C) $x + x - 4 = 30$

Or again, he may do this. Let

x = the smaller one

then, $x + 4$ = the larger one

and the equation is

(D) $x + x + 4 = 30$

This multiplicity of approach to the same problem would be very interesting, even fascinating, to a pupil in the second term, but it is certainly confusing to the beginner, and is probably one of the causes of his pitiful floundering in the early weeks.

Contrast the above *four* possible solutions with the following: Let

L = the larger number

s = the smaller number

then

$$L + s = 30$$

$$s = L - 4$$

Thus there is only *one* way of setting up the equations if he uses two unknowns. He does not have to make up his mind which one of the two statements to use for the constituents of the equation and which one for the setting up of the equation proper. In other words, he does not have to decide which facts are to be expressed in terms of the vocabulary of algebra and which ones in terms of its grammar. He does not even have to determine which of two numbers he is to honor by calling it *the unknown*, and which one of the statements to use first. He just translates as he reads, letting appropriate initial letters represent the unknown numbers.

III. Another objection to the method in vogue and a very serious one, is that we do not keep our faith with the pupils as to the symbolic nature of algebra. We inveigle them into believing that algebra is a kind of shorthand, in which you transmute clumsy, long-winded numerical expressions into crisp, clear statements by means of symbols and equations. For a few days we keep our promise in the teaching of formulas and problems involving one unknown. For example, when we teach the rule that the area of a rectangle can be found by multiplying the length by the width, we abbreviate it

$$a = lw$$

to the accompaniment of much fanfare about the superiority of symbols, both from the point of view of economy of memory and the saving of physical energy. But our own faith

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in the efficacy of symbols does not seem to last very long. For when, a few days later, we come to a problem such as: "Mary and Jane together have 30 cents. Mary has 4 cents more than Jane. How many cents has each?" we force the students to compress the two statements into one equation which bears little resemblance to the original language and its structure. Compare again, if you please, any one of the four possible equations of the problem in one unknown, with the following in two unknowns:

$$m + j = 30$$
$$m = j + 4$$

and decide for yourself whether we are utilizing the possibilities of teaching the use of that powerful intellectual tool—symbols in relation. Observe that in the multiple equation approach, there is an equation for each one of the explicit statements, and a symbol for each one of the unknowns. The structure of the equation follows, to a large extent, the structure of the sentence.

This one-to-one correspondence between an equation and the statement, and between a symbol and the unknown, specially when initial letters are used instead of x and y, has the following pedagogical advantages.

(1) It helps to focus the attention of the student on the structure of the equation, instead of on the component parts.

(2) It is easier to check the equational translation against the words in the problem, for you have to look only at one sentence at a time. Furthermore, the use of initial letters renders it unnecessary to refer back to the beginning of the solution in order to see whether x represents the number of cents Mary has, and 30 — x the number of cents Jane has, or vice-versa.

(3) Just as it is more natural (that is, easier and simpler) for a child to express an idea in two short sentences, rather than in one long one containing a subordinate clause, so it is simpler and more natural to translate a problem with two statements into two equations. Without pressing the linguistic analogy too far, may I point out that just as the sentence, and not the word or phrase, is the unit of speech, so the equation is, and should be taught as, the unit of algebraic thinking. I believe that you will agree with me, that it is much easier to teach the beginner to translate the first sentence of the problem about Mary and Jane into the meaningful equation:

$$m + j = 30$$

rather than into:

let x = the number of cents Mary has

then, 30 — x = the number of cents Jane has, etc.

In the traditional method, the ability to formulate these phrases is indispensable for the formulation of the equation, but, ironically enough, the formation of these phrases is much more difficult to learn and to teach than the setting up of the equation.

IV. The fourth argument against the traditional method is the overwhelming preponderance of problems

more than one unknown. A detailed study of this phase of the subject has already appeared in HIGH POINTS for December, 1933. I shall therefore, merely summarize the results:

1. Four out of every five problems given during the years 1926-1933 in the Regents' Examination in Elementary Algebra dealt with two or more unknowns.

2. Eighty per cent of the problems offered to the students, in five well-known text-books, for solution by one unknown, involve more than one unknown.

3. In a study subsequent to the one mentioned above, I found that if we include in our count those problems that even the authors recommend for solution by systems of equations, the percentage rises to 92 per cent.

Since it is easier to solve a problem when as many equations are used as there are unknowns, isn't it strange the pupils are taught to use a tool which is not adapted to its purpose, and are prevented from mastering a tool which is admirably suited to that end? All the more, the method of simultaneous equations is introduced in any case, later in the course, and considerable time is spent in giving the pupils a knowledge of it.

Imagine a teacher of automobile mechanics, who throughout the major part of the course compels his students to use pliers to tighten or loosen nuts and bolts, but who shows them, at the end of the term, that a wrench, too, may be used for that purpose. Or, for the benefit of the ladies who do not drive a car, imagine a teacher of sewing who insists that her pupils use a knife or a razor blade for cutting goods, and who in the end of the course, gives them some practice in the handling of shears and scissors. A little reflection will, I'm sure, convince you that these analogies are neither far-fetched nor ludicrous. But, I dare say, if we were teachers of automobile mechanics or of sewing, some of us would hotly and earnestly defend such practices, on the ground of manual discipline, cultural value, or as a last resort, transfer of training.

As a result of the delayed introduction of systems of equations, solution by addition or subtraction is the method that is almost exclusively taught. It is fortunate that that method should gain preeminence in the pupil's mind, for it is neither as general, nor as useful as that of substitution. This method will have to be taught in any case later in the course, in the solution of a set of equations, one of which is quadratic and the other linear. Furthermore, it will be more useful in physics and chemistry where functions of the second degree predominate. In the sequence proposed here, the method of solution by substitution is taught from the very beginning and thus becomes an integral part of the student's mathematical technique.

In this connection it should be of interest to observe that a possible saving of two or three weeks may be effected by the adoption of this meth-

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od. (The following observations are not conjectures, but the result of classroom experience.)

(a) There is the great saving of time in not having to drill in the formation of algebraic phrases, making of boxes, writing inscription above the boxes, etc.

(b) Less time is used up in the teaching of the so-called type problems.

(c) By introducing two and three unknowns in the solution of the early problems, you save two weeks that are usually alloted later in the course to the separate topic of simultaneous linear equations.

(d) You also save the time that has to be expended in teaching the solution of a set of equations when one is linear and the other is quadratic, where substitution is the only one available.

VI. Perhaps the greatest weakness of the traditional procedure is the inevitable use that must be made of the box method in solving certain types of examples. Let me grant that that method, though mechanical, is a great help, almost a godsend, to the overwhelming majority of students of algebra. By its use they are literally forced to become conscious of at least one of the implied relations, such as, "rate × time = distance," or that "value is equal to the product of the number of units, and the cost per unit." It also helps in the analysis and discovery of the relevant numbers, known or unknown; it juxtaposes those symbols and numbers that are related to each other, and aids in the formation of the equation. I know of very few books that do not resort to these magic boxes, as one whimsical boy dubbed them. The pupils with a sound instinct for what is good for their final marks, like the method, and most teachers do, too, for the same reason.

Despite the enumerated advantages of the method, there are many damaging arguments against its use.

(1) It is foreign to the spirit of algebra, which is, in essence, a method of solving problems by the use of symbols, equations, and relations.

(2) "But it is only a temporary aid, a crutch," many of you are inaudibly protesting. Unfortunately, it is not temporary, for its graphic nature impresses itself indelibly upon the young mind. Unlike a crutch, which is eventually discarded, by the convalescent, this device is affectionately retained, and by being used, it paralyzes, to a great extent, the power to rely on symbolic form and equational representation. It is an open secret that many teachers, who did not know that method during their own school days, turn themselves for help in analysis whenever they are confronted with a problem of unusual difficulty.

(3) The third argument against the use of boxes is that the student gets a wrong notion of the nature of algebraic technique, and infers similarity of mathematical pattern from the sameness of pedagogic device. Thus, age, mixture and distance problems all use the same tabular form, although the inherent relations involved have little in common.

(4) Perhaps the ... against its use is that it renders its ...dicts helpless in the face of a new ...pe of problem for which no super...cription has as yet been supplied by ...e teacher. The pupils are helpless, ...cause they are taught to fill in cubby ...les, instead of searching for the ...ndamental relations concealed in the ...oblem.

By making the inscription above the ...xes, the pupil is made conscious only ...f one of the two or more relations, ...at are involved in the problem.

To illustrate:

Problems about coins involve two ...elations, one about the number of ...ins, and the other about the com...ined value of the coins.

Interest problems too, deal with ...wo relations. One is, that the first in...estment added to the second invest...ent is equal to the total amount ...rested. The second is, that the in...erest on the first investment increased ...y the interest on the second invest...ent is equal to the total income.

Similar remarks may be made about ...e other types.

In all of these problems the method ...f one unknown does not bring into ...harp relief all of the implicit rela...ons dealt with. The pupil thus again ...gets the erroneous impression that ...roblems have only *one* relation and ...nly one equation.

In the March, 1933 issue of the *Mathematics Teacher*, there appeared ...detailed analysis of the difficulties ...upils find with the accepted methods ...f solving mixture, coin, interest, and ...ge problems. The advantages of many equation method were also pointed out there. I shall not repeat the arguments here.

But since the supreme test of a method is to solve problems dealing with rate, time, and distance, without the usual device, I shall attempt a typical problem:

"The rate of a certain passenger train is twice that of a freight train. The passenger train travels 140 miles in 2 hours less time than the freight train requires for a trip of 105 miles. What are their rates?"

Since we are dealing with moving objects, we are therefore concerned with rate, time and distance. Let R, T, RT refer to the express train, and r, t, rt refer to the freight train.

The equations are:

$$R = 2r$$
$$T = t - 2$$
$$RT = 140$$
$$rt = 105$$

And the solution is,

$$2r\ (t - 2) = 140$$
$$2rt - 4r = 140$$
$$210 - 4r = 140$$
$$70 = 4r$$
$$17\tfrac{1}{2} = r$$
$$35 = R$$

Observe:

(1) That in each case there are as many symbols as there are unknowns, and equations to match.

(2) That every relation, even though implied in the problem, was definitely expressed by an equation in the solution.

(3) And that the solution of the set of equations is no whit harder than the traditional method, which would

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most likely involve fractional equations.

As a final demonstration of the superior power of analysis, afforded by the multiple equation method, let me present to you a problem which does not belong to any definite type.

"A man sold 2 acres more than 3/5 of his farm and had 4 acres less than 1/2 of it left. How many did he sell?"

One who is brought up in the one unknown tradition is at first bewildered by that problem. It certainly does not belong to any of the familiar kinds of problems. The student may then recall the advice to let x represent the number that the problem asks for. Let

x = the number of acres sold

But how shall he represent the number of acres in the farm? Here he strikes a snag, and gives up. For there isn't a child in a thousand who can discover that the number of acres in the farm may be represented by $\frac{5x-10}{3}$. He then lets the unknown

x = the acres in the farm

although that is not what the example is asking for. But before he goes any further he must first discover the numbers in the problem that he is going to cast into semi-symbolic form. He must also become conscious of the relation between these symbols that he is going to reduce to the equational form. Quite a task for the average youngster!

But observe how that problem was attacked, after 3 weeks' study, by a class of students, brought up in the multiple equation system.

Let s = the number of acres sold
f = the number of acres in the farm
L = the number of acres left
$s = 3f/5 + 2$
$L = f/2 - 4$

About half the class obtained these two equations, and knew there was something missing, having already learned about the relation between the number of unknowns and the number of equations. Three bright youngsters discovered, moreover, the missing implicit relationship, namely, that the number of acres in the farm is equal to the number sold plus the number left:

$$f = s + L$$

I know that it is not strictly scientific to quote this as a proof, for I had no control class, no I. Q.s, and all the other necessary prerequisites for a real experiment. But the point should be made that the last equation, which is the most elusive relation of all, must be the first to stumble on, in the traditional method. But in the proposed method, a clue to the missing equation is often found in a word or phrase, or most important of all, in the very symbols that one had to use in the formation of the earlier equations. As is well known, even in the most difficult problem, one fact is always given explicitly, so that the pupil can make a start with at least one equation.

It is on this claim, the superior power of analysis, that I believe the

strongest argument for the proposed approach rests. For in setting up some of the equations of a problem, one often discovers that other equations are missing, and is spurred on to search for another relation which may serve as a basis for an equation. The student thus forms a habit of reasoning and analyzing in terms of symbols and relations, which is the very core of mathematical thinking, and which he may carry away with him, into his later intellectual life, long after all the puzzles, tricks and magic boxes have been forgotten.

NATHAN LAZAR.
Alexander Hamilton High School.

THE HONOR CLASS IN ENGLISH AT THE MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL

IN THE growing complexity of the modern world, the need for intelligent leadership becomes more urgently apparent day by day. The problems of social, political, and economic life are multiplying with bewildering rapidity. In a world faced with crucial problems, intelligent and aggressive leadership becomes a matter of great moment. For a leadership, bold, courageous, and enlightened, we must, in a large measure, look to our schools, and in particular to the honor students who are to take the helm in whatever crises confront their generation. We must, therefore, segregate them not merely for the purpose of equipping them with adequate knowledge; we must set them aside, assiduously to cultivate them as standard-bearers, who will be conscious of their problems and dedicated to the task of solving them for the general social welfare. We are coming to see that dynamic, social-minded leadership is the salvation of the modern state. The purpose of honor classes is, indeed, a paltry one, unless it is predicated on the vital principle, that a far-sighted, humane leadership can and must, fundamentally, be sought in the high schools.

There is no intellectual snobbery in this conscious training of leaders. Nor is any perversion of democratic theory or practice implied. We are forced, in the nature of things, to recognize an aristocracy of talent. We must use our best talents for our highest purposes. The best must be trained to lead. The rest must be trained to recognize and follow that leadership. In no other way can democracy function. In no other way is the democratic ideal capable of fulfillment.

In the English department at Manual Training High School, we have organized our honor classes on this cardinal principle. We regard our honor students not merely as gifted students who must be given a course of study commensurate with their abilities. We recognize them as po-

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tential leaders, and as such we treat them.

The opinion generally prevalent among honor students is that the honor class is a haven of refuge from the routine of "average" class. It is envisioned as an Elysian field where student and teacher, in heavenly abandon, chase the butterflies and pick the asphodels of literature. We do not permit these lovely, tender illusions to luxuriate for long. For it is our feeling that the honor student should be conscious of his superior ability, but that his consciousness must act as a spur to a greater, more meaningful effort.

Thus the honor class in English is a challenge and a privilege. It tolerates no intellectual priggishness. It fosters no indolence and complacency. It is a direct statement to the student that we have chosen him from many and dedicated him to a high and noble task. He must accept the responsibility of that task if he is to survive in the group. We demand that he manifest a full awareness of his duties, and that he display his desires to carry them out. For without this larger ideal of personal responsibility to the group, and without our rigorous insistence that he prove worthy of this ideal, the honor student is almost certain to develop a paralyzing feeling of superiority. Therefore we demand that he be actively cognizant of the implications of his position. It is the dynamic aspect of leadership which interests us. We appreciate his innate abilities, we tell him; but we want daily proof that he merits the honor we confer upon him. We are intolerant of back-sliding. We allow no student to rest on previously won laurels. He must win his spurs daily. The pace of an honor class is strenuous. The race is to the swift and the strong.

We seek, in brief, not only the good students, with high intelligence quotients, clean fingernails, good manners, and bright minds. We cultivate those who want to be better, those who consciously aim to develop into leaders because they see in leadership a high social mission. We believe that "an education which does not educate the will, depraves the mind." The teacher must teach the pupil how to will.

Our procedure in the honor class differs from that with other groups. We stress originality and initiative above docile repetition. More opportunity is given for individual research and effort. The project plan is utilized wherever feasible. The long-range assignment which requires protracted concentration over a period of time plays a very prominent part. The student's responsibility for the assignment is not a whit lessened because it is due a month hence. In fact, our requirements are even more stringent. We demand a thorough, individual treatment of whatever problem the student has chosen. To guard against feverish, last-minute spurts of effort, we have periodic check-ups of student work. This serves both to provide guidance and to help the student form regular habits of work. Needless to say, a high standard of written English is exacted from all honors students. Slovenly, inaccurate language, unless remedied, disqualifies a student from an honor class.

Thus far, we have been concerned with attitudes, emotions and volition in this training for leadership. We are of the conviction that unless the student clearly realizes the part he is to play in life, much of the more formal, literary elements will lose both force and meaning to him. But the mere focusing of this desire for creative leadership must prove futile if our students are not supplied with the fundamental disciplines and facts with which to make their desires effectively articulate. Desire without the knowledge of suitable means and ends most ultimately prove abortive. Again, knowledge minus the urge to translate policy into action must turn its possessor into a sterile theorist.

Thus, the second part of our program for honor students in English concerns itself with providing, as far as possible, those facts and applications which will give the student a deeper and truer insight into things as they are. We are, however, careful to point out that the status quo is not always what men most desire, suggesting that part of the young people's job is to bring reality closer to an as yet dimly realized ideal. For example, in our Journalism courses, the students learn the importance of the press in our national life. They are made aware of its enormous possibilities for social good and evil. Various types of newspapers and magazines are studied and an attempt made to inculcate a respect for ethical journalism and to arouse a demand for the adherence by the press to those ideals which are in the interests of public welfare. We teach our honor students to distinguish between the sordid, yellow sensationalism of the tabloids and the impartial veracity of our more reputable organs of opinion. The standards necessary for a sound and sane appraisal are arrived at through a thorough study of stories, reports, and editorials as they embody the ideals of the publication.

The importance of such a study cannot be overemphasized in the lives of those who are destined to be the leaders of the future. Without a keen and intelligent awareness of the devious and subtle ways in which the modern press controls and directs our lives, those who must lead remain powerless. Here, as in all situations requiring leadership, intelligence of a high order is a sine qua non. Once the student has laid bare the workings of the press in the laboratory of the journalism class, his perceptions are sharpened, his understanding deepened. He is in possession of the most powerful weapon we can give him against those who seek to exploit him and those he must lead.

Following upon the Journalism course, comes a course in elementary logic. This treats in a practical way of the principles of sound thinking

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and their daily violation in the affairs of life. We deal intensively with the stock logical fallacies with which the unscrupulous seek to gull the average innocent and credulous citizen. In these analyses, we are not interested in the dialectical intricacies which exert such a seductive fascination over the minds of the professional logician. Our course contains no "logic-chopping." We are seeking merely to enable the student to distinguish the true from the false. He knows he is to lead. The leader must know. He must not merely be able to sense a fallacy. He must be able to ferret it out, to drag it into the cold light of truth. To know the false when he sees it is to be protected against it. We equip him with the instruments with which he can probe with some degree of assurance that he will uncover whatever is undesirable. We sharpen his mental vision; we put him on the scent of the intellectually unsound which underlies so much of modern complacency.

When the student has mastered and understood these principles of clear thinking, we let him loose on some choice specimens of speciousness, culled from many fields,—political, social, moral, and economic. He sees what every clear-headed leader should see; how much of what men say and think is fallacious. He sees the great and the small grovelling in the same errors. He questions their proofs, their evidence, their reasoning processes. He sees how few come out of the alembic unimpaired. He sees, too, the evils into which false reasoning can lead him. He soon learns to respect a truth when he finds one. He learns, too, how the truth may be reached. The old saw anent man's fallibility he appreciates only too well. But he is not led to grow sentimental over man's weakness. Instead, we insist that this recognition make him more wary of the fallacies which lurk in every utterance. We demand from him a scrupulous adherence to the principles whereby truth is attained. The blind cannot, and shall not, lead the blind.

In connection with the logic course, we study advertising copy as a form of propaganda, and as a medium which utilizes all the known logical fallacies in their most luscious forms. We analyze, first, the various social, psychological, and physical appeals in advertising copy. Then, by the standards already acquired, we evaluate their accuracy and legitimacy. The advertiser is studied with the same scientific, microscopic dispassion with which he regards the consumer. There is no better corrective against the blatant vulgarity and chicanery of modern advertising than this cold-blooded, hard-headed dissection of advertising copy. How necessary such protective learning is may be gathered from the none too scrupulous activity of the powerful lobby in Washington which is attempting to emasculate the Tugwell bill. If the advertisers themselves are not willing to tell the truth, and if the consumer gets little protection against their ubiquitous lies, it is surely a legitimate function of the school to train its leaders to cope with this evil, as best they can. The motto of modern business, all its sanctimonious posturing to the contrary, is still "caveat emptor."

It becomes increasingly obvious that the school must take a more active part in training its students for social leadership. If democratic ideals are to be truly served, the spirit of critical intelligence must animate its leaders. A resistance to high-pressure propaganda and bally-hoo must be sedulously nurtured. The mad rush to stampede our people into a blind uniformity of thought and action must be stemmed. It is only through a systematic cultivation of the critical sense that we can conquer and stamp out the powers of darkness whose special pleaders keep the masses from a clear and unbiased view of reality. For if the people can be made to wash themselves with one soap, to eat one brand of ham, to smoke one type of cigarette, to admire one movie actor, is it a very great step to making them think alike on matters of more crucial importance? The technique is the same. And it is this technique which we teach our students, so that they may know it for what it is when they see it,—a force that is rapidly making of us a nation of robots, and slowly but surely extinguishing the spark of original and creative thought.

We are cognizant of these forces here at Manual. We have dedicated part of our course to an organized attempt to combat it with the only means at our disposal—reason. We feel that English has a very vital social purpose to serve, and that it must not fail. We feel that in dedicating our honor students to the type of leadership which can intelligently demand that social welfare be put above personal profit, we are doing only what the larger interests of the community demand. It must not be inferred from this, that in immersing our honor students in these social obligations we are cutting them off from the cultural heritage which our English courses must transmit and vivify. We are concerned with the spiritual side of the honor student as well. For we realize that the true leader is one who, in a truly Terentian sense, finds nothing of human value alien to him. But we are not betraying the student to rhetoric when he and his fellowmen cry out for realities. We are merely stressing this social point of view in the English honor class because it seems to us of peculiar contemporary and lasting pertinence to the task of developing those who shall lead wisely and sanely. We have our special courses in drama, creative writing, poetry, and culture, for the honor student. But this intense preoccupation with literature as literature, tends to make the student dreamy, introverted and unworldly. And we have a pressing need for militantly-alert, social-minded standard-bearers. We are turning our attention to them, with the hope that through this alignment of the curricu-

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lum with some of the realities of everyday life, we shall produce what all education aims to produce—a citizenry keenly aware of its rights and deeply imbued with a desire to attain for itself the summum bonum that is every man's right.

ABRAHAM H. LASS.

Manual Training High School.

HIGH POINTS

The Work of the Courts—A Lesson in Civics*

On Wednesday, June 6, 1934, we visited the Court of General Sessions, Part V, with Judge Corrigan presiding. We had made preparations ahead of time for this treat and we were welcomed there very kindly. The case to which my group of 43 students listened was "The People of the State of New York vs. Arturo Ramirez—Charge: Burglary."

When we entered the court, the Judge requested the lawyers to halt the case until we were comfortably seated. The children at the outset were visibly affected by the realization that this was a place where justice was meted out. They held their breath in wonder.

The defendant in this case was a Spaniard who was charged with having stolen some cotton goods. He denied the charge. His chief defense was that he had dropped a half-dollar into a cellar and had gone down to get it out. The policeman who discovered him leaving the cellar testified that he had carried out certain rolls of cotton.

The students were impressed with what they saw and heard there, though at times it was hard to get the substance of the case because the defendant spoke through an interpreter.

We heard the lawyers cross-examine the defendant as well as the policeman who made the arrest. The Judge charged the jury and emphasized the point that they were the sole judges of the facts in the case and that his duty was to give them the law bearing on the case. We then saw the jury led out into the deliberating room to reach a verdict.

At this point I sent for one of the court captains to ask the Judge to permit me to say a few words to him. This was granted. I said, "Your Honor, these children have just completed the subject, 'The Work of the Courts.' Wouldn't you give a little elementary talk on the importance of the courts in general and particularly of your court? They have looked forward to this visit with great pleasure and anticipation."

Judge Corrigan replied, "Gladly. Tell your boys and girls to assemble here around the bench. This is a good time, now that the jury is out deliberating."

I called my flock and in an instant they were there, and instead of the erstwhile stern and hard Judge they saw before them a most congenial and smiling, gentle, soft-toned gentleman. He gave them a brief account of the court and said that courts were as important as hospitals and schools. He explained that the community must be protected against bad people. He said that not all defendants brought to courts were really mentally responsible. Many were found to be psychically ill and instead of being punished they were sent to psychiatric hospitals. That was the practice of most courts. The purpose, he emphasized rather strongly, was primarily the protection of our people against lawbreakers but it was also important to *reform* all people who appear as defendants. He welcomed criticism of a constructive kind and urged the children to become good citizens by acquainting themselves with our many institutions. He thought our method of studying Civics was an ideal one.

When he was through I asked him if he would consent to answering questions. He graciously assented. Here are some questions asked and partially, though not verbatim, answered:

Student—Do you think this defendant is really at fault?

Judge—No question in my mind. He must be a half-wit to do such a thing after he had just come out of jail where he served ten days for stealing doormats at night. He had been at liberty only a few days when he found himself in trouble again.

Myself—Your Honor, if the jury brings in a verdict of guilty what sentence will you impose upon him?

Judge—That's hard to say now. I'll have to have his case thoroughly investigated by a psychologist and a psychiatrist and be guided by their reports. If he is found irresponsible, I may send him to a sort of hospital; otherwise I will send him to a penal institution where he may serve a term of from one and a half to three years. If he had pleaded guilty before trial he might have received a much lighter sentence for saving the city's money and the court's time.

Student—Don't you think three years is a rather severe sentence for such a small offense?

Judge—No, the public is not safe with people like that around. He is a habitual offender, as was brought out by the prosecutor.

Student—Do you think he was lying on the stand?

Judge—I feel quite certain of it. You heard him say he could not talk English and he had to talk through a Spanish interpreter. And yet the policeman testified that the prisoner spoke to him in English. He could be held for perjury for that.

Then the Judge explained the general procedure in criminal cases. After this, one of the boys from Civics 16 (Hyman Fechner) thanked the Judge in a little speech, which he had especially prepared, for the oppor-

* This is the sixth in a series of articles designed to show how the classroom teacher attempts to realize the objectives of social science teaching. — SAMUEL STEINBERG, *Associate Editor.*

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tunity afforded the class to observe a case in action. The judge was delighted with it. He asked me several times the name of the high school we came from.

One of the boys showed his homework book in Civics and turned to the lesson dealing with "Courts." The judge and staff eagerly looked into it and then glanced through the entire book and wrote at the bottom of it, "An excellent paper" and signed "Judge Corrigan of General Sessions."

By this time the jury had returned. The roll call was taken and the foreman was asked to rise and to give the verdict of the jury. In a low voice he said, "Guilty in third degree burglary."

During the next few minutes the prisoner was asked to give his pedigree and then was led to the Tombs to await sentence after an investigation of his record was made.

I then requested the Assistant District Attorney, in this case, Mr. McGown, to explain the very case which we saw and which he won, and to tell us every single step from the time the prisoner was arrested up to the time the jury brought in the verdict of guilty. The prosecutor gladly did so. He called back the policeman who had arrested the prisoner and for about ten minutes he told us just how he had captured the defendant. Then the Assistant District Attorney elaborated on the case in a most simple way so that all of us profited by it.

Next many questions were fired at him. I will not give his answers to them. I shall merely record a few of these questions:

1. What is a grand jury?
2. What is the difference between a petit jury and a grand jury?
3. For how long does a jury serve?
4. How are they compensated for their services?
5. How are jurors selected? (At this point Mr. McGown asked the regular clerk who handles the machine which spins out prospective jurors' names to explain the procedure. We spent fifteen minutes at that entrancing machine until we satisfied our curiosity.)
6. How could this defendant hire a lawyer if he is so poor? (The prosecutor said he would have the lawyer for the defense reply to that. The defending lawyer explained that he was appointed by the Judge and was doing this free of charge.)
7. Mr. Brody (lawyer for the defense), if you had felt that the defendant was guilty would you have handled his case?
8. Mr. District Attorney, weren't you a bit harsh with this unfortunate prisoner?

Many other questions were asked, but I must stop here. When we left the court room I felt that my students were satisfied that they had learned the workings of the court at first hand. Their comments convinced me of that.

SAMUEL WEISHAUT,
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Suspended Judgment in a Physics Class

The following story is due to Dr. Claude F. Walker of Boys' High School, and may be used to determine how well students acquire the scientific attitude of suspended judgment.

After a class has completed the topic of Acceleration, and knows that a freely falling body falls 16 feet the first second, and, furthermore, that distance varies as the square of the time, they are told the following incident:

"At the Hecla copper mine which is over a mile deep, a workman at the surface accidentally dropped a monkey wrench down the mine shaft. Going over to the telephone he called up Pat, the foreman of the crew working below, and told him to get his men out of the way as a monkey wrench was coming down. The men moved out of the way and the monkey wrench came down."

The class is usually giggling before the story is over. Upon asking one of the students why he is laughing, he may be expected to reply that the monkey wrench would surely have reached the bottom before the men would have had the opportunity to move away.

The teacher then dramatizes the story while the students time him. The teacher can drop an article, then go over to the wall, and say, "Hello Pat, look out, a monkey wrench is coming down." Then taking the part of Pat, the foreman below, he may say, "Look out, boys, monkey wrench is coming down."

The incident can be dramatized in about 10 seconds, and then the class can calculate the distance the wrench will have fallen in 10 seconds, due to the acceleration of Gravity. The answer is $(16)(10)^2 = 1600$ feet. Since there are 5,280 feet in a mile, the monkey wrench will be less than one-third of the way down when the miners move out of the way.

This illustrates the need of suspended judgment, by the fact that the students usually assume that the wrench will reach the bottom before the miners have a chance to move out of the way. It seldom enters their minds that the story may be plausible.

If any stop to reason it out, and find the story to be correct, then so much the better, for those students may have acquired the attitude of suspended judgment.

BENJAMIN H. WENDER.
Grover Cleveland High School.

Does Low I.Q. Prognosticate Failure?

Being curious as to the correlation between the marks received by students in my French classes and their I.Q., I kept a record of 558 students taught by me at Erasmus Hall High School during the past five years.

These students were classified into six groups, each of ten point I.Q. range, the whole range covering I.Q. 139 to I.Q. 80. The groups contained 72, 93, 109, 101, 142 and 41 students, respectively.

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The term marks were given on the basis of objective tests, whose questions were marked either right or wrong, eliminating as much as possible errors in personal judgment.

At Erasmus Hall, all term marks given must be in multiples of 5, and no marks of 60 are permitted since they are too close to 65, the passing grade.

Table I shows the correlation between I.Q. and term marks, expressed in numbers of each group and corresponding per cents. To focus the attention on a greater area, Table II is the same as the preceding with three groups instead of six, two adjacent ones having been combined both vertically and horizontally. Table II gives the numbers in the combined groups, and Table III gives the corresponding per cents. The three groups now correspond to supernormal, normal and subnormal classes.

The surprising fact to note in Table III, is that 72% (15 + 57) can do passing or better than passing work, only 28% failing for sundry reasons.

In conclusion, I believe that the differentials between normal and subnormal groups are not wide enough to warrant their separation into special classes, and that prognostication of failure of low I.Q. students on the basis of intelligence tests, correlates with only .28 reliability.

LOUIS J. ROSENTHAL.
Erasmus Hall High School.

TABLE I
Marks

I. Q.	90–99% No.	%	80–89% No.	%	70–79% No.	%	60–69% No.	%	50–59% No.	%	40–49% No.	%	Total
130–139	13	18	23	32	23	32	11	15	2	3	0	0	72
120–129	7	8	32	34	23	25	22	24	8	8	1	1	93
110–119	9	9	27	25	30	28	33	30	8	7	2	1	109
100–109	2	2	17	17	38	38	24	24	17	17	3	2	101
90– 99	3	2	16	11	40	28	42	29	33	24	8	6	142
80– 89	0	0	9	22	10	24	11	27	6	15	5	12	41

TABLE II
Marks

I. Q.	No. 80–90%	No. 60–79%	No. 40–59%	Total
120–139	75	79	11	165
100–119	55	125	30	210
80– 99	28	103	52	183

TABLE III
Marks

I. Q.	% 80–99%	% 60–79%	% 40–59%	Total
120–139	45	48	7	100
100–119	26	59	15	100
80– 99	15	57	28	100

A French Course in An Adult Education Institute

The Adult Education movement in the New York City high schools has spread so rapidly in its two and a half years of existence and has so often been discussed that it hardly needs an introduction here as a general movement. Yet little if anything has been said of the individual courses of which the Adult Education Institutes consist. My experience has been confined to the Institute of the DeWitt Clinton High School, the foundation of the movement. For the 1934 Fall Term this Institute has published a bulletin announcing twenty-seven courses of a highly varied nature, including sciences, psychology, dramatics, government, health education and languages. We can now truly say that the Adult Education Institute of DeWitt Clinton has passed the experimental stage and may be considered a well-organized, integral unit of the DeWitt Clinton High School.

The French course is my particular concern here. Of the four languages offered, German, Spanish, Italian and French, the latter is by far the most popular. The one hour sessions held weekly extend throughout the regular academic year, from September through June. There are thirty periods, fifteen each term with the usual breaks for mid-year vacations. The French course of the Clinton Institute is now beginning its third year of existence. During the first year it was conducted by a member of the Clinton French faculty and during the second by myself.

When I took over the course in September 1933 I was in a quandary since there was no syllabus of any kind and I was quite unprepared for the type of pupil I was to meet. Miss Kan, who had had the course before, gave me several valuable pointers.

Regardless of the many who still wanted to enter, the course was closed when the registration had reached thirty. It was the only one of the language courses to be closed because of its popularity. Though the Institute is open to men as well as women, very few are at leisure to attend since the sessions of the various courses are held either on Wednesdays or Fridays from 3:30 to 4:30.

The thirty women in front of me composed a very heterogeneous group in age, educational and social background, and in ability to learn. Some were American born, others were not; some had been to high school, others to college; some had had a little French during their school days, others had not; some had children studying French in school, whereas others had no connection at all with school life. Only two factors were common to all; a fairly good knowledge of English and above all an intense desire to learn. But just as in the daily classroom, I found the shirkers and the workers.

I was curious to know why they had come to study French and when I asked them their reasons all fell into several definite categories. They wanted to learn to read French literature in the original, to speak a little, to appreciate French culture and civilization and many in addition desired to keep in touch as closely as possible with their sons and daughters in school. Here are some of their own statements:

"I attend these French courses and love them because it sort of makes me more of a pal to my sons who are also taking it."

And another: "I came because I am interested in linguistics; secondly

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I did not want my children to know more than I do, and therefore took German last year and will go on and on till I am on a par with my children."

Or: "I am taking French for cultural reasons. I would like to be able to read the French literature in the original."

"I have never taken French in school and I felt I missed the meaning of a number of books that I read. Also I hope to go to France some day and feel that I will be able to converse a little and understand the language."

"I wish to study French to familiarize myself with French words that I come across in reading newspapers and books."

Two answers which interested me especially were:

" . . . and in addition may I add that there is a thrill in all *learning* and proving to one's self that the alert mind is an open one and always ready for new knowledge."

"My primary reason for attending class is to keep my mind alive."

From these few answers one can readily see the eagerness of these women to accomplish and to regain some of their youthful ardor.

I was now faced with the problem of what to give them in that one precious hour they enjoyed so much. Just grammar would never do. I wanted to maintain their interest, not deaden it. As my predecessor had done I called the course "Conversational French" and had the pupils buy the Downer and Knickerbocker's "A First Course in French." This book, though a regular classroom grammar, seemed to me to be less pedantic than most of the others and therefore better suited to an adult group with limited time. Using this text as a basis, I taught some of the rudiments of grammar, enough for a simple reading knowledge. We covered thirty-one lessons quite thoroughly. In every lesson homework was assigned, part to be studied and part to be written in a note-book. Corrections were made in class the following week. We read from the text and translated only when the meaning was doubtful or not immediately grasped. I attempted to instill a direct comprehension of the French without the intermediary step of English translation. Simple questions and answers on the things learned furnished oral and aural drill. Every week I was asked numerous questions by my pupils about words and expressions found in everyday, practical affairs and reading. Throughout the year the atmosphere was sociable and congenial.

The interest aroused was so keen that at the end of the year every one of these women was determined to continue wherever a more advanced course could be found. Several had dropped out during the first term but they were quickly replaced by others in the second term. The newcomers were required to have a sufficient knowledge of French in order not to be a drag on the others. At the end of the year those who had attended twenty-four out of the thirty sessions were awarded certificates of completion which they carried home proudly.

I realize fully that by no means did I treat the situation ideally, but it was a start, a point of departure for improvement. A text better adapted for such instruction must be found and the whole course must be attacked more directly. For many weeks I just felt my way along, not knowing how best to utilize that one hour. An additional second year course will probably soon be available so that the progress of the first year may continue uninterrupted. Many of these women were determined to study ahead alone if necessary.

JACOB D. GOLDSTEIN.
DeWitt Clinton High School.

A Unit in First-Year Composition

After carefully considering the problems that first year students face when they attempt to write simple narratives, I came to the conclusion that pupils suffer from three distinct handicaps:

1. The inability to start effectively.
2. The inability to finish effectively.
3. An inadequate vocabulary.

In an effort to help them overcome these handicaps and to correlate grammar, punctuation, and word study with composition, I developed this series of lessons.

Lesson I. In the first lesson we discussed story telling. The girls were taught that to have an effective beginning and to eliminate non-essentials they were to begin with the problem in the story. This problem could be stated either as a definite statement, a definite question, or a definite quotation. Using a story which the girls had read, the teacher gave the following illustrations:

1. Cynthia, whose duty it was to take care of Constancy, the cow, determined to ask her father to relieve her of this burdensome task.

2. Will Cynthia, whose duty it is to take care of Constancy, the cow, asks her father to relieve her of this burdensome task?

3. "Father must get someone else to take care of Constancy," muttered Cynthia rebelliously, "for I'm tired of doing it."

Then the girls were told to give the circumstances which had helped to solve the problem. Some girls were able to give interesting facts in one sentence, but others needed two sentences. They were told to give the solution of the problem in the last sentence. After a model according to this pattern had been worked out orally, the girls were given a few minutes in which to compose a three-sentence composition that would give the essentials of some story that they had read. The criticism of the girls' work helped to point out to the story-teller just what vital information had been left out.

After the girls had realized that a simple story could be told in three sentences, they agreed to use only that number in preparing assignments for the next few weeks. The girls began to listen carefully to make sure that no one overstepped these limits, and

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soon were able to detect run-on and fragmentary sentences in the oral and written work.

In the two weeks that followed, the girls were given practice in the use of the period and question mark. To help them identify characters without using additional sentences, they were taught the noun in apposition.

During a lesson in literature, the girls had discussed the habitual actions of people. They had come to the conclusion that eating, sleeping, walking, talking, laughing, and working occupied most of their time and that, therefore, there must be many words in the English language which could express these actions. They realized that different people perform these habitual actions in entirely different ways and that words can express these differences.

Lesson II was, therefore, devoted to a study of the behavior of different characters. The angry person, the nervous person, the frightened person, the happy person were but a few of the people who found their movements scrutinized and then dramatized by the girls. The class suggested verbs such as *pace, stride, tramp, shuffle, sway, strut, swagger, stumble, creep, toddle, sidle, trudge.* The third person, present tense of the verb was used because the girls needed practice in using this form. They habitually left off the "s."

A model was then given by the teacher to show how Lessons I and II could be combined. In the first sentence, the problem was stated and the mood implied. The second and third sentences were devoted to a description of the movements of the character under the stress of emotion, and to the solution of the problem. Topics such as "Trying Not to Wake the Family," "Bringing Home a Medal to Mother," "Caught in the Traffic" were assigned and the girls were asked to write their three-sentence compositions using the vocabulary which they thought would suit their purpose.

Since verbs were being stressed in composition, the grammar lessons were devoted to the tenses of verbs, to the formation of tenses, and to the study of irregular verbs.

Lesson III. During this lesson the girls discussed the speech of different types of people. They realized that pitch changes under the stress of different emotions and that a loss of self-control makes us akin to the beasts. Such words as *barks, snaps, snarls,* and *hisses* amused them very much and incidentally made them realize the value of a beautiful voice. After representative types of people had been chosen, such as an angry man, an angry woman, a frightened child, a student, sympathetic person, and the girls had suggested such words as *growls, snaps, scolds, berates, nags, wails, whimpers, explains, soothes,* the teacher read a model three-sentence composition which showed the girls how to combine Lessons I, II, and III. The girls then wrote three-sentence compositions patterning them after the model and making use of the words taught them.

During these weeks, the subject and predicate were stressed in grammar and practice was given in the punctuation of direct quotation and of nouns in the possessive case.

Some of the short stories which the girls had been reading were reread, and words and phrases depicting the emotions of the characters were added to the original list. "Betsy Has a Birthday" provided us with words which would express vividly the feeling of fear; "Lad, a Dog" gave us words that would express the movements and feelings of the pursued and the pursuer; "A Return to Constancy" gave a vocabulary of joy and relief.

Later, when we read "Treasure Island," the girls added vivid words that described the speech and movement of the characters in the chapters, *The Last of the Blind Man, The Attack on the Stockade, The Council of War,* and *At the Sign of the Spyglass.*

Words describing the various ways of eating, sleeping, laughing, and writing were discussed either during the first five minutes or the last five minutes of the literature period.

To complete this unit of work the girls were asked to tell a short story to the class, but to limit themselves to five sentences. On the blackboard were written the following pointers:

You will succeed if you

1. Begin with your problem,
2. Select only those incidents which will help to solve the problem,
3. Use vivid words that will describe exactly the speech and movement of your characters,
4. End with the solution of the problem.

With these instructions in mind and with a vocabulary with which to express themselves, the great majority had little trouble in telling their stories effectively. Their audience knew what to expect and were, therefore, able to make more intelligent criticisms. Whenever the choice of words was challenged, each girl had to act out her word and the class decided which was more suitable.

After these preliminary lessons, the teacher assigned longer compositions which would give the girls an opportunity to use the principles taught up to that point. In the discussions that preceded the actual writing, the girls tried to determine the moods of their characters and to find suitable words in which to show their actions and speech.

Lesson IV. This lesson was devoted to the study of the adjective. During the grammar drill, the girls were given slips of paper and sent to the blackboard to write the sentences which they found on their slips. These had been chosen by the teacher from "In the Light of Myth." They served as models to show how vivid and beautiful the adjective made the sentence. The girls were then asked to bring in appropriate substitutes for "cute," "horrible," "terrible," and other overworked adjectives. Nouns were supplied for which the girls were to

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choose appropriate adjectives. For homework, the pupils were asked to write a vivid sentence to describe such pictures as frost on window panes, moonlight on an object or on water, and the first snowfall.

Lesson V. During this period, the girls discussed means of making verbs of action more vivid by the use of adverbs. This lesson followed the same general procedure as the one on the adjective.

To add to their vocabulary of adjectives and adverbs, passages from the following books were read: "Shadow on the Rock," "Treasure Island," scenes at Torquilstone from "Ivanhoe," and "Green Mansions."

The compositions that were then assigned were of such nature as to enable the girls to use all the principles that had been taught up to that point. These sentences are selected at random from resulting first year compositions:

The snow fell softly on tall thin trees and sloping roofs.

The clean bright sand glistened in the sunlight as the silent waters of the ocean washed against the shores of the quiet beach.

The moonlight on the waves made them look like little mountain peaks of snow.

The field was a mass of golden corn waving in the cool breeze.

When spicy and savory odors of turkey, pies, and puddings drifted into the room, we all agreed it was time to stop our play.

The swimmers floated lazily in the quiet waters of the pool.

During the weeks when adjectives and adverbs were being discussed and used in compositions, the correct use of these parts of speech, the comparison of adjectives and adverbs, and the punctuation of words in series were taught. The phrase and the clause were taught as a means of securing variety in the sentence.

The final lessons of the term were spent studying impressions gained through the senses. These lessons followed the same general procedure. First there was vocabulary building; then the teacher's model showing the way in which vocabulary could be used. Finally, the girls wrote compositions patterned after the teacher's. Helen Keller's autobiography proved valuable for this work. The girls were surprised to discover how much more Helen Keller knew about the outdoor world than they did. This interested them so that the next two literature periods were devoted to reading "The World I Live In."

All written compositions and all oral work were then supposed to combine the principles taught throughout the term.

During dictation lessons, sentences like these were given: "We are moving," said Mrs. Jones. "We are moving," sighed Mrs. Jones. After the punctuation had been discussed, the girls were asked to choose the more vivid sentence and to build a story to show what the word "sighed" had made them realize. It was interesting to see how many different types of people Mrs. Jones and her husband became.

To encourage the girls to write vividly, the bulletin board was devoted to interesting sentences written by the girls.

At the end of the term, the girls were told that they had been the subject of an experiment, and they were asked to give anonymously their reaction to this experiment. Most of the girls felt that composition had been made easy because they knew where to begin, how to stop, and what words to use. They added that they had learned to read poems and stories with greater pleasure and that they had become conscious of the beautiful words used by authors. Others, and these I believe must be the brighter students, said that they had always been able to write, but that they had never known just what to leave out. They felt that they now knew just why they had included every sentence that appeared in the final copy.

PAULINE COHEN.
Walton High School.

Correlation Between First-Term English and Civics at the Walton High School

In so far as the general aims of the teaching of English and of History are the same, for example, the development of a sense of social responsibility, of tolerance, and of suspended judgment, there has always been some correlation between the work in the two subjects. At a joint conference of the departments of History and of English at Walton High School, held a year ago, we decided that more deliberate and more specific correlation was necessary. The logical place to start this work seemed to be Term I in which all the students study English and Civics.

Our greatest use of the Civics material has been in silent reading and in précis work. The Civics teachers selected approximately twelve paragraphs from Civics text-books not used by the students, passages of equal difficulty with those in the students' books and based on the same subjects. The English department had these paragraphs mimeographed and used them as material for silent reading. On some paragraphs, the students formulated questions; on others, they answered questions; some paragraphs they paraphrased; others they summarized.

In my own classes, our most successful use of the Civics material during the term February to June 1934, was a project which stressed silent reading but which also included oral composition. At this time, the girls were studying in their Civics classes the health problems of New York City. They thought that a moving picture would be an effective way of presenting the work of the Department of Health and its various bureaus. The students thought that even if they could not actually prepare such a picture, the planning of a scenario would be an amusing way of

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reviewing the material which they were studying in the Civics classes.

My own primary objective was to teach them to read any material, but more specifically at this time, Civics material, more accurately, more thoughtfully, and at the same time, more rapidly. The pupils supplied material taken from the newspapers and from their Civics lessons, but since this was in part a silent reading project, we used the text-book wherever it was adequate.

Our problems were two-fold:

1. What does New York City do to protect the health of its citizens?
2. How can we use this material in a scenario?

For about a week we spent a part of each period discussing possible ways of treating the subject. Then we assembled on the blackboard our cast of characters. Miss Walton was the heroine; Mr. New York, her protector, the hero. Miss Walton and Mr. New York had many enemies such as flies and impure food, but they had powerful friends in Science and in his pupils, the Department of Health and its bureaus, as well as in other city departments, such as the Department of Street Cleaning and the Department of Parks.

After we had chosen our cast, which of course varied somewhat in each class, we decided on the scenes needed and the order in which they should be presented. On the board, we wrote a brief title for each scene, while one girl described orally just what action the scene would include.

Our first scenes showed Miss Walton in danger. Further scenes showed the work of the various bureaus as each one explained to Mr. New York just what his function would be in the rescue of Miss Walton. Later scenes showed Mr. New York, with the assistance of these bureaus, triumphantly bringing Miss Walton to safety.

At the end of the period, one first-term student asked permission to write a play on the subject. The class suggested that a group work on the play and present it in class during an oral English lesson. Although one student wrote some of the dialogue as well as an outline of the play, each actress revised and enlarged her own part. Despite the fact that the play followed essentially the lines of the scenario with which the class was already familiar, the girls were delighted with it because they felt that it was entirely their own.

During the past semester we continued the work in silent reading and in oral composition on topics correlated with Civics. In addition, each teacher of first-term English has directed at least one English project which incorporated Social Science material.

One of the most useful of these units of work was a reading project that used as its material a student publication of the History Department, called *The New Deal* which had previously been given to every student in Walton High School. In writing summaries of such articles as *The Government Makes Ends Meet*, and *The Federal Relief Program*, the approach included the following steps: a discussion of related topics within the pupils' experience, such as family budgets or government relief, leading up to suggestions based upon the information they had offered concerning the purposes of federal budgets and relief programs; silent reading of the selection, guided by a question which linked the material under consideration to their own experience; then, the discussion of difficult words. Finally, the main ideas in the passage were listed on the board, and the most important of these were summarized in the pupils' own words. The summaries were then read by student committees, which selected the best one on each topic. These summaries and the material on which they were based were assembled as a book.

Another project was based directly upon the work learned in the Civics classes. As each unit of work was completed, girls in the English classes suggested a list of topics bearing on various phases of the Civics unit. From the suggested list, each girl chose the topic which appealed to her. After simple outlines had been prepared and corrected, compositions were written which were corrected by student committees. The book of those compositions which the class considered most satisfactory covered many topics: City Planning, Education, Labor, Protection of Life and Property, Transportation, Water Supply, and the Welfare of the Unfortunate.

Still another first-term group developed a project on the effective use of leisure. After a discussion of the subject, the girls made a list of places of interest in New York City which they would like to visit. Among those chosen were the parks, the museums, and the libraries. After their visits, the students made speeches giving their impressions and presenting the information they had obtained. The audience gave them valuable criticism which included suggestions for improving the first and last sentences, additional information they might have given, or a new point of view which they might have considered. The girls followed these suggestions in writing their essays. These were submitted to the chairmen of the committees, who then chose the best ones, which, when corrected and rewritten, were accepted for the class book.

The project called *The World Metropolis and Men Who Made It Great* was a particularly interesting one, which stressed the general ideals of the course in both Civics and English. The students wrote a series of short biographical sketches of men who had made important contributions in the following fields: Government, philanthropy, literature, education, industry, inventions, protection of life and property, social welfare, parks, and the theatre.

In some classes the pupils developed individual projects instead of class projects. One group, after a study of

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books, pamphlets, charts and maps, wrote essays on the development of transportation, education, health, and sanitation in our city.

My own classes wrote a book called *Letters to Government Departments*. One class wrote letters to municipal departments, one to state departments, and one to federal departments. Each girl told the class which department she had chosen and the information or help for which she was writing. The class ruled out many topics as inconsequential, others as useless to high school students, others as duplications of letters already written. In this discussion the class reviewed the division of power among city, state, and national government, the departments comprising each, and the work of each department. Every girl, in her effort to write a letter which would be included in the class book readily learned to use correct business letter forms. Since the students felt that the book was incomplete without a preface, each class elected a committee to write one. Of the three prefaces one was very mediocre and was therefore rejected. The other two prefaces were so interesting to the class that they did not wish to discard either. Finally, a student suggested that one of the prefaces be changed slightly and used as a conclusion.

In these projects, we achieved several valuable results, among which were the following:

1. The composition work was given a definite direction.
2. The students were made to realize that the Civics work extended beyond the Civics period.
3. The use of public facilities for recreation was encouraged.
4. The students were made conscious of the advantages of living in a city like New York.
5. Practice in searching for, judging, and assembling new material was given to the students.
6. The necessity of coöperation was made obvious.
7. A realization of the social problems involved in any group work was developed.
8. Interest in both composition work and Civics work was increased.
9. Girls having special art ability were given an opportunity to use it for the benefit of the entire class.

At the end of a year of this correlated work, we feel confident that it has been of great value to the students.

JULIA SCHACHAT.
Walton High School.

Activities of the Placement Bureau at the Abraham Lincoln High School

Recognizing that guidance is an integral part of education, we at the Abraham Lincoln High School have attempted to provide our pupils with the opportunity for the type of guidance which their individual cases may require. During the course of a term we find that we have served to guide pupils not only educationally and vocationally, but in mental, physical, economic and social phases of their school life as well.

Because of the large registration in our school, it has not been possible, even with the full coöperation of the faculty, for the Guidance and Placement Office to reach all pupils or to extend this service to them, but we have been able to give the desired attention to those pupils who presented a definite guidance problem. Such pupils are sent to the Placement Counselor by Deans, Grade Advisers, and others interested in the adjustment of pupils.

The aim of the guidance program is to keep pupils in school through adjustment to the proper courses within the school, or by transfer to the desired courses in other schools.

As most of the cases handled by the Placement Bureau present educational or vocational problems, it has been possible, through adjustments by transfers to other schools, to reduce the number of dropouts from school by approximately 50%. Of the remaining groups who actually drop out, the majority are superannuated pupils or those who have reached the legal minimum working age, and who normally constitute a placement problem. Of 721 students interviewed for adjustment in the term of September 1933-January 31, 1934, 238 were transferred to industrial or vocational schools and 97 were adjusted through change of program in this school. One hundred twenty-seven were the low I.Q. group of the new entrants who were tested in the Otis Intelligence Test and required follow-up. Seven were handicapped pupils who were sent to the State Rehabilitation Bureau. The remainder of these adjustment cases, 252 in all, were those who constituted the placement problem.

In connection with these adjustment cases, 453 interviews with parents were conducted.

In spite of the present state of the labor market, 25 full-time jobs and 20 part-time jobs were secured for those pupils. During the term, 111 follow-up contacts were made with pupils placed in employment or transferred to industrial or other schools.

Another function of the Placement Counselor is that involving gathering and disseminating of occupational information. This information, which includes occupational monographs and other material, is made available to pupils through the library and through classes in economic citizenship. The teachers of this course, which actually is a group guidance course, call upon the Counselor for industrial and occupational information for use in their classes and they ask the Counselor to arrange for visits by pupils to business and industrial plants to observe and study occupations.

We feel that not only should our efforts be expanded to reduce the number of dropouts during the term, but also some effort should be made to prevent maladjustment upon entering.

The Counselor has spent considerable time at the beginning of the term

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in analyzing the Intelligent Quotients of new entrants from elementary and junior high schools and assisting in arranging proper programs where necessary. The aim is to insure to each pupil the course which best meets his future school and work plans.

An important function of the Placement Bureau incidental to the work of guiding pupils in the school consists in helping adult members of families of pupils in the school, who need assistance, in finding work or in getting information concerning adult courses that are available throughout the city.

In promoting these activities the Counselor participates in weekly meetings with the Deans and other people in the school who are concerned with the school guidance program. She contacts the various outside guidance and placement bureaus, clinics, and social service organizations, as well as the guidance and placement counselors in junior and senior high schools.

I cannot conclude this article without mentioning the Central Office of Guidance and Placement. It is here that one meets the highest degree of coöperation. Every matter of importance which counselors should know is brought to their attention. Matters requiring important decisions always receive careful consideration. We consider our Central Office a clearing house for everything pertaining to guidance and not merely a repository for official reports.

NETTIE WINKLER,
Placement Counselor.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENT

Motion Pictures in Education

"Educators have a responsibility to guide, in so far as they can, and work with the motion-picture industry in such a way that false conceptions and improper situations may not be accepted through countless reiterations to the entire cross-section of the population."

This opening statement in a report on "Motion Pictures in Education in the United States," compiled by the Federal Office of Education, is followed by the declaration that "The attendance of large numbers of children at motion pictures has been under scrutiny by various groups. Children are apparently receiving a considerable amount of their education thereby, particularly in human relations, and more specifically in courtship and marriage."

Important facts on motion pictures are brought out by the report which was prepared by Dr. Cline M. Koon, Federal Office of Education specialist in radio and visual education, with the assistance of a committee of leaders in the field called together by United States Commissioner of Education George F. Zook. It is one of more than 40 reports on motion pictures in education presented by various nations at the meeting of the International Congress of Educational and Instructional Cinematography held in Rome.

Following are significant facts in the report which has just been released:

It is estimated that 70,000,000 persons attend motion picture performances every week in the United States.

On an average, each child in areas where motion pictures are physically available, goes to the movies once a week.

Three out of four of the pictures that are shown relate to sex, crime or romantic love.

The child retains two-thirds as much as the adult from his attendance at the movies.

Motion pictures change children's attitudes and these changes have a lasting influence.

Motion picture appreciation courses in high schools offer a new and promising method for building better standards of judgment of films on the part of children.

190,000 non-theatrical motion picture projectors are in use, including home sets, the Department of Commerce reports.

Thirty-two States have film libraries.

At the present time, most of the non-theatrical projectors in school auditoriums and public halls are 35 millimeter silent projectors.

The steady growth in the use of 16 mm. films in classrooms is reflected in the reports from six cities in the United States revealing an increase in showings from 101,170 in 1931-32, to 148,943 in 1932-33, an increase of more than 47 percent.

Motion pictures increase the effectiveness of instruction. Pupils studying with one group of historical films learned 19 per cent more than those who did not, and learned more quickly; remembered 12 per cent better; and outside of their classroom work, voluntarily read 40 per cent more supplementary material in American history.

But it is estimated that less than 10 per cent of all public schools are making systematic use of motion pictures in classroom instruction.

In conclusion the report declares: "In comparison with the theatrical motion picture, the non-theatrical picture in the past usually lacked technical excellence, was used comparatively little, and with varying regularity. Many agencies have pioneered in the development of the educational film, but the result in the United States today is chaotic and disorganized. The principal reasons for this condition seem to be the past policy of the Federal Government to leave to private industry and voluntary endeavor many activities that the typical European Government would assume, and the educational system of the country which is not centralized in the Federal Government, but, in main, is left to each of the 48 States. Private industry is deadlocked over the fact that producers can not afford to make films until a sufficient number of pro-

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jectors concerns can not sell their apparatus because there is no comprehensive library of suitable films available for their use.

"Commendable efforts are being made in many places to overcome these difficulties," according to the report, "but there is a great need for a national films institute (1) to assemble, edit, classify, publicize, and catalogue non-theatrical film material, and to set up a convenient and economical distribution system; and (2) to produce and stimulate the production and effective utilization of educational films. An entire nation seeks enlightenment—courage to look forward and inspiration to work for the new social order wherein every human being would have the chance to enjoy living and working.

"The education of tomorrow should give a new appreciation of leisure and its usefulness and a new sense of citizenship and coöperation. The vast potentialities of the use of motion pictures in the nation's education are only beginning to be generally recognized."

The report has been printed by the University of Chicago Press.

Subjects covered include the educational influence of motion pictures, motion pictures in the service of health and social hygiene, government, vocational education, international understanding, motion picture legislation, use of motion pictures in teaching and the educational problems involved.

—Release of the U. S. Office of Education.

The August High School Conference

Thursday, August 16, 1934

CHAIRMAN: Ralph W. Haller, President, High School Teachers Association of New York City, Inc.

10:30 Keynote Address by Chairman. Address by Dr. Geo. M. Wiley, Assistant Commissioner of Education, State of New York.
Subject: Some Fundamentals in Secondary Education.

11:00 *Round-Table Conferences:*

I. The significance of the Increased Registration in High Schools.
Chairman: James V. McGill, Chairman, Social Science, John Adams High School, New York City.
Discussion Leaders:
Henry Shanholt, Chairman, Mathematics Department, Abraham Lincoln High School, New York City.
Emanuel Feingold, Morris High School, New York City.

II. The High School Curriculum in the Light of the Social Needs of Pupils.
Chairman: Frank Arnold, Head of Annex, Haaren High School, New York City.
Discussion Leaders:
Rachel E. Anderson, Vice-President, High School Teachers Association of New York City.
Eric Ericsson, Haaren High School, New York City.
Herman M. Elkan, Head of Annex, Morris High School, New York City.

III. Developing in Pupils a Consciousness of Good Citizenship Through Coöperation Between the School and the Community.
Chairman: John V. Walsh, Chairman, Secretarial Studies, Morris High School, New York City.
Discussion Leaders:
Henry E. Fritz, Chairman, Department of Fine Arts, Stuyvesant High School, New York City.
S. Alexander Shear, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City.

IV. High School Objectives in Terms of Attitudes, Traits, Habits, etc.
Chairman: Edith F. Staver, Chairman, Spanish Department, Newtown High School, New York City.
Discussion Leaders:
Martin Mendel, Administrative Assistant, Thomas Jefferson High School, New York City.

The City-Wide French Contest

As a climax to the city-wide inter-high school contest for excellence in French conducted last spring by the Société de Professeurs Français en Amérique, the following prizes were awarded at the end of the oral tests on May 18, held in Townsend Harris High School. Mr. Zacharie, president of the Society, announced the winners and presented the prizes.

Academic Group

First prize (Prix Vigneron): Françoise Moed, Walton High School
Second prize (silver medal): Rita Narsh, Julia Richman High School

Academic Group

First Honor Prize: René Schiffman, James Monroe, 536 points
Second prize (written test): Nathan Muchnich, Townsend Harris

General Classification

2nd prize:	Leona Feifer, Hunter	
3rd prize:	Atala Hersen, Washington Irving	535 points
4th prize:	Benjamin Light, New Utrecht	534 points
5th prize:	Anita Berenbach, Girls	533 points
6th prize:	Elizabeth Huber, Julia Richman	532 points
7th prize:	Nathan Muchnich, Townsend Harris	528 points
8th prize:	Rosalind Kanon, New Utrecht	524 points
9th prize:	Lily Sinowitz, Richmond Hill	513 points
10th prize:	John Dunn, DeWitt Clinton	512 points
11th prize:	Marie Kaplan, Walton	509 points
12th prize:	Yolanda Delli Venneri, Julia Richman	508 points
13th prize:	Jean Goldstein, Abraham Lincoln	507 points
14th prize:	Samuel Wylie, DeWitt Clinton	504 points
15th prize:	Jack Block, DeWitt Clinton	503 points
16th prize:	Waldtraut Kramer, John Adams	502 points
17th prize:	Sylvia Herskowitz, James Monroe	501 points
18th prize:	Thelma Wolf, Girls	500 points
19th prize:	Jean Weinstein, Erasmus Hall	496 points
20th prize:	Theodore Cohen, DeWitt Clinton	495 points
21st prize:	Ruth Basin, James Monroe	494 points
22nd prize:	Mary Conigliaro, Walton	493 points
23rd prize:	Edna Hyman, Thomas Jefferson	492 points
		491 points

Classification and Distribution by Schools

DeWitt Clinton	4 prizes,	10-14-15-20
James Monroe	3 prizes,	1-17-21
Julia Richman	3 prizes,	2N-6-12
Walton	3 prizes,	1N-11-22
Townsend Harris	2 prizes,	1(written)-7
New Utrecht	2 prizes,	4-8
Girls	2 prizes,	5-18
Hunter	1 prize,	2
Washington Irving	1 prize,	3
Richmond Hill	1 prize,	9
Abraham Lincoln	1 prize,	13
John Adams	1 prize,	16
Erasmus Hall	1 prize,	19
Thomas Jefferson	1 prize,	23

The Study Scholarship

During the ceremony of awards, Mr. Zacharie announced that Miss Elsie Silverman, teacher-in-training in French, Haaren High School, had been recipient of the Study and Travel Scholarship for

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the summer of 1934. A representation of the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique presented Miss Silverman with her passage tickets covering transportation to and from France. The sum granted had been generously contributed by M. Raymond Orteig, M. Albert Blum, M. Théodore Seltzer and Miss Acerboni, former holder of this scholarship.

A Theme and Variations

"... Again, the author cannot agree with what seems to be the fashion in some quarters, of minimizing the rôle of memory in the study of history. History, after all, deals with the past, and memory (even the memory of some dates!) is an indispensable requisite for the appreciation of the past. Factual knowledge is the raw material for the finished product of historical judgment. Of course we do not want mere learning by rote, or parrot-learning. But does not the broad denial of history as a 'memory subject' contain an element of dangerous indulgence for the student who is all too ready to ask,—Do we have to remember this or that? Memory, therefore, should not be decried, but should be encouraged by a presentation of the past in a way to appeal as strongly as possible to the pupil's curiosity, imagination and reason. . . .*"

Despite the apparent truth, wisdom and forcefulness of the above-quoted remarks, the disapproval of this view by many of our history teachers has prompted this writer to take up the cudgels in its behalf.

The question presents itself—shall we stress facts or "interpretation"?

* Muzzey, D. S.: "The American People." Preface, iii.

Before proceeding to the defense of the former view (old-fashioned as it may seem)—a clear statement of meaning would be *à propos*. Obviously, we infer by interpretation, attaching an accepted meaning to a definite array of facts placed in their logical sequences. Teaching the facts, we infer just that and nothing else.

The objections that may be made against this view that the facts be taught are many. To summarize: One may point out that historical research has disproved many facts. Second, that facts once learned are easily forgotten. Third, we may tend to stress memory instead of thinking. Fourth, the pupil is easily confused.

A close scrutiny of these objections prompts the reply that not all of these objections are strong enough. If facts do not remain facts for very long, do interpretations based on these facts remain the same? To illustrate. James Ford Rhodes in his history of the Civil War (now lying undisturbed on the shelf) has gathered together a great number of facts, arranged them in their logical sequences and come to the conclusion that slavery was the fundamental cause of the Civil War. Woodrow Wilson compiled the same material and came to the conclusion that States Rights were the cause of the conflict. Beard has tended to stress the economic interpretation based on material gleaned from the same sources. And so each historian has his favorite interpretation. Who, then, is to be the judge of how and what interpretation to make? Let the pupil express a judgment, but only when he has the facts on which to base an interpretation.

It may be true that what the textbook considers facts or what the teacher believes and teaches may not be any longer the accepted facts. But what percentage of factual material of the past as presented today is not accepted and taught as accepted facts? A survey of syllabi and Regents' examinations is sufficient proof.

Facts, it is pointed out, are not long remembered. Are accepted interpretations remembered? Were the facts to receive as much emphasis as a constant discourse on the "economic interpretation" or "manifest destiny," probably they would be.

Unfortunately, the trend today seems away from the fundamental view that to learn history one must study history. To study history involves use of the memory that we may be enabled to grasp the causes, characters, the consequences and numerous events, varying in nature, interest and importance. The pupil must be taught to realize that only by the exercise of his memory can we hope to bring within the orbit of his understanding the many important events that seem scattered with provoking elusiveness over the centuries.

We are more or less apt to listen with satisfaction and approval to a glib, parrot-like discussion of the "influence of the American frontier on American history," "the economic influences underlying the . . ." and so on *ad infinitum*. It needs but a few well-directed questions to reveal the fact that these outpourings of words from an immature mind are based on an empty shell, devoid of any concrete material. If we are to encourage thinking, let us encourage honest thinking based on material substance, namely, the facts.

If we are convinced that history is not worth the time necessary to master it, let us throw it out of the curriculum, and thus gain time for other subjects that are worth while. Not mastered, it is not of full value; to master it the average pupil needs to exercise that oft-unused component of his mental make-up—his memory.

If we are going to study history at all, let us master at least a small field of it. Let us give the pupil a fair chance to learn the facts, get them into their logical sequences and to become familiar with them that they can be used without confusion.

HENRY BERKMAN.
Eastern District High School.

Awards in the City-Wide Contests in Spanish

On June 9, in Earl Hall, Columbia University, was held the June meeting of the New York Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, at which were awarded the different prizes granted to students for excellence in Spanish. The meeting was in charge of Dr. Hymen Alpern, president of the Chapter.

The various phases of the city-wide competition culminated the morning of this meeting in oral tests conducted

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by a group of teachers headed by Mrs. Maria Frankel of Washington Irving High School. The following awards were made:

Cash Prizes Granted by the Spanish Chamber of Commerce to Spanish-Speaking Students

First Prize ($25): Edwin Cortés, DeWitt Clinton
Second Prize ($15): William Lorenzo Luaces, John Adams
Third Prize ($10): Phyllis Witham, Newtown

Cash Awards Made by the Chapter to Non-Hispanic Students

First ($15): Murray Dressner, Samuel J. Tilden
Second ($10): Julio de Santis, Morris
Third ($5): J. A. Reale, DeWitt Clinton

Books Awarded by the Chapter

Books were awarded by the chapter to the above winners in addition to the cash prizes, also to other winners, as follows:

Emma Abramowitz, Theodore Roosevelt
Daphne Canonta, Julia Richman
Manuel González, James Monroe
Sidney Horowitz, New Utrecht
Robert Hovanic, Jamaica
Gloria Ann Jacobs, Curtis
Jay Julien, DeWitt Clinton
Ben Kissin, James Madison
Yetta Kornberg, Samuel J. Tilden
Anna Kowalchik, Evander Childs
Harold B. Perlman, DeWitt Clinton
Andrés Rona, Theodore Roosevelt
Oscar Srulowitz, James Monroe
Virginia Vacirca, New Utrecht
Elias Zernitsky, DeWitt Clinton

Prizes Granted for the Best Essay on Spain

On this same occasion awards were made in the city-wide essay contest on Spain, which was conducted in April by the Chapter, by the International Cinema League and the Spanish Transatlantic Line. The essays (some 600 were written) were based upon a travelogue on Spain shown on March 17. The essays were read by a committee of teachers; the following prizes were awarded:

By the Chapter: The large medal of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish were given to the borough winners, as follows, in relative order of merit:

Sidney A. Cahusac, Erasmus Hall, Brooklyn
Nathalie Irvine, Flushing, Queens
Peter A. Baumann, Theodore Roosevelt, Bronx
Fanny Leinonen, Port Richmond, Richmond
Jesse Levitt, Townsend Harris, Manhattan

By the International Cinema League: Silver trophy cups were awarded to the Spanish Departments of the five schools which produced the five best essays.

By the Spanish Transatlantic Line: To Sydney A. Cahusac, whose essay, "A Trip to Spain," was rated as the best of all submitted, was granted a round-trip first-class passage to Spain, and tickets for the trip were presented in the name of the steamship company. Cahusac sailed on the "Marqués de Comillas" on June 27 and landed at Cadiz. He returned on the Magallanes, sailing from Vigo on September 23. The National Tourist Bureau of the Spanish Government took charge in a large measure of his travel in Spain.

Secondary School Population

Despite the fact that the democracy of public education in the United States has brought into the high schools a larger proportion of pupils from varied intellectual, social, and economic groups than ever before, "there is still considerable economic selection, a selection which keeps down the proportion of children from the lower economic levels completing the work of the secondary schools." This is the general conclusion of the National Survey of Secondary Education as reported in a monograph Survey report, "The Secondary School Population," available from the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Within 50 years, 1880 to 1930, enrollment in high school advanced from 3 per cent of boys and girls between 14 and 17 years of age in the Nation to more than 46 per cent. Of the 9,340,000 young people from 14 to 17 years of age throughout the country in 1880, few more than 110,000 were enrolled in public secondary schools. In 1930, by way of contrast, of the 9,340,000 young people within this age group in the United States, 4,399,000 were enrolled in public secondary schools. This increase in high school enrollment proves a corresponding growth in popularization of secondary education, the National Survey report indicates.

Prepared by Grayson N. Kefauver, Victor H. Noll, and C. Elwood Drake, specialists in school organization of the National Survey of Secondary Education, this monograph is one of 28 now in process of publication. The study involves an analysis of changes in secondary-school population and in characteristics of secondary-school pupils. The latter investigation concerned pupils in full-time schools and is based upon visits to 34 schools in 13 cities.

The National Survey of Secondary Education was conducted under the auspices of the Federal Office of Education by authority of Congress, with Dr. William John Cooper, who was then United States Commissioner of Education, as director. Dr. Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education, University of Chicago, was associate director. The major burden of directing and handling the Survey was entrusted to Dr. Koos, eminent in the field of secondary education. The study, which results from a 3-year investigation by a distinguished group, it is emphasized by Carl A. Jessen, Survey coördinator and present Federal Office of Education specialist in secondary education, aimed primarily at discovering and studying not the usual but the unusual practices, not the ordinary but extraordinary ones.

It is noted in the study of the secondary-school population that the increase in its popularity has occurred more rapidly in urban schools than in rural schools. For example, 67 per cent of pupils 14 to 17 years of age were enrolled in urban high schools in 1930 compared with less than half of this number, 31 per cent, in rural high schools. The proportions of pupils in this level of education, it is pointed out, vary from State to State and from one type of community to another.

The results of a study of Seattle and Bridgeport, dealing with the social composition of the high-school enrollment, disclose striking increases from 1920 to 1930 in the proportionate representation in the high school of all occupational levels. This finding harmonizes with the general conclusion that there is a rapidly increasing popularization of high-school education.

However, when the increases of the different social and economic groups represented in the high school are compared, for Seattle the groups of

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the upper levels during the period, already larger at the outset, were gaining on the groups at the lower level. The gains were larger, for example, for the proprietary and professional groups than for skilled and common labor. For Bridgeport, on the other hand, the proportions at the different levels appeared to be drawing together.

"The evidence presented seems to indicate progress toward intellectual democratization," the Survey report reveals, "that is, toward increased representation in secondary schools of intellectually less competent youth. It is not that intellectual selection is no longer operative, but that it is less operative than formerly. There is evidence that in many communities the secondary-school population as a whole is not far from being a representative cross-section of at least the total literate population. The data at hand are not sufficient to yield a statement of the exact degree of progress toward intellectual democratization of education at the secondary level."

Regarded as an important conclusion is the finding that secondary education is becoming intellectually more democratic through the extension of courses to include vocational and other non-college subjects.

The analysis of secondary school characteristics involved more than 17,000 pupils. The analysis includes pupils as well as schools, intelligence and success of pupils in school work, social and economic status and other characteristics of pupils and parents such as birthplace, education, and occupational status.

Pupils whose fathers were engaged in upper economic levels or professional groups were found to take a larger proportion of academic and scientific courses in high school. Pupils from lower economic levels were found more frequently studying household and industrial arts courses. About one-fourth of the high school pupils taking academic and scientific courses were from homes in which fathers were at the semi-professional level. About one-sixth of the pupils in household arts and industrial arts groups came from this level. About one-tenth of the pupils studying academic and scientific courses came from the professional level.

In the study of other pupil characteristics, the National Survey school population study revealed that nearly all pupils were born in the United States. Forty-three per cent of the fathers of pupils enrolled in trade schools included in the study were born in this country. The percentage of foreign-born parents varies among the other types of schools included in the Survey. From 10 to 20 per cent of the pupils' mothers were found to be employed outside the home.

Practically all of the pupils, in the full-time schools examined, plan to graduate from high school. Pupils from all schools examined plan to go to college, but the proportions are much larger for the academic groups. As many as one-fifth of the pupils in the industrial group, and in the comprehensive and general schools are ambitious to enter college. Approximately the same proportion in the commercial group express this desire.

The complete report of findings on this phase of the high-school survey appear as Federal Office of Education Bulletin 1932 No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 4, which is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., at 10 cents a copy.

—Release of the U. S. Office of Education.

Types of Teachers You May Have Met

For some time past I have been under the impression that teaching, like industry, divides itself into probably five levels of activity. In the industrial world the lowest form of labor is the "hobo." The "hobo" is an itinerant vagrant who wanders from farm to farm, and from city to city, in search of a few days' work at harvest time, and then goes further. The second type of labor found in industry is the "common laborer." He is likely to be stationary in that he remains in one place, may even attempt to bring up a family; but he does the most menial tasks involving no skill whatsoever. Third, comes the "mechanic." He works at a trade involving considerable skill, performs a very useful task in the community, and takes a very definite place in the life thereof. After the mechanic comes the "artisan," who is a member of the very highly skilled trades of which diamond cutting might be an illustration. Die setters and tool designers are of this same type. The highest form of activity in the industrial world is the "artist"—the great painter, sculptor, musician, poet and the like.

I cannot help but feel that in teaching, we are apt to find teachers who are on each one of these five levels of endeavor. I have tried to list some of the characteristics of each of the different types of teachers in the diagrammatic scheme which follows.

The "Hobo" Type
- Intolerance and misunderstanding of children.
- Irresponsibility—apparent lack of desire to teach children or subject.
- Total lack of control, or the "bully" type of control.
- Misunderstanding of subject matter.
- Distinctly the "pay day" teacher.

The "Common Laborer" Type
- Subject matter wholly in logical arrangement.
- Presentation, orally or by text.
- Compulsion very evident.
- Pupils study subject matter and learn it by heart from assignment.
- Recitation of text material.
- Much dependence on repetition, review, drill.
- Teacher domination.
- Perfect attention because of rigid discipline.
- Respect and unqestioning obedience.

The Teacher "Mechanic"
- Presentation of subject matter is determined more by teacher's preparation than by text.
- Intelligently directed skill apparent.
- Formal lesson plan followed closely.
- Rigid discipline and complete teacher control.
- Teacher is always the superior.
- Teacher "talks down" to pupils.
- Tricks and devices used mechanically but skillfully.
- Slight variation from original or textbook form.

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Some evidence of personal relations on a friendly level.

The "Artisan" Teacher

Efforts of the teacher are consciously directed towards securing and holding the children's interests.
Subject matter is organized about major topics.
Provision is made for children's activities —but they are largely controlled by teacher's directions.
More supplementary materials are used.
Lessons are on "subject matter," but activities are brought in as a means of learning.
Discipline is much relaxed; teacher and pupils meet on a friendly basis.
Devises of purposeful nature are skillfully used.
Drill and formal review are less evident.
Pupil may take class occasionally, but there is rarely true socialization.
Construction, and handiwork, etc., are apparent.
Subject matter limits are less rigorously observed.

The "Artist" Teacher

Classwork and disciplinary control are almost completely socialized, organized and administered by the group, not by the teacher.
Much pupil-directed reference reading.
Much use of rich supplementary material.
Complete acceptance by the children of the teacher as one of the group.
Almost perfect freedom of expression or of appeals for assistance.
Class work divided, part teacher-controlled, part pupil-controlled.
The teacher in control during periods of stimulation and reflection.
Pupils' purpose in activities involving planning, executing, judging essential to accomplishment.
Little use of formal recitation as such—discussion periods at most.
Emphasis is placed on purposes, achievements, standards, ideals and not results purely in terms of knowledges and skills.
Committing to memory merely as means to an end—and then rather seldom.
Little organization of subject matter in logical sequence, but the order and content of lessons are determined almost wholly by purposes.

We can thank God that the number of teachers of the hobo type in our school system is negligible; but at the same time we ought to deplore the fact that there are not more teachers in our school system of the artist type. Far be it from me to feel that teachers as a whole belong to any one of these types exclusively. At times we belong to each one of these. From my own observation of teachers and from my own experience in the classroom, I know that on certain days we teach in an inspired fashion and our teaching is unquestionably on the artist level. But on the other hand, there are times when nothing that we do is right, everything goes wrong and our teaching is on the "hobo" level. My own observation tells me that, as a general rule, our teachers come very close to teaching on the "artisan" level; that most of them have, as an ideal, the type of teacher that is listed on the "artist" type.

We try to approximate this type of teaching; we hold this as our goal; we have hitched our wagon to this star. May more and more of our teachers approach this as their limit. Remember the Theorems of Limits: The difference between the limit and the variable may be made less than any assignable quantity.

NATHAN SILBERSTEIN,
James Monroe High School.

Enrollment in the Different Foreign Languages in Senior High Schools as of October 11, 1934

Languages	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*VI*	*VII*	*VIII*	*Total*
French	12,559	11,414	18,316	14,464	8,384	6,689	610	343	72,779
German	4,570	4,475	5,107	4,258	1,623	1,115	108	23	21,279
Greek	36	13	7	10	7	7	.....	.....	80
Hebrew	330	170	83	73	19	19	.....	.....	694
Italian	1,733	1,081	1,263	842	458	262	68	29	5,736
Latin	5,264	4,725	5,334	4,032	1,934	1,553	237	115	23,194
Spanish	12,313	8,966	7,378	5,517	1,894	1,313	114	15	37,510
Totals	36,805	30,844	37,488	29,196	14,319	10,958	1,137	525	161,272

Grand Totals: Modern Languages, 137,304; Ancient Languages, 23,968.
Total High School Population 249,444.

REVIEWS

Home Room Guidance

By Harry C. McKown, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1934.

Although there run throughout the 435 pages of this book implications as well as an exposition of philosophy, principles and objectives of home room guidance, the book's greatest usefulness will undoubtedly be found in its abundant offering of concrete material and advice.

Problems of administration and organization are realistically and comprehensively covered under such headings among others as Administration of the Home Room, Home Room Membership, Internal Organization of the Home Room, Selection and Placement of Home Room Program Material. It is gratifying to find consideration given in Chapter XII, Methods of Evaluating Home Room Activities, to the question of the evaluation of work done—that too-often-neglected phase of educational endeavor.

The second half of the book offers an encyclopedic array of suggestive program materials classified on the basis of relationship to those particular types of specialized guidance—education, vocation, morals, citizenship, recreation, personal relationships, etc.—of which the modern counselor is so wary because of their practical unreality for the individual counseling of "whole" boys and girls. For the purposes of organizing guidance programs for the home room, however, the classification is entirely justifiable and does not deny the unitary concept of guidance.

Chapters 13 through 23 will reward not only the novice but the tried experimenter with home room procedures who wishes to delve into the experience of schools in cities north, south, east, and west to glean ideas for adaptation and development. The selected references for these chapters are an additional help.

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Any but the student of Guidance may be tempted to ask where home room responsibility begins and ends. The author answers it perhaps too broadly in recommending that the activities of the home room should not duplicate work done elsewhere in the school. Neither does his valuable designation of the home room period as an "opportunity for centering attention on personal matters of importance treated usually only incidentally" give indication of differentiation between the work of guidance as carried on through the home room and other guidance agencies within the school.

But he who reads closely will find the home room charged with responsibility as a clearing house for the varied phases of guidance, as a correlator, and as a supplementor of the work of a central guidance department. This is in line with that acceptable pronouncement of Prof. Reavis (in the U. S. Government Bulletin No. 17, *Programs of Guidance*, published in 1932)—

"The use of the specialist in guidance does not render unnecessary the assumption of certain general guidance responsibilities by teachers and administrative officers. It merely requires a differentiation of duties with the specialist and the generalist accepting responsibility for the activities each can most successfully perform."

The book is commended to the large high schools of New York City, interested as they are in emphasizing the development of individual boys and girls rather than the passing along of a body of subject matter. Those who believe in the necessity for a centralized guidance system within each large school cannot fail to be grateful to the author of this book for the help he gives in that process of decentralizing through deputizing and group functioning, that is inevitable in building up an adequate guidance program in large high schools.

ELSA G. BECKER,
In Charge of Guidance.
Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Daily Lesson Plans in Gregg Shorthand by the Sentence Method

By M. E. Zinman, Roslyn E. Strelsin and Elizabeth F. Weitz. Gregg Publishing Company, New York.

The history of the evolution of methods of teaching shorthand bears a striking parallel to that of teaching reading in the elementary schools. As in the latter, the teaching of shorthand began with the symbol-sound element followed by a laborious process of drilling on words as sound combinations and, finally, after the student had mastered the theory of the system, he was given formal dictation.

The great strides that have been made since these early gropings are illustrated in the preparation of this book which introduced the teaching of Gregg shorthand by the sentence method. This volume is the outcome of an experiment conducted at the Abraham Lincoln High School by Mr. M. E. Zinman, chairman of the Shorthand Department. The experienced teachers of his department who had been teaching from five to twenty years were asked to teach their classes by the word method. The newer teachers, most of whom had not taught for more than one year were asked to teach by the sentence method. At the end of the term, both groups of teachers gave the pupils an examination consisting of 40 words and a 75-word business letter. About 450 students took this examination. The results were 72% passing for those taught by the old word method and 83% for those taught by the new sentence method.

The organization of the material in this book makes it a teaching guide of inestimable value particularly to the beginning teachers. Here are given complete daily plans for every day of the first shorthand year. Each days' work is treated as a separate unit and divided as follows:

1. Aim of lesson
2. Motivation
3. Review letters
4. New words and sentences
5. Summary sentences
6. Summary letter
7. Homework assignment

The book is divided into two parts. The first part consists of hints to teachers on how to use the daily plans. Part II contains the daily lesson plans.

Among the advantages offered to shorthand teachers by this book are the following:

1. The daily plans are a guide to teachers in the planning and organization of their daily work.
2. The daily lessons are prepared in definite developmental order.
3. The lessons are motivated by pupil needs and pupil interests.
4. Each lesson begins with the thought unit in the sentence and ends with the summary paragraph or letter.
5. A rich assortment of supplementary material is listed for additional practice.
6. The format of the book is a delight to the eye.

These daily lesson plans first appeared in the *American Shorthand Teacher* from September, 1931, to May, 1932, and met with such response that the numbers of the magazines containing them were soon exhausted. In the United States Government Bulletin No. 32 the plans were listed among the outstanding articles appearing in the educational periodicals for the year.

We suggest that in a future revision the authors of this book give thought to the following suggestions:

1. Include exercises on brief forms—a much needed addition for which first-term teachers will be duly grateful.
2. Give the Gregg outlines alongside of the words dictated in sentences.
3. Many of the present sentences could be improved from the point of view of thought and interest.

This book should prove of great value to teachers of Gregg Shorthand.

ALEXANDER ROSEN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

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Teaching the Bright Pupil

By Fay Adams and Walker Brown. Holt and Company.

I

The authors contend that acceleration is not the proper treatment for bright children. These do not learn more quickly than others. They are able to acquire more information, or education and achieve more than slower intellects. Thus the authors would enrich the curriculum better to utilize the superior capacities of the bright child.

They posit six major aims of such enrichment: 1. Developing independence. 2. Allowing creativeness. 3. Providing wide vicarious experiences. 4. Teaching reasoned as well as emotionalized ethical standards. 5. Building a socialized viewpoint. 6. Building a sound body for a sound mind.

To carry out these aims the modern progressive methods of education such as socialized procedure, test for mastery, etc., are recommended.

About one-half of the book is devoted to examples of enrichment. Those for Science and English are splendid. Those for History are superficial and trivial.

II

The authors' only new contribution is the repudiation of acceleration in learning and of homogeneous grouping as methods of treating the bright child.

It is no news that education is in need of the improvement by enrichment as they suggest; nor is it a surprise that some children are brighter than others. What we all want to know is the exact nature and causation of brightness, of superior scholastic achievement, and of superior ability to learn. And more important than that, we want to know just what is meant by innate intellectual capacity. Do proponents of such a phrase mean *cortical* capacity only? Or do they include glands, the sensory system and the general biological human structure? Or do they mean that for some persons a psychological maladjustment, possibly growing out of some physical inferiority, causes "slow intellectual processes" in mathematics, while for others deficiency in that subject may be due to lack of cortical capacity?

The school of thought which champions special pedagogical measures for the bright child usually seems to draw upon men like Galton, Pearson, Wiggam, Terman and the earlier psychologists in elaborating their premises as to the nature and origin of intelligence. They seem to ignore the findings of Jennings and Pearl, and the newer psychologists such as Burnham, Moss, Freeman and others.

The latter group, I think it is safe to say, have discovered that intelligence is chiefly *psychological* rather than purely biological, or cortical. It would appear that capacity is the sum total of the whole biological structure and ability the result of one's psychological reactions.

Burnham in "The Wholesome Personality" holds that intelligence is largely a matter of psychological experience and not some mysterious innate cortical capacity. He cites Ruskin and Stevenson, attributing their literary abilities to escapes from infirmities: poor health on one hand and unwise parental discipline on the other. Literature was a compensation for maladjustment.

Let us give enriched education to those "ready" for it. Let us examine those apparently incapable of utilizing it. Possibly psychological and therapeutic treatment will correct many a "slow intellect". Possibly some or all may be "innately incapable" of better intelligence. As yet it is premature and unscientific to condemn poor students as hopelessly unintelligent. Burnham says much of this teacher attitude is merely an example of the psychology of blame.

Poor scholarship or low I. Q.'s measure nothing save just those things. These measurements, like any statistics, must be subjected to correction. These measurements *do not indicate the causes of failure* in scholastic subjects. A low I. Q. should usually lead one to expect poor scholarship and to suspect *that the same causes may be present in both cases.*

To urge a better education for the hitherto neglected "bright group" is but to be fair and democratic to them. Let educators be fair, democratic and scientific to the "slow group". Proceed beyond the more objective measurement differentiating the "slow" and the "bright" to an investigation as to the exact nature of each, and more particularly as to the *causes* of each. Possibly then, just as there has been a retreat from hasty recommendations for acceleration and special grouping, there may be an abandonment of other "bright group" premises and conclusions as likewise unsound. RALPH B. GUINNESS.

Girls Commercial High School.

The Evolution of Business Education in the United States and Its Implications for Business-Teacher Education

By Jessie Graham, Ph.D., University of Southern California Press.

This study was made possible through the coöperation of more than six hundred administrators and teachers in teacher-training institutions, junior colleges, senior high schools, and junior high schools who answered inquiry blanks, and sent catalogues and statements of curricula requirements.

The work is divided into four parts.

Part I deals with the history delimitation, and validation of the problem.

Part II analyzed past and current aims and curricula of secondary business education, in an effort to set up practical and realistic criteria for the evaluation and improvement of business-teacher education.

Part III is devoted to a study of present practices and current trends in the training of secondary teachers of business as revealed by the National Survey of the Education of

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Teachers, by an analysis of curricula devised for this purpose in higher institutions of learning, and by a study of the requirements set up by administrators who employ such teachers.

Part IV embodies an evaluation of current practices in business-teacher education, and a summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations growing out of the study.

In a brief history of secondary business education and business-teacher education in the United States, the author shows how economic and social changes have vitally influenced education, especially that part of it which is concerned with business relationships. During the colonial period, business education, reflecting social and economic conditions, was simple and unorganized. Training in writing, commercial arithmetic, and bookkeeping was given by private teachers. Frequently it was given to young men apprenticed to business men, by the manager of the business. It is interesting to note, however, that bookkeeping was included in the curricula of the grammar schools of Alexander Malcolm in New York in 1732 and of David James Dove in Philadelphia in 1759.

Little is known of the educational qualifications of the teachers of business subjects during this period, or of the writers of text-books. In all probability they, like their pupils, secured their training from private instruction, apprenticeship training, and actual experience. This business training of the colonial period continued into the period of our national development.

As early as 1827, Benjamin F. Foster's "Commercial School" was opened in Boston. In 1853 Bryant and Stratton started their chain of schools which was destined by 1867 to extend from the Atlantic states to the Middle West. In these, instruction was given in penmanship, bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic and business law. After the close of the Civil War, private business schools multiplied rapidly, meeting the very great demand for business training, and performing a much needed service.

The first course established for the training of teachers of business subjects was given by Drexel Institute of Philadelphia in 1898. Prior to this, teachers were, for the most part, recruited from the business offices, or academically trained teachers were pressed into service. Today 138 degree granting institutions or 20% of the total number offer courses in business-teacher education.

As a result of a study of trends in the aims of secondary business education, the author reaches the following conclusions:

While the preparation of pupils for simple office work continues to be the major aim of secondary business education, methods of carrying out this aim have changed. Whereas early business training was adapted to the pupils' needs as to business employment, curricula today are planned on the basis of occupational research and in harmony with social needs. Therefore, prospective teachers of business subjects should have an education fundamental enough to enable them to participate intelligently in such adaptations. They should be trained to give the necessary business information and skills for use in personal, social and civic life.

At least a minor in social sciences should be required of all teachers of business subjects.

Curricula and courses in business-teacher education should be based upon the findings of sociological research.

The findings of occupational research into business employment, and the demand for various types of teaching service, as well as the results of job analyses of office work and teaching, should be incorporated into courses designed for prospective teachers of business subjects.

Compilations of the findings of educational, sociological, psychological and philosophical research should be made available to these teachers.

More courses in business education should be offered, also courses in which familiarity with the literature of the individual business subjects is developed, courses in method of teaching fusion courses in business education, courses in which education and the social-business subjects are considered, and courses in vocational guidance.

Prospective teachers of business subjects should be required to have actual business experience, if possible, for a period of at least one year.

Definite plans should be made for the maintaining of business contacts on the part of prospective teachers and of instructors engaged in business-teacher education.

Teaching credentials should be issued only to candidates who have baccalaureate degrees, and teachers of business subjects should be advised to do graduate work and to get graduate degrees.

Additional provision should be made in institutions engaged in business-teacher education for acquainting student-teachers with the progressive quality of aims, curricula and procedures in secondary business education.

This investigation, it will be noted, has been concerned primarily with the harmonization of the various phases of secondary business education and business-teacher education. "The most striking feature of a report such as this," concludes the author, "is not the list of desirable procedures suggested but the indication in the results of every phase of the investigation that this field is a rapidly changing one, and that continuous research is necessary so that its practices may be kept in harmony with present social and economic life."

HENRY A. STORER.
Richmond Hill High School.

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Motion Pictures and Youth.
The Payne Fund Studies.

Getting Ideas from the Movies.
P. W. Holaday and G. D. Stoddard.

Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children.
R. C. Peterson and L. L. Thurstone.

The Social Conduct and Attitude of Movie Fans.
F. K. Shuttleworth and M. F. May

The Emotional Responses of Children to the Motion Picture Situation.
W. S. Dsyingers and C. A. Ruckmick.

Motion Pictures and Standards of Morality.
E. C. Peters.

Movies and Conduct.
H. Blumer.

All published by Macmillan, New York.

Public indignation, long dormant, has now broken over the movies. A vast campaign is abroad to purge the movies of impurities which have been quietly collecting for many years. Leagues for Decency are forming all over the country, bent on stamping out the ugly growths of obscenity and general moral laxness so subtly and so effectively portrayed by the movies. Denunciatory rhetoric is reaching a new high in the press and the pulpit. A certain grimness is detectible in this new flaying of the movies as a menace to organized society.

But, strangely enough, nowhere in these dire fulminations do we find any reference to the abundance of incriminating evidence in these Payne Fund Studies on "Motion Pictures and Youth". Patient and scrupulous investigators have compiled in these volumes an indictment against the movies, which cannot be lightly waved aside as irrelevant, emotional, or prejudiced. Here is ammunition enough to blast any pretense the movies might make that they are concerned with anything else but box-office receipts. Some of the studies are not quite convincing, but the total effect constitutes a grave indictment against the movies and the purposes which animate them. This material has received practically no recognition in the recent flood of oratory. The crusaders have preferred emotions to facts. And perhaps soundly, for slogans are more potent than statistics.

Answering the charge that children do not remember what they see in the movies, Holaday and Stoddard proved that children retain a high percentage of what they see. In some cases, this is even greater than that retained by adults. Surprisingly enough, this retention, in very many cases, increases after a period of time. There is no sex difference here. Boys and girls have similar retentive powers.

Peterson and Thurstone conclude that "motion pictures have definite, lasting effects on the social attitudes of children, and that a number of pictures pertaining to the same issue may have a cumulative effect on attitude". Their tests show the marked effect that the movies exert in moulding attitudes on international relations, crime, prohibition, etc. The implication of this study seems to point out the necessity for using the movies to produce desirable social attitudes.

Shuttleworth and May in their study of "The Social Conduct and Attitudes of Movie Fans" reach no very specific conclusions. But their findings lend support to the results of the Peterson and Thurstone investigation. They find, in addition, that the movies do not exert a general, but rather a specific, influence on the specific child. The movies do not create attitudes, but crystallize incohate attitudes already present. "In other words, the movies tend to fix and further establish the behavior patterns and types of attitudes which already exist among those who attend most frequently."

Dysinger and Ruckmick are unequivocal on the emotional effects of the motion pictures. "Our records are clear on this point: profound mental and pyhsiological effect of an emotional order are produced. The stimulus is inherently strong and undiluted by post-adolescent critical attitudes and accumulated and modifying experiences. Unnatural sophistication and premature bodily stimulation will then result. The emotions are widely known for their extensive and intensive grip on mind and body. Let those moralize and standardize who will: our fundamental facts speak loudly for themselves."

Though the least conclusive of this whole group of studies, the Peters' investigation of standards of morality advances some very interesting data. Dr. Peters sought, unsuccessfully, to show how far the movies deviated from current, approved mores. To place his evaluation on some objective basis, he developed a scale to measure the degrees of approval or disapproval accorded the mores surveyed. Dr. Peters chose four mores: (1) aggressiveness of a girl in love-making; (2) kissing and caressing; (3) democratic attitudes and practices; (4) the treatment of children by parents. In (1), Dr. Peters found that the movies oppose the current standards as to the degree of aggression permitted a girl in love-making. Here, the movies were setting a bad example, one frowned on by most of those who reacted to the scenes shown. Good old-fashioned demureness and reticence still seem to be desiderata in a girl. The movies are undermining this concept, and glorifying the girl who knows what she wants and gets it. The conduct of kissing, Dr. Peters discovered, almost exactly parallels that of actual life. The movies here merely reflect a popular national custom with ample fidelity. Democratic practices are on a higher plane in the movies than they are in life. They set a goal towards which democracy may strive. The ideals of democracy are treated with a much tenderer solicitude in Hollywood than they are in practical life situations. Here, movie art seems to function as an elevating force. Parent-child relationships as depicted in the movies are much finer and more understanding than similar relationships off the screen.

Thus, the movies, as a whole, seem

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to Dr. Peters not particularly subversive of our moral standards. But the data adduced is sparse, and the factors, measured with great statistical travail, somehow are not snared in these amazing formulae. Undoubtedly, Dr. Peters was faced with a terrifying job in calibrating the degree of sanction accorded to certain moral practices. The solution eluded him, as it has so many other investigators who have tried to express moral judgments in tabular form. Insight seems more important here than numbers.

The chapter on Motion Picture Advertising is highly interesting for its exhaustive analysis of the inflammatory adjectives used by motion picture advertisers to arouse the public.

Naughtiness, Dr. Peters contends, is no sine qua non for success. In fact, he says, success seems to go hand in hand with approved moral practices. But he seems to have forgotten Mae West, whose astounding success is attributable to nothing more than her highly alluring portrayal of naughtiness. Movie titles, songs, and jokes also reflect the lucrative returns from naughtiness.

There is little doubt that naughtiness, attractively exhibited, has a high market value. And it will help us very little to close our eyes to this fact. The mere fact that morally aseptic pictures draw huge sums in no way lessens the appeal of the morally unwholesome, the judgments of Dr. Peters' subjects notwithstanding. Taste can be elevated, but not by this blind refusal to recognize the immense lure of the naughty picture. For whatever else may be said about Hollywood producers, they know what pays. And in naughtiness they have found an El Dorado. The job of the reformer is not to deny the facts, but to re-educate public taste so that it will be commercially unprofitable to display naughtiness per se on the screen. Boycotting the screen is no solution, for it will only drive naughtiness underground, where it will flourish in dank luxuriance.

Dr. Blumer's study on "Movies and Conduct" is in many respects the most penetrating and the most valuable study. And this despite his refusal to express himeslf numerically. For he has a very healthy awareness of the limitations of elaborate statistical procedure. Probably the vision of Dr. Peters, or some similar individual wallowing in a morass of numbers, may have been before him when he deliberately cast aside so-called valid research and chose to draw his story from personal documents written at his request. The material, of necessity, had to come from fairly intelligent and cultured sources. Thus the picture we have is doubtless underdrawn, but thereby not invalidated. At least Dr. Blumer does not think so, and he is not easily seduced by mere appearance of truth.

Like his co-workers, Dr. Blumer finds the movies exerting a great influence over the conduct of modern youth. His discussion of the adolescent and the fruitful soil that he is for the aimless sensationalism of the movies is worth reading and pondering. Space does not permit a detailed summary of Dr. Blumer's work. But suffice it to say that it is highly illuminating and takes first rank in this very thorough and searching series of studies. It has warmth and understanding, rare qualities in such investigations. Dr. Blumer condemns the movies for distorting life, for mere sensation-mongering, for dissolving moral judgments, for exploiting art for profit only, and for many other sins of omission and commission.

Those who are entrusted with the guidance of modern youth must familiarize themselves with the contents of these studies. For certainly, no teacher to-day can pretend to know modern youth unless he knows its reactions to the movies. And here, at least, is an attempt to chart some of the larger aspects of the problem. For those who cannot abide the statistical truth, a very excellent summary of the whole investigation has been made by J. H. Forman in "Our Movie-Made Children" (Macmillan). It presents in concise and readable form the results of all the studies. Those who batten on numbers are invited to loaf through these volumes. The pages are thickly strewn with delectable graphs, formulae, and other such tid-bits. Some of the studies contain appendices just choked with anfractuosities which give some needed insight into the devious processes whereby the simple can be made intolerably complex. But some will relish this sort of fluff, and will want to see how the wheels go round. They will want theirs "straight". The Forman book is diluted for popular consumption. But whether you like your statistical meat raw or cooked, you must read these Payne Fund Studies, or at least about them. They are important landmarks and powerful weapons in the hands of those who are engaged in the battle to help youth to a sane and healthy vision of life as it is and as it ought to be. Mere self-preservation would dictate that educators avail themselves of the facts and suggestions which abound in these studies. Unless the teaching profession is willing to take a drubbing lying down, it must fashion out of this material a bludgeon and use it with considerable force on the pachydermatous producers of Hollywood. The clergy is doing its part to preserve its citadels. Teachers cannot, in conscience, do less.

A. H. LASS.

Manual Training High School.

Children's Sleep

By S. Renshaw, V. L. Miller, Dorothy P. Marquis. Payne Fund Studies. Macmillan.

That movies exert a disturbing effect on children's sleep is amply illustrated in this highly ingenious study. One hundred and sixty-three children were used in this experiment. Records were kept for 347 nights. If you are not too much bothered by charts and graphs, this makes very interesting reading. The conclusions here are not quite as broad or as important as are those of some of the other studies in this series.

A. H. L.

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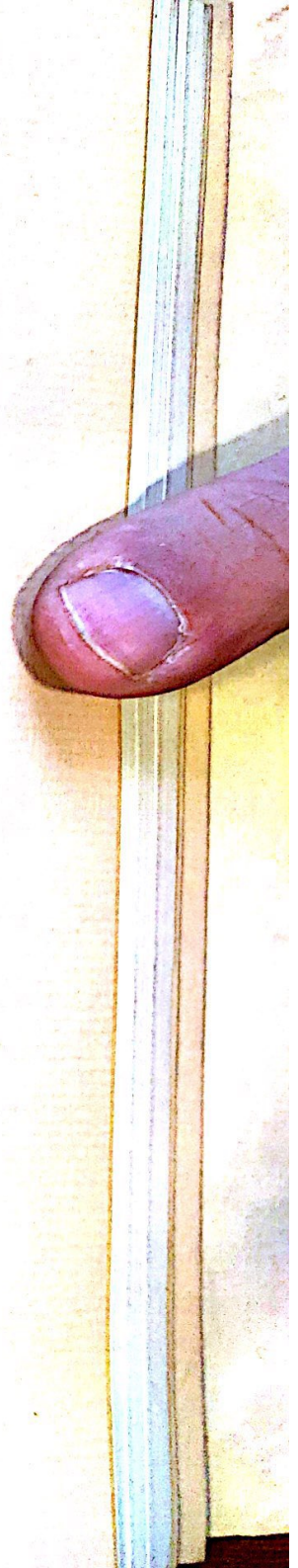
The Influence of Varying Amounts of Punishment on Mental Connections

By Jacob Tuckman, Ph.D. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia. Cloth $1.50.

From his studies of 100 boys, Dr. Tuckman concludes: "The practical consequences of Experiments One to Four should be obvious. No intensity of punishment prevented the occurrence of the punished connections from being harmful to learning. In every experiment and with every degree of punishment, they did more harm than good. Practice in error is extremely dangerous. Unless the punishment leads to an immediate change of response, the occurrence of a wrong connection does harm which no punishment of it is likely to cure." (The punishment referred to above consisted of electric shocks of varying intensity, and deprivation of money.)

Dr. Tuckman is to be commended for his rigidly scientific procedure under the immensely variable conditions of the experiments. But his work has only very slightly extended the boundaries of knowledge in this field. The essential point of this study has received emphatic empirical statement many times in the past. One recalls, in this connection, the adolescent sage, who, smarting under a poignant personal experience, and relying on a none too accurate memory, gravely wrote of the pernicious effects upon learning of "baring the child".

A. H. L.



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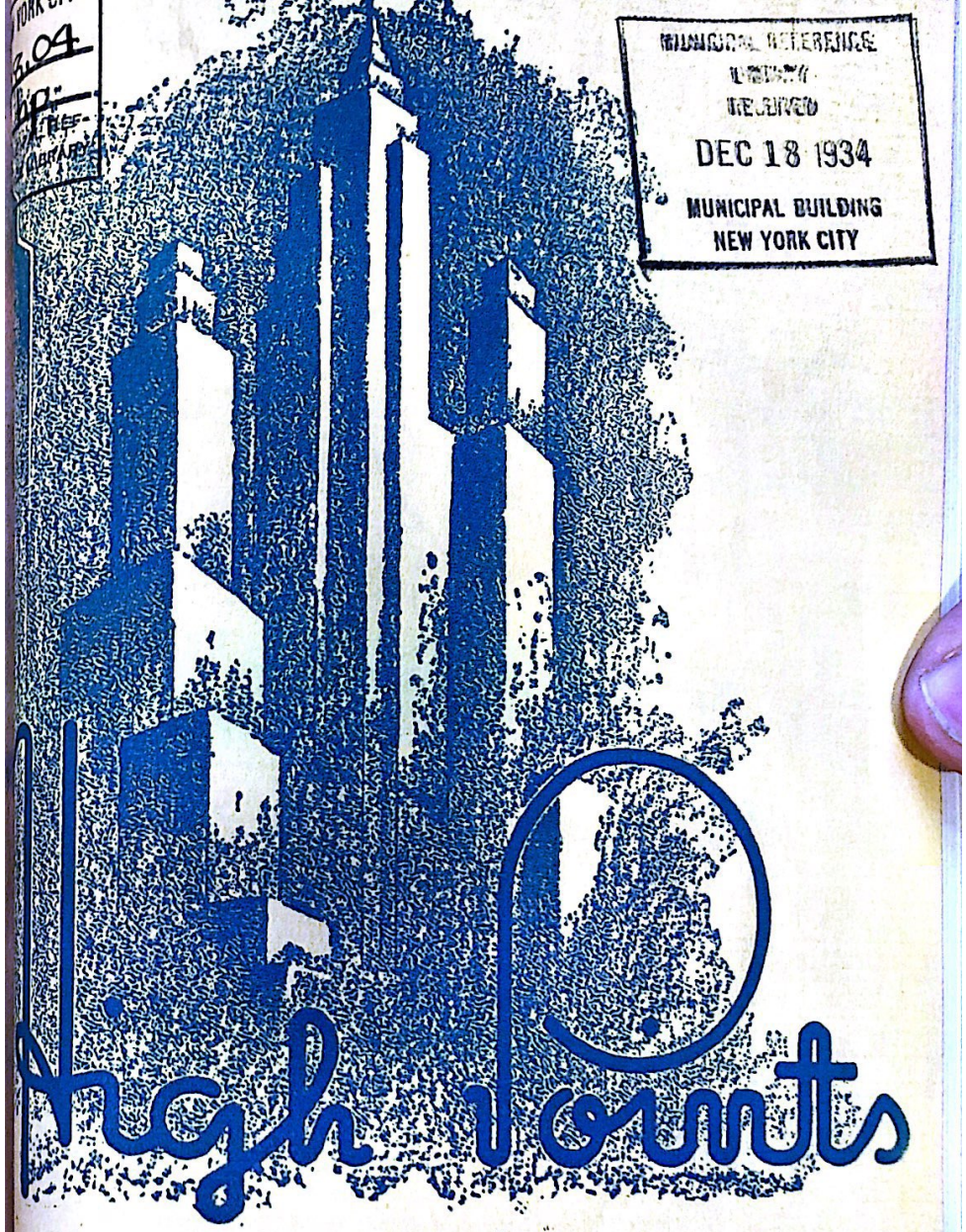

High Lights

THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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HIGH POINTS

IN THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

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We are advised by advocates of thinking to find the stimuli of thought in the problems of the hour. These are vital, real, and not textbookish. But such thinking involves action. Obviously merely to think has little or no social value. Thinking must express itself in some kind of action, and certainly in relation to the social confusion around us mere analysis of the problems will not suffice. There must be some kind of action. This is the theory. The practice is far otherwise. The moment ideas result in group action the powers that be will crush criticism. In educational circles there are situations aplenty that offer illustrations of the questionable value of thinking as a way of life. Thinking as an educational purpose implies intelligent living; it assumes that thinking should project ideas into action. But ideas are often controversial; they may be dangerous to an established order. Established orders, however, are likely to discourage antagonistic and critical thinking. Abroad in the world today there is the fury of heterodox thinking. It may be a new orthodoxy in the making. Men and women are laying down their lives because their thinking runs counter to authority. Others are suffering ignominy and want because they too, dared to leave the beaten track of standardized ideas. Our young people are not blind and deaf. All around them they are aware of the penalties of dissenting thought in politics, economics, social conventions, educational institutions, and religion. More than one student has been expelled because he thought in opposition to his institution's policies. The story of heresy is one of the world's grim tragedies.

The evidence seems beyond denial that thinking as an educational aim is at present restricted to those fields that do not tend to upset administrative control or privilege. Even the professor who lectures most vigorously on thinking may flunk the student who differs from him. Not yet may we think as we please about social issues. And there is no hopeful sign that education is fostering in actual practice freedom of thinking. For those who lack financial or occupational security dynamic and oppositional thinking is simply plain suicide.

From an editorial in the **Kadelphian Review.**

AN ADVENTURE IN ENGLISH

ARMED with two methods courses and with a somewhat tremulous knowledge of semicolons, conjunctions and copulative verbs, I approached my term last February as a Pupil-Teacher of English in a New York City high school. I was to observe in one class for at least a month and then to teach as much or as little as the authorities should decree. I was fortunate in the particular class assigned to me. The pupils, though not of high I.Q.'s, were full of enthusiasm and had been so well trained by their teacher that they gave me practically no trouble with discipline. The supervising teacher was very clear and definite in her class work and was most helpful in giving me advice and opportunity to teach. I was given, at the same time, a composition group gathered from various classes. It was composed of fourteen of the worst offenders against the complete sentence, the theory being that if earnest competent teachers had failed with them in the classroom, I might by means of individual attention be able to trick them into ways of wisdom. It was a flattering idea; my faith in it proceeded in inverse ratio to my experience as the term wore on! To gain something for oneself is one thing; to be an effective teacher is quite another. If I have failed to accomplish the latter, at least I have learned things from this venture which are invaluable for a pupil-teacher and I do not see how I could have learned them in any other way than through direct intercourse with the minds of the students.

The group I was to observe was a 2B class of thirty girls. For four weeks they studied letter writing, rules of grammar and spelling lists and gave reports on a book on Chivalry. Then they embarked on "Ivanhoe." After a couple of lessons my supervising teacher presented me with the class for two weeks. I learned several things right away; first, that Ivanhoe is just the right menu for young people of that age—their enthusiasm proved it beyond a doubt—; secondly, that it is practically necessary to summaraize the entire book in class since there is a strong possibility that the students will misunderstand or misinterpret the story; and thirdly, that there is never enough time to do things to one's satisfaction. In order to avoid a straight retelling of the story by chapters, I prepared a series of topics written on cards which I dealt out to five or six of the girls at the beginning of the session. The topics were numbered and written in order in my lesson plan with the approximate number of minutes to be allowed for each recitation. The girls were allowed two or three minutes to glance into their books in order to refresh their minds and prepare the recitations. I used such headings as the following: Prince John

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Turns Pale; The Disinherited Knight Wins Five Horses; Dramatization of Scene with Isaac; Rebecca and Gurth; Three Against One (The Black Knight to the Rescue). The girls seemed to be interested in the topics; in fact they were quite eager for the cards as I gave them out. I feel that perhaps this is a good method to use since it does fix the main facts in the pupils' minds and in a more intelligent class might lead to a good deal of free discussion. Much to my surprise I found that the dramatizations were tremendously popular. A furor of acting seemed to seize all the Ivanhoe classes throughout the school at once. One taught by our Chairman acted many scenes for our class and our class in turn visited several other divisions, giving performances for them. The girls, instead of being shy as I had expected, tumbled over each other in their eagerness to take part in the acting. Sometimes they read the parts, sometimes they paraphrased the lines; and two or three of the most vivid passages I rearranged for them into dialogue which they learned by heart. I need not go into our efforts to enrich the girls' vocabulary by having them choose usable words from the text and write them in sentences on the board, and our efforts to reveal plot and character and to have the pupils visualize the scenes. This is all an old story and I presume that seasoned teachers or "born" teachers will be amused at my lesson plan with its meticulous three minute, two minute and five minute labels attached to the topics, but it is a device which does indeed help a novice to cover the ground and keep the lesson moving. Later I used the same method with "As You Like It" and "The Piper," although in the plays naturally we had many more dramatic readings than in "Ivanhoe." In spite of one girl's persisting in the thought that Prince John was a nice kind man who put on rough manners at times, instead of the arch-villain that Scot conceived, and another girl's confusing King Richard with his usurping brother and Saxon with Norman even on a mid-term paper, I felt that on the whole the class had understood and enjoyed something of the literature.

My real Waterloo came when I asked to review a few rules and illustrations on the cases of pronouns and to follow up with a test. Seven girls out of twenty-eight passed the test! Two of them had perfect papers—they were the students who had known and understood the rules before the lesson. I thought, "I must make it easier and plainer!" I repeated the lesson simplifying everything; I gave only the most fundamental rules for nominative and objective case and only the most obvious illustrations; I put sentences on the board; in the test I repeated those very same sentences; I asked only for the right case of the pronoun and the reason for it. This time, eight out of twenty-eight passed, but they were not the same ones in all instances who had passed before. On some papers I had the right case with the wrong reason; on others, the wrong case with the right reason. It became obvious that although I had listed nominative and objective cases of pronouns on the board and had gone over them carefully, the girls did not distinguish between them. Moreover, a subtle change had come over the room. My enthusiastic coöperative class had changed into a hang-dog group who eyed me with bewilderment, sorrow and suspicion. They looked as beaten as I felt! I was up against a perfectly blank wall and I still am. I must face one thing; either I do not know how to teach Syntax, or Syntax cannot be taught. It is a hard choice but it is something to have learned that there is no other possibility! In thinking very seriously about it afterwards I find myself wondering whether a daily chorus of repetition of correct forms might not do more than anything else to establish them in the pupils' minds. After all, it is the hearing of bad English which produces bad English. Granted that the repetitions might become automatic and mechanical, nevertheless the right forms might come to have a familiar sound like a song that has been learned.

Shortly after this interesting adventure had begun, I embarked on the other branch of my activity. I was to lead my fourteen composition ponies to water to see if I could make them drink. I arranged to have separate five minute conferences with them, mostly during the lunch hour, and as my time was limited and I could never meet them in a class, I posted weekly assignments for the entire group on a bulletin board. On the first assignment sheet I asked for a letter in which the student should tell about herself; on the second, I defined and illustrated simple, complex and compound sentences and called for five of each. On the third sheet I defined a narrative, discusing time, place, circumstances, exciting moment and conclusion, and suggested topics for a composition. The fourth assignment was another narrative, this time in the third person. The fifth assignment was an exercise to do away with *and*-sentences. I illustrated the use of participles, subordinate clauses, prepositional and infinitive phrases and adjectives in opposition as means of varying the *and*-sentences and asked the girls to do the same. The final assignment before the mid-term was to write another narrative, putting all that we had so far learned into use. I am amused on rereading the assignment sheet to notice that I wrote, "I shall look especially for improvement in sentence structure. Subordinate clauses," etcetera, etcetera, "will all be most welcome." I had originally planned to go on to Description and Exposition and to arrive eventually at Unity, Mass and Coherence! It seemed to be a good plan; the only trouble was that the girls were not learning anything. The run-on sentences were just as persistent as ever; the narratives were no more interesting and not as well planned as at first. In the assignment on varying sentence

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structure I had far overreached my pupils' understanding, and in the five minute conferences I had time for nothing more than a brief running over of the last composition and a pointing out of the worst mistakes. It was, on the whole, a very ineffective procedure, and I decided to change it.

As some of the girls wrote much worse than others, I planned from now on to individuate the assignments. At the same time I arranged to meet each girl for fifteen minutes once in two weeks. This would enable me to give her some drill for her principal troubles and an assignment somewhat fitted to her interests. I used Ward's Practice Book for drill exercises in recognizing a complete sentence. A number of the girls could do these exercises fairly well but continued to slip a run-on sentence now and then into their compositions. In some cases they said they had written hurriedly and had not stopped to think about complete sentences. In other cases they looked bewildered when I pointed out the end of a complete thought or grammatical construction. During this second half of the term I gave such assignments as character sketches, book reports, anecdotes or whatever each individual girl thought she could write about. In the conferences I talked to the better writers about the planning of a composition and its coherence, illustrating from what they had just written. And here another thought descends upon me. Why wouldn't it be better to illustrate always from correct literature instead of from the pupils' mistakes? Dozens of short instances of good planning and admirable coherence, taken from the best literature may have an effect through suggestion or contagion or rhythm, where reason has failed.

At the end of the term I looked over all the work in an effort to track down any advance made by the students. Out of fourteen, I was able to make one as showing improvement. She, however, was one of the best writers to begin with and was not addicted to run-on sentences. Five I marked plus with a question mark, either because of earnest effort or because their very last composition was without run-on sentences or was better in some other way. The remaining eight, according to my observation, showed no improvement. I then questioned each girl individually as to whether she thought the work had been of any value to her. Practically all of them replied, "Oh yes!" A few of them were enthusiastic, the rest, politely acquiescent! I then asked them to tell me what particular thing or things they could remember that I had pointed out. Nine of them mentioned sentence structure. One of them thought she was not writing as many *and*-sentences as formerly and she suggested that the actual practice of writing had been helpful. One of them had been helped in coherence, two in the construction of paragraphs, one in writing correct tenses, and one in making pronouns agree in number with their antecedents. Two definitely enjoyed the work; one resented it, and one—this is my reward—said that she had "more ideas" as a result of the course. The one of the girls who seemed surest that the course had helped her, had to pause and search her mind when I asked her for evidence. After a moment she said, "Yas'm, one thing you taught me I didn' know befoh'. I thought a comma was always followed by a capital an' you tol' me not to do that. Yas'm, I nevah did know that befoh'."

The Board of Education may not appreciate me. When the test comes, I may fail to identify a minor character in a Shakespearean play, or I may have forgotten who wrote the Commemoration Ode, or I may have passed the mystic age at which life is supposed to end for teachers (Mr. Pitkin to the contrary not withstanding). I may not be able to teach Syntax nor to unfold the mysteries of complete sentences, but I have had an experience of tremendous value to myself—I can hardly imagine a more useful one. And on my tombstone let them call me a Teacher, "for," let it be inscribed, "she once taught a girl that a comma is not *always* followed by a capital!"

ELIZABETH R. HARPER.

WANTED—A HERO

EDUCATION has a new panacea for its ills. This time it is the curriculum. A new curriculum will do the trick. In the past, curricula were too far removed from the realities of daily life, too little concerned with the individual's personal and social needs and idiosyncracies. Now, with curriculum "specialists" sprouting all over the country, education is being brought up to date. Courses of study are being expanded, the traditional subject-matter lines wiped out, the child placed at the core of the curriculum, his needs and development becoming the determining factors in the choice and construction of the educational regimen. The new curricula, without which no modern educational home is complete, gives the child a rounded, dynamic view of life as it is, as it has been, and as it will probably be.

Education, thus administered, becomes vital, real, impinges upon the immediate consciousness of the child, makes him one with his time, and plunges him into the problems of his people, with a view to making him feel personally responsible for the construction of a new society, built upon the most desirable elements of the old.

But, nowhere, in all this fragrant talk about the new curriculum and the new society, is there any balanced account of the rôle that the teacher will have to play in this vast scheme of social rehabilitation. And yet, he is the crucial cog in the whole machin-

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ery. On his shoulders will fall the weight of proper administration. Without him, the curriculum does not get beyond rhetorical statement. It will be his job to translate theory into practice, to concretize and make alive the ethereal. The curriculum per se offers no hope for social salvation. It is inanimate verbiage until touched by the hand of the master teacher.

And yet one hears little of him who is to guide the child into this gloriously aware maturity envisioned by our curriculum-makers. He is taken for granted, almost. He will happen along, perhaps, or he will be found, when he is needed.

But I submit that he will not happen along, and that he will not found when needed. He must be produced, carefully nurtured by our teacher-training schools to meet the challenges of the new education, and to realize its ideals in his students. The youth of a society cannot be saved by a curriculum, however nobly conceived. If the schools are to rally their charges to a fervent support of the good life, they will need more than an attractively tricked-out curriculum. They will need teachers who are heroes in the Carlyleian sense, individuals who will command the respect and veneration of their students, and who will stand as symbols of the life we want our students to lead.

The schools are hard put these days to make their programs real to their students. The fault does not lie with the aims and purposes of the schools, but rather with destructive outside influences. The movies, the yellow press, widespread political corruption, economic insecurity and distress, decadence of family life, are far more imperious forces than the unselfish idealism we so benignly preach. We ought not to wonder that our teachings fail to grip the imagination and emotions of our students. Life is so much more dramatic, so much more compelling in its demands, that school seems innocuous at best.

The solution obviously does not lie in bringing into the classroom the gross sensationalism of tabloids or cinema. But we can take a leaf from these not too illustrious text-books. They have a valuable lesson for us. And that is that knowledge must be energized and personalized if it is to play a part in the life of the individual. Of course, our methods must differ. But basically, they must be similar. For the movies and the press hold the student because they speak to something deep and fundamental in him, and in terms that he can understand. That they defile the citadel of the adolescent's soul is by the point, here. What is important is that they move him where we fail even to touch him. They give him ideals and incentives to conduct, of questionable ethical and social value, no doubt, but of immense efficacy, however.

What can the schools do to supply this stimulus to thought and action? I have hinted at the answer. It will not be found in the new curriculum or the old. For both appeal essentially to the intellect. They are knowledge organized for quick and effective assimilation. In themselves, they are sterile. It is only as they pass through the teacher that they assume meaning to the student. For it must not be forgotten that the studen learns not so much subject matter as he does the teacher's attitude and personality which subtly and inevitably flavor that subject-matter. And this important truth is neglected by those who concentrate on master-curricula and hope to lead youth to a greater vision through it.

For what youth wants is not a course of study, but a hero, a leader, a personal symbol of its as yet unexpressed impulses. And if education is to succeed in stemming the tide of vulgarity and social callousness which seems engulfing our youth, it must put heroes into the classroom. It must make learning dramatic, personal, vitally related to adolescent needs and yearnings. Compulsory education is meaningless unless it compels youth, indirectly of course, to prefer truth to falsity, nobility to pettiness, and social welfare to individual aggrandisement. If youth does not find objects for its devotion and loyalty in school, it will seek them outside.

The teacher's true function as a leader, a standard-bearer, must be emphasized anew. It seems to be lost in the distorted stress on pupil activity. For unless the teacher truly leads, he is not a teacher. Leading by suggestion, from behind, as it were, has its place in education. No one doubts it. But in these critical times, a more positive type of leadership is imperative. Youth must be fired with an ideal. It can never be gently guided into a passion. And what is vitally lacking in our youth to-day is the sort of social passion which fundamentally makes a nation. The teacher must be the prophet for the American Evangel. Through contact with him, youth must desire the things for which he stands. He must become their hero.

The success of our whole educational program depends on the enthusiasm and joy with which its message is transmitted to our youth. Unless they worship, in a limited sense, of course, those who lead them, they will care little for the content of education. It is only as the teacher becomes personally important, attractive and significant to youth, that education will have meaning for it. Let us not delude ourselves. The teacher still is, as he always has been, the pivot in education. What we need to-day, more sorely than improved curricula, is teachers who are living embodiments of the finest things in our national and social life, and who can rally youth to them. They must have the zest and curiosity of youth tempered by the sanity and temperance of maturity. They must subsume in themselves the inarticulate wants of youth so that youth may be attracted to them. They must prefigure the kind of development which youth will want to emulate.

Where shall we find these teachers? I do not profess to know. But I feel

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quite certain that they are in our midst and willing to dedicate themselves to their task. I feel equally certain that without teachers of some such stature, education will continue to produce an emotionally dwarfed and socially stunted citizenry.

ABRAHAM LASS.

Manual Training High School.

THE RELATION OF FAILURE IN CHEMISTRY TO READING

SOME time ago, at the invitation of Mr. A. Mortimer Clark, Principal of De Witt Clinton High School, the authors of this paper undertook the study of failures in chemistry due to an inability to read, and endeavored to determine whether or not a large percentage of the pupils really fail chemistry for this reason.

As a result of this study, we have sought to devise remedial measures.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TEST EMPLOYED

At the outset we studied many different kinds and types of standardized tests on reading, and finally chose the "Iowa Silent Reading Test" as being best suited to our purpose. This test covers a wide range of skills indispensable to effective reading. It measures four major aspects of silent reading ability, namely, (1) comprehension of paragraph and word meaning as applied to science, literature, mathematics and English; (2) paragraph organization in the light of selecting the central idea and outlining; (3) ability to locate information by using an index and selecting key words; and (4) the rate of silent reading.

The test was designed for use in Grade 9 through the first year of college. By its use we have been provided with a rather exact notion of the level of development of the several elements of silent reading ability of the boys tested, as well as with specific information concerning the limitations of the individuals concerned. Then by comparing with norms the results obtained by the boys tested, a clear concept of their general ability in silent reading of the work-study type was obtained. The scores made by individuals on the various parts of the test showed the specific weaknesses or strengths of each individual. This test gives a dependable and detailed measure of the individual student, so that remedial teaching can be made effective.

The interpretations of the test scores depend upon grade and percentile norms based upon results from approximately 6,000 students distributed about equally in Grade 9 through the first year of college.

TESTING PROCEDURE

In administering this test, 48 boys were chosen; 25 were boys who failed

first term chemistry badly and were repeating the subject (referred to as Group B in the Table), and the other 23 boys were those who passed first term chemistry with at least a fairly high mark,—above 85%, (referred to as Group A in the Table), and were studying second term chemistry. The test was given strictly according to standard directions to all of the boys at the same time.

INTERPRETATIONS

Percentile graphs were drawn to show the differences between the two groups. For the Sentence Meaning Test, the median for the boys who failed first term chemistry was 22.5, while it was 29.5 for those who passed, —the highest score being 37.

For the Total Comprehension Test, the median for the failed boys was 111, while it was 158 for those who passed,—the highest score being 187.

In the case of the Rate of Silent Reading Test, the median was 26 for those who failed and 30 for those who passed,—the highest score being 64.

The results are summarized in the following table:

PERCENTILE SCORES

		80–90	60–80	*Below* 60
Test 1.				
Paragraph Meaning	Group A	17 boys	3 boys	3 boys
	Group B	9 boys	6 boys	10 boys
Test 2.				
Word Meaning	Group A	20 boys	2 boys	1 boy
	Group B	12 boys	4 boys	8 boys
Test 3.				
Paragraph Organization	Group A	8 boys	9 boys	6 boys
	Group B	3 boys	7 boys	15 boys
Test 4.				
Sentence Meaning	Group A	12 boys	8 boys	3 boys
	Group B	4 boys	12 boys	9 boys
Test 5.				
Location of Information	Group A	15 boys	6 boys	2 boys
	Group B	7 boys	13 boys	5 boys
Total Comprehension Score	Group A	19 boys	2 boys	2 boys
	Group B	9 boys	8 boys	8 boys
Test 6.				
Rate of Silent Reading	Group A	5 boys	4 boys	14 boys
	Group B	1 boy	0 boys	24 boys

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All results show the boys who passed first term chemistry to possess the superior ability in silent reading.

The above table of percentile scores enables one to compare Groups A and B at a glance. The table shows the number of boys in both groups who received percentile scores between 80 and 90, 60 and 80, and 0 and 60, respectively. If we assume that a percentile score of 60 is equivalent to our passing mark of 65%, the table discloses that boys in Group A are decidedly superior to those in Group B. The Table also shows that in tests 1, 2 and 5, and in the Total Comprehension Score, seven or more boys in Group B received a percentile score of 80 or better. The past records of these boys were examined and it was discovered that these boys were generally good in their school work. Chemistry seemed to be their specific weakness. Nevertheless, even these seven boys received low scores in paragraph organization, sentence meaning and silent reading, respectively.

The most astonishing results were obtained in test 6, the Rate of Silent Reading. Five boys in Group A and one boy in Group B received a percentile score of 80 or better. The Rate of Silent Reading was generally poor, even for the Group A boys. However, 19 boys in Group A received a score of 80 or better in the total comprehension score as compared with 9 in Group B. Included among the 9 boys in Group B were the 7 boys mentioned previously whose specific and only weakness was in chemistry. We may conclude, therefore, that all boys read slowly; that no specific training has been given in rapid reading; and that boys in Group A read slowly but comprehend better. This fact is also disclosed by the results in test 4 on Sentence Meaning. Only 4 boys in Group B received a percentile score of 80 or over as compared with 12 boys in Group A. The rate of silent reading is closely related to the eye-span, ability to recognize words and ability to form concepts.

Pupils who read individual words read slowly and fail to comprehend the material read. Reading is further retarded by the tendency to re-read matter that is vague. Eight boys in Group B received a percentaile score of less than 60 in test 2, Word Meaning, indicating the lack of familiarity with common words. Only one boy in Group A received a percentile score of less than 60.

In test 3, Paragraph Organization, six boys in Group A and fifteen boys in Group B received a percentile score of less than 60, showing inability to analyze, interpret, and digest the material read.

Recommendations and Conclusions

The test shows that the 23 pupils who passed first term chemistry with a high mark can comprehend what they read quite well, while the 25 boys who failed first term chemistry cannot, in general, readily comprehend what they read.

We found also that most of the 48 boys were poor in the items of paragraph organization and rate of silent reading, although the boys who passed in first term chemistry were superior. In these matters there was not marked correlation between brightness in chemistry and ability in the topic measured.

From personal interviews with the boys, the authors have found that many boys by their own admission, study chemistry only fifteen minutes daily, if at all. If the failing boy's ability to comprehend what he reads is poor, and if his rate of reading is also poor, little can be learned in this period of time to supplement the laboratory and classroom work.

From the statistics gathered by Terman, we find that from 10% to 30% of the school population have vision sufficiently imperfect to demand correction by glasses. Although the correction of defective vision should be done by a specialist, the teacher can seat the pupils with the poorest sight nearest the front of the room. A number of boys in each class is probably suffering from defective eye-sight and they do not know it. Swift, in "Youth and the Race," shows that a visual defect that is not corrected during childhood may cause a permanent distaste for reading.

The correlation between the Iowa Silent Reading Test and tests of general mental ability (coefficient of correlation = 80 — 90) is high enough to indicate that it may reasonably be substituted for the latter. We have then the case of some children having such a low level of mental ability that they learn to read with difficulty. These only succeed in mastering the reading of relatively easy material. It seems that these boys might be helped if they were segregated and given special instruction in the reading of chemistry.

Proficiency in reading may be poor because of inefficient eye-movements. Some boys have acquired an improper habit of eye-movement. As a result, their progress in reading is interfered with. The administering of remedial exercises to cultivate proper eye-movement habits may improve the reading process. The boy should be trained to look at phrases rather than words. Thus the number of pauses per line may be reduced. He should also be trained to make properly the return sweep to the beginning of each successive line.

Concentration plays a large part in reading success. If a boy reads rapidly, he is probably more active mentally than the slow reader and he may therefore develop into a more able reader. Practice in reading rapidly might enable students to attain a greater rate without any loss in comprehension. The pupils should be encouraged and taught to read as rapidly as they can without losing the thought of the material.

In the case of deficiency in recognizing words independently, the pupils should be given instruction in word analysis and phonetics. Specific at-

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tention should be given to new words occurring in chemistry.

The slow rate of silent reading may be due to a narrow span of recognition. Some pupils require a great many pauses in each line because they are able only to recognize a very limited portion of the line. Training in rapid silent reading and paragraph analysis might be given as a part of the work in chemistry. Sections of the text not generally studied might be employed as a basis for the cultivation of such skills.

Since quite a number of our pupils come from homes in which little or no English is spoken, many of these have difficulty because of a limited vocabulary. Vocabulary development should therefore be stressed. However, it should be borne in mind that a large vocabulary is not nearly so useful as a moderate one thoroughly understood.

Another cause of unsatisfactory reading ability is a lack of interest in reading. This may be due to the fact that the pupil fails to understand that reading is a thought-getting process because he has to dwell on the mechanics of reading, or he may definitely dislike the subject-matter studied. If the boy's attitude is not changed, he will hardly make satisfactory progress in reading. We may attempt to inculcate interest in reading of chemical literature by references to biographical sketches of noted scientists.

Although authorities agree that there is a real transfer of training, the degree to which this is accomplished is subject to discussion. We cannot trust to total transfer from one situation to another. Therefore, definite training in the reading of science should be given, since if we wish children to improve in a particular way, our surest means of effecting this is to train them in the specific ability we have in mind.

HERMAN M. CAMPSEN, JR.,
JACOB E. KRONICK.
De Witt Clinton High School.

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE N. R. A. PROGRAM OF EDUCATION FOR THE WORTHY USE OF LEISURE*

NO PHASE of the work of the foreign language students has greater possibility of post-scholastic application than reading. If we are to prepare our students to continue reading after they leave us, we must train them so that they can read the foreign language understandingly, appreciatively, and readily—and enjoy it.

Reading for understanding and enjoyment may be made a pleasant enterprise by properly grading the material, by reading interesting and suitable matter, and by reading silently a great deal. "One learns to read by reading." We should encourage extensive independent reading by making it an integral part of our course. The objection to such a recommendation that the present economic depression prevents us from increasing library facilities can be met by a scheme such as we have tried out in DeWitt Clinton.

The following letter was sent to every branch of the Public Library in Manhattan and The Bronx to which our students have access:

"Supplementary reading forms an integral part of our courses in Spanish; but the books that we have in our school library are insufficient for our 2,500 students of Spanish.

May we, therefore, take the liberty of asking you to coöperate with us by sending us a list of all the books in your branch, in Spanish or in English, dealing with Spain or Spanish America. Kindly give also the classification number. If the preparation of such a list will require too much time, please let us know whether we may not send you several of our students to help you compile it. We shall make your list available to our students who live in the vicinity of your library and give them definite assignments therefrom."

The response was most gratifying. On receiving all of the lists a committee of teachers studied them, eliminated a good many and assigned each book to a definite term. Then the titles were arranged in alphabetical order by terms and printed in a twenty-four page booklet. The chief merit of the list is that in addition to author, title and classification marks, we also indicated in which branch library or libraries the book may be obtained. Another merit of this compilation is that the student keeps the book and thus we hope will continue to refer to it even after he leaves us. That leads me to the next suggestion that we encourage the possession of a complete set of books used in studying the language. The loss of the books loaned by the school is often the first break in any continued interest in subjects in the high school. I do hope that we can some day do what Michael West and Harold Palmer and other progressive educators are doing along the lines of issuing paper covered inexpensive text-books which remain the property of the student forever.

Another suggestion for preparing our students for post-scholastic reading is to encourage them to subscribe to a magazine or newspaper printed in the foreign language, for example, *El Eco*, *Le Petit Journal*, the daily newspapers in the foreign language, magazines published abroad, and the like. As a start, these should be available in the school and the department libraries, and students should by all sorts of inducements be prevailed to buy them.

Another step toward preparation for continued interest in the language

* Excerpts from a paper presented at a conference of the Modern Language Chairmen in New York City High Schools, on November 2, 1933.

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is to place conscious emphasis in our teaching on the ability to connect the foreign word with the English descendents, that is, the common ancestry of the foreign and English words, not so much perhaps for the sake of the foreign language as for the sake of the pupil's general cultural training, not that we would introduce the study of comparative philology into elementary work in foreign language, but that we would never pass over without mention, foreign words that have sons or cousins in English without plainly calling attention to this relationship when the foreign word was encountered for the first time.

Another desirable activity in preparation for worthy use of leisure is the habit of using the foreign language in connection with some particular activity, or person, or phase of life; for instance, the keeping of a diary, the keeping of one's personal expense account, letter exchange with a native of the country whose language has been studied, etc. Additional worth while activities that can be continued later on are the following:

1. Attendance at the theatres, movies, operas, concerts, churches or soci[eties] meetings, where the foreign [language] be heard.
2. Visits to museum[s] tions of foreign ar[t] ucts.
3. Dramatization—inform[al] atizations of any situati[on] may occur in real life.
4. Collection of realia and [pictures] projects.
5. Games, puzzles, songs, pictu[res] study, etc.
6. The teaching of the language to some other person.

A beginning may be made by encouraging students to help one another in the spirit of the Big Brother movement or the Buddy system.

HYMEN ALPERN, Principal.
Evander Childs High School.

HIGH POINTS

The Three-Sentence Composition

This experiment in the writing of three-sentence composition came about as a result of a constant, but, to a great extent, unsuccessful struggle against the writing of fragmentary and run-on sentences by first-term English Students. The most important result was the gradual increase in the number of pupils who wrote complete sentences until, at the end of the term, only one incomplete sentence was found out of three classes. The students who could write easily and correctly gained skill in the use of complex and compound sentences because of the necessity of limiting their compositions to three sentences. The brevity of the compositions made it possible to have a written composition period twice each week. Thirty minutes were sufficient to cover the oral

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taken to give only a few in that way; otherwise, the poorer writers would produce a mere repetition of what they had heard. The first two sentences given above were completed as follows:

1. It was pleasant to feel that I had actually earned the shining dime that lay in the palm of my hand. When visiting my aunt, who owned a restaurant, I was permitted to place the mustard, sugar, and other things before an elderly customer. At the end of the meal, after I had served him with water, the old gentleman, to my great surprise, gave me the dime.

2. The first money I ever earned was received for taking care of a candy store for a friend while he went to lunch. Some little boys came in and bought three cents' worth of peanuts. I felt very proud of myself for having been there to serve the customers, as two of them were my enemies.

The entire class proceeded at this point to write the compositions, taking five or six minutes at the most. Papers were exchanged and read. Any girl who enjoyed her neighbor's composition stood in her place and read it to the class. No formal criticism of each one was given. If the class enjoyed the little story, that fact was evident from the expression on their faces. As a girl read, she paused slightly after each period. Then at the end, if an incomplete or run-on sentence had been read or if more or fewer than three sentences had been written, these errors were corrected orally by the class. Thus a sentence-sense was developed.

Many of the better writers complained that they were not able to say in three sentences all that they wished. Presented with the necessity of doing this, they soon began, of their own accord, to use well-constructed complex, compound, and complex-compound sentences. The poorer writers with little to say avoided saying that little over and over again, and their pleasure and self-confidence in writing increased as they were always able to write three sentences on any subject presented to them and receive a passing mark if they were complete.

After every composition deemed interesting enough to be read aloud had been heard, all were collected and corrected by the teacher. Although the two composition periods were on consecutive days, the brevity of the papers made it possible to correct them before the next period. Additional papers were often found worthy to be read aloud. This reading began the next period and was followed by a grammar drill based on the errors in sentence structure found in these papers.

While studying the "Ballads" with their prancing steeds and Gay Goss Hawks, we decided to view some of these ballad people from an animal's point of view. Since this idea was difficult for some, the topic was broadened to *Do Animals Think?*, a theme which was easier since the girls had already read the story of "Comet," the dog who overcame a great fear, and "Lad" who captured a

burglar. The story in either case could be told by the girl or the animal. As an asignment the girls considered these questions:

Have you a pet at home? Does he know what is going on about him? Can he think? When has he proved this?

Following the procedure described above, the girls wrote these stories:

1. A Squirrel of Sherwood Park Speaks to His Love.

"See how Robin Hood and Clorinda dance at Allin-a-Dale's wedding! He hath braved her father's wrath and hath earned a bonny bride. Come, Cheepie, my love, let us be married so that the other squirrels may dance and make merry at our wedding, drinking the blude-red wine to your health."

2. Hynd Horn's Ring.

With much anxiety, Hynd Horn looked at his hand to see whether I was still glittering, only to find, to his great sorrow, that I was dull and faded and that his loved one no longer was faithful. By his expression, I realized that in his mind he pictured her beautiful face with its blude-red lips, so vivid against the lily-white skin. "She hath forsaken me and I must return across the seas," he muttered.

3. Jealous.

I don't see what is so interesting about a baby that lies in bed all day either crying or sleeping. It seems that all Bobby and his whole family now think of is "Jackie this," and "Jackie that," since he came along. I suppose I'll have to "take it on the chin" and wait until they forget about Jackie and say again as they used to, "Come here, Flop."

4. Trained.

As I extended my hand, my dog came over and sat on his hind legs showing me he had remembered the trick I had taught him. This day I decided to take him for a walk in the park. After we had been there a short time, I looked around and saw him sitting on his hind legs in front of a statue of a man whose hand was extended.

5. I know from my studies that animals do not think, but I witnessed an incident that almost convinced me that even books might be wrong. I had just returned from the country and was opening my door when my big Collie jumped upon me and in his dog talk welcomed me home. The woman who had taken care of him while we were away told me that he had been in a similar state of excitement whenever anyone rang the front door-bell.

The reading of "A Return to Constancy" by Mary Ellen Chase suggested the difficult tasks or duties that each one of us, at some time or other, is called upon to perform. The following compositions were written on this topic:

1. The hardest job I ever had to tackle in one day was the writing of four lines of poetry for homework.

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Now, to Longfellow or Poe, that would have been an easy task, but to me it was a most difficult one. That day I sat at my desk with a dictionary at my elbow until I finally composed the four lines, and you can imagine how I felt the next day when, after showing them to my teacher, she told me that I had copied the wrong assignment.

2. The voice came over the telephone, "Please keep her as long as possible because scarcely anyone is here and a surprise party isn't much good without people." There was nothing else I could think of since we had seen the moving-picture twice, done as much window-shopping as was possible, and lingered so long in the ice-cream parlor that I didn't think I would ever want to see a soda again. After my friend had nagged me until it seemed that I'd have to tell her why we couldn't go home, I succeeded in arousing her interest in a hat-shop window so that, when we arrived home at last, there was a chorus of voices to proclaim, "Surprise!"

3. I have had many difficult problems in my life, but I think the hardest was having to apologize for all the twins' pranks when I visited them in New Haven. The twins are the most mischievous set of cousins anyone ever had and so, very naturally, they turned on the hose in our neighbor's kitchen while their parents were away. They stood behind me laughing gleefully while I had the door shut in my face and a wrathful, "Ye'll not git away with thim tricks," hurled at me by the woman who slammed the door.

One lesson all the pupils learned as a result of writing three-sentence compositions was that they should never write unless they have something definite to say. The recounting of a personal experience was always preferred to the concocting of an imaginary one. Once all realized that the source of all their written work could be found within themselves and that the material for a composition was the same they used in relating incidents or experiences to their friends after a vacation, or to their families at the dinner table, the composition period ceased to be a dreaded one by those who had always found writing difficult. There was no longer the necessity of "making up a composition." The girls now wrote because they wanted to share their experiences with the rest of the class and even the poorest English student found that, in the three-sentence composition, she had a medium of expression which she had the ability to use.

ETHEL FAGAN.
Walton High School.

Exhibit Your Mathematics

During the June Regents' week, the mathematics department of the Manual Training High School arranged an exhibition of work submitted by students of mathematics. The work was organized by a committee of teachers appointed by the chairman of the department. This committee was responsible for the selection and organization of topics, the preparation of materials needed for the exhibits, and the assignments for which each teacher was responsible.

The finished projects were placed in a room accessible to all, and yet in no way interfering with students taking examinations. As a matter of fact, the room chosen was on the ground floor near the main entrance and the auditorium, and on a floor which was not being used for examinations. This room was kept open every day from nine until four. There was always a teacher in charge to answer questions and explain anything about which visitors inquired.

Each teacher of the department was responsible for at least two finished projects from each class; and, besides these, he was requested to submit superior homework papers, test papers, and note-books which had been prepared by his students during their regular class periods. After the exhibit we awarded prizes for the best note books submitted in elementary algebra, plane geometry, and intermediate algebra. The books, on the whole, were so well done that it was indeed difficult to decide on the winners. At the beginning of the term these books were placed in a prominent position in the main corridor in the hope that they will serve as examples to other students.

We had in all about two hundred and fifty complete projects, about thirty note-books, and innumerable tests and homework papers. One very interesting corner of the room contained a transit, a sextant, and a slide rule; and most of the time there were numbers of students gathered there, and eagerly discussing the instruments with the teacher in charge.

The interest shown by the students was very gratifying and, in almost all cases, they were glad to volunteer to prepare work. Their finished work was placed on cardboard sheets of uniform size and color and labelled with student's name, teacher's name, and mathematics class. These were hung according to the grade of mathematics and arranged in as artistic a manner as material and space permitted. Although the preparation of the exhibit entailed considerable time and effort, the benefit derived by both the students and the faculty demonstrated that it was well worth while.

The list following is but a partial one of the topics which we used, but it will give the reader some idea of a point from which to start.

I. ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA

A. *Graphs.*
   1. Circle, line, bar—made by pupils using data of interest to them. (Baseball, automobiles, school statistics, etc.)
   2. Illustrations from newspapers and magazines.
   3. Solution of linear equations.
   4. Solution of problems.

B. *History of Algebra.* Short stories and pictures of famous

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men influential in the development of algebra.

C. *Simple algebraic fallacies.*

D. *Practical problems in numerical trigonometry.*

II. PLANE GEOMETRY

A. *Models, diagrams, and instruments made by students.* These can be used to demonstrate such propositions as:

1. Any point on the perpendicular bisector of a line segment is equally distant from the ends of the segment.
2. The diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.
3. Any point on the bisector of an angle is equally distant from the sides of the angle.

B. *Geometric designs.* Geometry in art and nature.

C. *The nine point circle.* Short explanation and description.

D. *Geometry of the pyramids of Egypt.*

E. *The three problems of antiquity.*

F. *Four color map problem.*

G. *Methods of proving Pythagorean proposition.*

H. *Meaning of Pi;* its value to a given number of decimal places.

I. *Ceva's theorem;* its uses and other facts of importance.

III. INTERMEDIATE ALGEBRA

A. *Graphs*—various conics; illustration of Kepler's laws, and relations of orbits and comets and planets to conic sections.

B. *Pascal's triangle;* its use in the binomial theorem.

C. *Use of geometric progression for business forms;* compound interest, annuities, etc.

D. *Cube root.*

E. *Puzzles.*

F. *Fallacies.*

IV. PLANE TRIGONOMETRY

A. *The slide rule.*
B. *The transit.*
} Actual models and directions for their use.

C. *Trigonometric instruments used at sea.*

D. *Graphs of trigonometric and inverse trigonometric functions.*

E. *Graphs of hyperbolic functions.*

V. ADVANCED ALGEBRA

A. *Compound interest graphs, including the graph representing instantaneous compound interest.*

B. *The Cardan-Tartaglia controversy concerning the general solution of the cubic equation.*

C. *The application of probability to hands of bridge.*

D. *The relationship among the constants i, e, and Pi as expressed by the formula* $i^i = e - \frac{Pi}{2}$.

E. *A set of paper models illustrating a maximum and minimum problem.*

VI. SOLID GEOMETRY

A. *Models of five regular polyhedrons.*

B. *Models of all the conic sections as actual sections of a cone.*

C. *Pen and ink drawings of the figures for text-book propositions.*

D. *Model of a regular pyramid inscribed in a cone and of a cone inscribed in a regular pyramid constructed so as to show relationships of slant height, element, and lateral edge.*

Sources of Material

1. Articles and pictures of Einstein from the *New Yorker.*
2. Graphs collected from business firms, magazines, and newspapers.
3. Navigation instruments loaned by students having relatives who are sea captains.
4. Metal, wood, and cardboard supplied by the art department and by the school shops.

List of Books on Reference

1. Ball, W. W.: Mathematical Recreations. "History of Mathematics." Macmillan, New York, 1922.
2. Altschiller-Court: "College Geometry." Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Va., 1925.
3. Johnson: "Modern Geometry."
4. Jones, S. I.: "Mathematical Nuts." "Mathematical Wrinkles."
5. Cajori, F.: "History of Elementary Mathematics." Macmillan, New York.
6. Sanford, Vera: "History of Mathematics." Houghton Miffin, New York, 1930.
7. Licks, H. E.: "Recreations in Mathematics." D. A. Van Nostrand Co., New York, 1917.
8. Smith, D. E.: "History of Mathematics." Ginn and Co., New York, 1923.
9. "The Mathematics Teacher." Teachers' College, Columbia University.

LOUISE M. HARRIS.
Manual Training High School.

Books and Pictures

Since the aim of every English department is to stimulate the desire to read more and better books, the problem of providing about six thousand pupils with books to read is a tremendous one. In Richmond Hill High School we have tried to put an ever-increasing number of books at the disposal of our pupils and by a variety of devices to arouse interest in books.

In recent years the English Department has not only provided for substantial aditions to the school library, but built up three smaller libraries in annexes and three classroom libraries in the Main Building. The small classroom library is particularly worth while, because since many of the books are the teacher's own favorites, she can make the class enthusiastic about them. Pupils like the idea of a personal recommendation and discussion with the teacher of the characters, weaknesses, and merits of the book.

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It is our hope that in the not distant future every classroom in the school will be equipped with a library of its own.

In our department offices there are many beautifully illustrated copies of such books as "Treasure Island," "Ivanhoe," the "Odyssey," "David Copperfield," and "A Tale of Two Cities." These are, of course, at the disposal of all teachers at any time.

We have also been building up a collection of pictures. At present, English classrooms are decorated with twenty-nine pictures related to *David Copperfield, Ivanhoe, Idylls of the King,* and other books studied. Each term we have added to the list.

The department has also a good collection of large, attractively colored literary maps of the United States and England.

Two of the members of our department have, fortunately for the rest of us, a hobby that has made it possible for us to acquire a collection of pictures, which we believe is unsurpassed in any school. From postcards, textbooks, and other illustrations one of these teachers has made 8 x 10 enlargements of the best of the collections of the entire department. At the present time we have about three hundred of these enlargements. Those of us who have lent him our own collections were agreeably surprised, because the enlargements were in most cases much clearer and more effective that the originals—and we still had our originals unaffected by the process. Films have also been made from these pictures. A catalogue has just been completed of all enlargements and films, and in this collection there are now about 600 miniature prints. Teachers who have tried to find good illustrations of texts will realize what an asset these pictures are.

The other photographer in our department has developed about 300 slides which may be projected on a screen or reversed wall map in any ordinary classroom. Many of these have been developed from snapshots taken by the photographer himself in his rambles through the British Isles.

Recently in order to stimulate interest in books and authors, we held an author contest. Prizes of one to five dollars were given to those who recognized the greatest number of sixty authors whose pictures were posted on the English bulletin boards. It was interesting to watch the pupils matching pictures in text-books and reference books with those on the bulletin boards.

Conscious of the fact that the types of pupils in our high school are varied and ever changing, we have, in the past six years, revised our reading list twice, and are again at work on a modernization. At present there are about 1,500 books on the list. We try to reach the boy who can enjoy nothing more difficult than the *Green Murder Case* or *Penrod*, as well as the one whose taste run to Carlyle or Ibsen. The members of the department feel that, if in these various ways we help our pupils to enrich their lives and to solve the increasingly important problems of "What shall I do with my leisure time?", our work is worth while.

MARY J. MURPHY.
Richmond Hill High School.

On Vitalizing the Teaching of the Circulation in Advanced Biology

The study of the blood and circulation in Advanced Biology can be vitalized by introducing demonstrations, which, though not in the syllabus, are eminently important from an educational, physiological, and clinical point of view. As the circulation is studied at present it has a purely cultural value. Why not invest it with a utilitarian value as well?

There should be little sympathy for the opinion that the child will be given a negative idea of health instead of a positive one, if he is acquainted with the various laboratory techniques employed by the physician in diagnosing disease. To keep children in ignorance of the diagnostic value of the study of the blood, is just like studying electricity without applying the knowledge gained, towards a better understanding of the inventions based on electricity.

When a person is examined by a physician, the findings are given the patient, but his scientific background is such that he cannot evaluate these findings and form a true picture of his condition. Far from alarming the student, a knowledge of the significance of blood pressure would help him to understand that a blood pressure ten above or below, means little, that a haemoglobin of 85 is nothing to worry about. If a little about heart disease were taught, the student would realize why a person with a weak heart should refrain from excess exertion. An understanding of the principles underlying the physician's advice would enable the patient to follow it with more interest and common sense and thereby the treatment would become more effective.

There are a number of demonstrations which could be used in the teaching of the blood and circulation in Biology classes. Some of them involve the drawing of blood. In such instances only the teacher's blood should be used. Since the amount of blood drawn in any of these experiments is seldom more than two drops the teacher can be the source several times daily.

The Tallqvist Haemoglobinometer, involves the matching of a drop of blood with a color chart. The percentage of haemoglobin will be determined by the closest color match on the chart. The technique is simple and the chance of infection is nil. However, as a precaution the finger to be pricked is washed with alcohol before, and with iodine after the operation. The entire apparatus costs about $2.50.

A Haemocytometer costs more, about $10.00. Blology Clubs, through the G. O. funds, can be given the money for the purchase of this instrument and a "blood count" can be done; needless to say, the interest is intense.

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Slides from neighboring hospitals showing cases of pernicious anemia and of leukemia provide great interest and are very helpful to compare with normal slides. The blood picture in each of these cases is fascinating because of the definiteness of the picture.

A Sphygmomanometer (blood pressure apparatus) can easily be borrowed (some Health Education Departments own them), blood pressure taken, and its significance discussed. A stethoscope can be bought for about $2.00, by means of which the heart beats and breath sounds can be listened to.

Those teachers who are unfamiliar with the technique of some of these demonstrations could read up any book on clinical microscopy, where detailed directions concerning them will be found. The principle in each case is simple. The intense interest of the class will more than repay any added effort involved in performing the demonstrations.

HERMAN G. DLUGATZ.
Evander Childs High School.

Effective Pupil Teaching

Though it is not advisable to permit pupils to conduct the class lessons for all types of work nor to permit all pupils to try this executive work, I think there are some books among those studied in the English classes which lend themselves satisfactorily to pupil teaching. I am always glad of the opportunity to give bright pupils something unusual to do, as I feel that most of my time and strength go to the duller pupils, who outweigh them in numbers.

One of the texts I teach (or rather do not teach) in this way is "The House of the Seven Gables." I teach only the first lesson to get the pupils started properly; I sometimes teach the last review lesson; usually a pupil begs the lesson from me. The classes are always highly excited when I announce on the day of the first lesson, "The rest of this book will be taught by pupils. Please consult the notice on the bulletin board to find out whether you are conducting a lesson, and when. Also follow the directions and hints given."

I then give detailed instructions so that both class and pupil teacher will know what I expect to be done. These instructions are intended to forestall various weaknesses the lessons would show if inexperienced persons were permitted to handle them without advice.

Now, the pupils do very well indeed (since I have deliberately chosen the pupils best fitted for the work, intending it as a special incentive and joy for them) with the ordinary type of lesson—dictating the new assignment, checking the vocabulary work in the notebooks, covering the chapters of the day's assignment by question and answer method. If there is too much stress on factual rather than thought questions, I show them this weakness. The classes really have lively discussions. The pupils appear to prepare their lessons almost more thoroughly for pupil teachers than for me. They seem to be on the qui vive because they have no way of knowing the next pupil teacher's method of teaching, special interests, or mode of approach.

But I am not satisfied with this ordinary type of lesson, even if a very good lesson. I demand originality. Each pupil teacher must do something different from what has been done in the lessons preceding his. This puts the leader on his mettle. I think the full instructions given at the outset to the class (and at the same time, necessarily, to the leaders) will show how I try to guide the conducting of the lessons.

"Call on as many pupils as possible. Make quiet pupils recite and pursue them till they tell all they know. If possible, do not have the same pupil recite twice. Do not give questions answerable by *yes* or *no*. Give thought questions as well as fact questions. Draw forth full answers. Allow questions, comments, and discussions. Pupils must look up five new words in vocabulary each day and enter them in their notebooks. The pupil teachers must check this work daily in some way. Discuss plot, character, humor, pathos, suspense, realism, atmosphere, local color, moral issues, style, author's attitude toward life and people. Plan plenty of work for thirty-five minutes. (I need a small part of the period for other things, usually.)

"Use any original methods you care to. Each pupil teacher must use some new device or method not used in the preceding lessons. You may try board work, vocabulary checking, short-answer tests, reading aloud, paraphrasing, dramatizing, etc. Originality in the lesson will control to a great extent the mark given the pupil teacher.

"Keep the lesson snappy by being on your toes yourself."

The first lesson is likely to be fair, but will show a need for specific criticism and a repetition of detailed instructions from the teacher. The next few lessons are usually very good, followed by a slump due to the petering out of ideas on the part of the leaders. The same monotony often creeps into the lessons we ourselves teach. At this time I put a small bomb under both the pupils and the remaining leaders. This usually works, and the lessons finish with a fair flourish.

This term the following methods and devices, aside from question and answer method, were used by these pupil teachers:

Vocabulary check by notebook inspection, reading aloud from notebook, board work, multiple choice tests, and matching tests.

Compositions written on board.

Summary of chapters with some true and some false statements read aloud by leader, the other pupils volunteering to correct errors and explain.

Short-answer tests—true and false, multiple choice, filling in blanks.

Continuous story of the lesson taken up by various pupils as designated by leader.

Question box made at beginning of period and used that period.

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First pupil asking another pupil a question, which the latter answered; then the second asking someone else a question. If a pupil could not answer, he might not ask a question.

Reading aloud and dramatizations; a dramatization competition of the same scene by three groups judged by the class.

Ten minute opportunity to write imaginary finish to the plot of the novel (written after reading of first six chapters).

Having class look for similes and metaphors and then volunteer examples; also assigning pupils to read examples found by leader and tell what they were. Same method for humor and pathos.

Paraphrasing of difficult prolonged similes or philosophical passages.

Written imaginary conversation based on an incident not elaborated in the book—for instance, conversation among the people in the train after Hepzibah and Clifford left.

Character study of Phoebe made by pupils assigned to read aloud passages previously selected by leader and then tell what trait of character was illustrated.

All sorts of bees—one match lined up boys against girls in two lines; one had boys matched against girls without standing (volunteer answering from a boy and then a girl with a score keeper working at the board). For matches the leader used about sixty questions of mixed type, including vocabulary, but all short and specific.

Two interesting things I should have liked to see done were these: a lively news article written in class based on the death of Jaffrey Pyncheon or some other exciting happening; and a small booklet entitled "Wisdom of Hawthorne," containing printed and illuminated texts of universal application taken from the novel. The latter would be in imitation of the "Pocket R. L. S." No pupil thus far has thought of making either of these assignments, though their ideas often pleasurably surprise me.

FLORENCE E. BROWN.
Richmond Hill High School.

The Mathematics Exhibit at the Century of Progress Exposition

That the mathematics section of the Hall of Science Exhibition at the Century of Progress should have proved so popular that it had to be moved this year to a more accessible part of the building, is hardly believable, but nevertheless true. The writer saw the crowds that flocked to see this particular exhibition on one of those hot, muggy, Chicago Summer days, which even the seasoned New Yorker, accustomed to the high humidity of the seashore, finds unbearable. He even had the supreme pleasure of peacefully settling a warm dispute among several people observing the weekly paradox, as to why a right angle was not equal to an obtuse angle.

The underlying impression that the visitor to this exhibition receives is that mathematics can be made to interest and does interest the average individual. Here, one sees a group of people observing an ingenious mechanical device for computing the value of Pi by applying a principle discovered by the Frenchman, Buffon. A little further on, is another group of people manipulating Sir Francis Galton's Quincun, a simple machine of steel balls, round pins, and triangular pins, from which the normal frequency curve is obtained in one case and a skew frequency curve in the other. Then as we pass on we see another group admiring the mechanical generation of the conic sections. By having a cone revolve in a darkened booth as beams of light in a plane surface play on it, one sees the circle merge into the elipse, the elipse into the parabola, and the parabola into the hyperbola, and the hyperbola back into the parabola, and so on. What a splendid example of the fundamental unity of mathematics! And as we continue, we see another group getting their first introduction to the Fourth Dimension. By means of lantern slides and very ingenious models four dimensional figures are projected into three dimensional space. The whole thing is, of course, done inductively and the difficult concepts introduced very gradually. And so the writer could go on describing the other interesting features of the exhibit, such as the models of the various space curves, the lantern slides of mathematical recreations and fallacies, and so on. The writer has already mentioned the very lively argument, in which he participated, over the familiar geometric paradox of proving a right angle equal to an obtuse angle.

Mention should be made of the very artistic and interesting historical posters dealing with the development of mathematics on display at the exhibition. To quote from the descriptive handbook, "Most people are of the opinion that the history of mathematics is dull and uninteresting, which is not true. There are many events in the history of mathematics which are full of human interest." How fine it would be to have copies of these posters in our schools!

A teacher of the subject leaves this exhibit with newer and clearer ideas of how models and other illustrative material can be used to vitalize and make more interesting the teaching of mathematics. Also with the wish that it were possible to obtain slides of the entire exhibit in order that our pupils could thrill to the beauty and glory that belong to mathematics in the same way as the crowds at the Fair were thrilled.

BENJAMIN BRAVERMAN.
Abraham Lincoln High School.

A Tale of Two Cities in Action

A golden-haired Lucie sobbed convulsively, then swooned; a none-the-less human Dr. Manette vainly sought to comfort her—and an audience of several hundred students and faculty, intently watched every movement, forgetting for the moment the actors were merely people in miniature—string-controlled marionettes. Two and

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a half months of planning, designing, play-writing, costuming, hammering, memorizing and string-pulling by members of three fourth-term English classes had resulted in the vivid puppet version of "A Tale of Two Cities," presented on June 15, 1934, in the auditorium of the Richmond Hill High School.

A 1927 issue of HIGH POINTS contained a brief, pregnant article by Miss Elsa J. Fuchs, of the Thomas Jefferson High School English Department, concerning a dramatization of "A Tale of Two Cities" presented in the English classroom, with costumed Woolworth dolls, wire-propelled, for actors, and a wavering painted cardboard box for the stage. Some of the students involved, especially the "Miss Sylvia" referred to, became keenly interested in the true marionette stage and experimented with jointed bodies, individualized heads, puppet controls and stages. The seed had been sown.

In February, 1934, fresh from Hunter and Radcliffe, new to the ways of John and Helen, "Miss Sylvia" faced her first English classes at the Richmond Hill High School. It was a coincidence that the "A Tale of Two Cities" should be the required text—the temptation was great. For a time she hesitated. A true marionette production might consume too much time and energy. Resolutely she set the idea aside; her first term of teaching should be devoted strictly to becoming acclimated to dealings with classroom problems, lessons and discipline.

However, encouraged by her chairman, Mr. Tresser, she decided to experiment. The students were by no means a select group—not a few were repeating the course. To give the book new significance she suggested that sketches of the faces of the more important characters be made. Those who could not draw were to criticize the sketches for accuracy, referring to the descriptions given by Dickens. An implacable Madame Defarge, a fiery Miss Pross, a trim Mr. Lorry materialized on paper. Then, the story having been finished, the class determined upon the most important characters, and selected the most dramatic scenes in the book. Sketches of costumes, as well as faces, were now made for all the major characters. Then sketches were made for the settings of major scenes. This involved considerable research into contemporary living conditions, especially the homes and furniture of the period.

Since the work had moved smoothly, it seemed most logical to proceed with the puppet show in three dimensions. The students were genuinely aroused; the material was promising. The cast having been decided upon and the major scenes roughly mapped out, the classes were asked to write as an exercise in dramatic form given sections of the story. A committee of five then received these trial scenes, selected, revised, combined, and finally emerged with a play in five acts and seven scenes.

To other committees were entrusted the other phases of the work (general plans for puppeteering were based on directions in the marionette books of Miss Edith Flack-Ackeley, and of Mills and Dunn). One committee made the cotton-stuffed cloth bodies, weighted with lead, following the simple pattern in Miss Flack-Ackeley's book. Another, following the student designs, made the costumes from old scraps of silk and lace and velvet and cotton. Madame Defarge received a fur neckpiece, as prescribed by Dickens, and was equipped with long steel knitting needles (contributed by the Chemistry Department). A fourth committee carefully fashioned the heads and wigs. Two types of head were used: the members of the mob received stuffed cloth heads, colored with crayon; the principals, more meticulously treated, received papier-mâché heads, closely modeled after the preliminary character sketches. Wigs were made of odds and ends—wool, cord, braid, scraps of material. Another committee, headed by Philip and Anthony, made the wooden controls for stringing and manipulating the dolls, and the stage. In all, there were nineteen dolls, a mob of nine, and ten leading characters, averaging eighteen inches in height. With a scale of three inches to the foot, the proscenium opening was six feet long and three feet high.

Simplicity was the keynote. A minimum number of strings was used—five for the women, seven for the men. Two strings were attached to the head, two to the hands, and one to the small of the back. These were fastened to a wooden control like a cross in shape. The women were made to glide along in their wide skirts; the tight-trousered men received two additional feet-strings, attached at the knee and fastened to a separate rod. The scenery, designed and executed by another committee, was untearable and practical. The original sketches were copied in colored crayons on unbleached muslin, large enough to cover the background of the completed stage, and suspended by being tacked to the wooden frame at the back of the stage, a few inches higher than the proscenium opening. Before the performance all scenes were tacked on, one above the other, like the layers of an onion; for a change of setting each was quickly peeled off. Properties, period chairs, tables, benches, a stool and the guillotine, were made by the "Props" Committee.

Work was done after school hours, the various committees being dignified with the unifying title of "The Puppet Guild." Time flew. Two weeks before Regents' tests (work had started after the Easter vacation) rehearsals began. It took one week for the players to learn their parts verbatim; not until then were they allowed to hold the dolls, carefully weighted and strung. One afternoon was enough to master the basic principles of puppet movements; the other afternoons were spent in perfecting entrances and exits, swooning, walking, sitting, battling. The book had come alive—Madame Defarge, even

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as a puppet, was a formidable antagonist, and the Pross-Defarge combat was an unforgettable high-light. Those not engaged as leading manipulators were members of the mob, and muttered and howled and raged and rumbled in true Revolutionary style. In all, over thirty students worked together on the production.

We were fortunate in having the full coöperation of all departments, Miss Johnston of the Art Department, and Mr. Trubenback of the General Shop especially proving staunch allies. To help cover expenses, the Print Shop, under the direction of Mr. Edward Foote, supplied blue and white tickets, which were sold at five cents each. Miss Barber and Miss Schlachter of the Speech Department generously contributed their spotlights to supplement the regular lighting banks of the auditorium stage. To allay any possibility of restlessness in the audience during the changing of scenery, and to add to the Revolutionary Period atmosphere, during intermissions Mr. Leonard F. Manheim of the English Department, accompanied by Mrs. Poetz of the Music Department, sang several French songs actually on the lips of the people during the turbulent years from 1779 to 1792. Back stage, during the play, Louis thundered away (with the aid of the kettle-drum) at the storming of the Bastille; Eugene furnished soft violin music for one scene between Carton and Lucie ("remember there is a man who would give his life to keep a life you have beside you").

From the moment the black-velvet curtains first opened upon the motley gathering in the wine-shop to the time they closed upon the gory guillotine, it is difficult to say who had a keener appreciation of the play—those in front of the curtain in the audience, or those behind, pulling the strings.

SYLVIA J. RUSSELL.
Richmond Hill High School.

City-Wide Activity of Latin Pupils

The Association of Chairmen of Classical Languages in the New York City High Schools has just begun a new movement of coöperation with The Service Bureau for Classical Teachers, New York University, Washington Square East, in order to bring all the Latin pupils of the city into closer relationships. The movement resulted in three different endeavors. The first was a meeting of all the Latin clubs of the city high schools, both junior and senior divisions. The second was an old fashioned Latin vocabulary test for the junior high school students and the first year students of the senior high schools. The third was an exhibition of projects, posters, and objects of art inspired by the study of the Greek and Roman models.

In the first get-together meeting on April 12, in the Judson Auditorium of New York University, there were inspirational talks by Dr. Tonsor, Principal of Grover Cleveland High School; Mr. Greenberg, the Director of Languages of the Junior High Schools, and Profesor Carr of Teachers College, Columbia, Miss Dillon, Principal of Joan of Arc Junior High School, and others. The whole assemblage sang Roman songs and listened to the Latin cheers of some of the Latin Clubs.

On May 28, the old fashioned vocabulary bee was held. Almost thirty schools took part. Morris Horowitz, a 1B pupil of Morris High School, defeated Seymour Rudin of Junior High School 82, the Bronx, by only one point. The first method to eliminate contestants was the old oral manner. Professor Carr pronounced Latin words and the pupils gave the English meanings.

After an hour's competition, eight girls and five boys remained without having made an error. This group then competed in a written test consisting of fifty English words to be translated into Latin. The two boys mentioned above both received a perfect mark. The choice between the two had to be made by an additional test. The committee of Judges consisted of Professor Carr, Mr. Jacob Mann of John Adams High School, Miss Beatrice Stepanek of Eastern District High School, Miss Margaret J. McKelvie of Samuel J. Tilden High School, Miss Isabelle M. Weeks of St. Clair McKelway Junior High School and Mr. Noah Sebarer of Nathan Hale Junior High School, Mrs. Margaret Marshall of Joan of Arc Junior High School, Chairman, and Miss Caroline Dithridge, Manual Training High School. The Committee was aided by Professor Frances E. Sabin and her Staff of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers. The exhibition in The Service Bureau gave many evidences of well constructed posters and Roman objects. There were 140 projects.

Types of Projects

Roman Houses
Roman Camps
Roman Turrets
Catapults, Ballistas, and Scorpios
Scrolls and writing tablets
Roman Chariots
Roman Money
Temples in wood and soap
Roman Mill
Arches carved from soap
Roman Calendar
Roman Soldiers in various sizes
Roman Costumes
A Water Clock
A Roman Road in clay
A large clay model of the "First Triumvirate"
Glass Slides
Roman Galleys
Models of figures, dolls, etc.
Roman Bridge
Roman Monuments and Buildings
Statues—Discus Thrower
Roman Senator
Model—Modern versus Roman Warfare

Posters and Charts:

1. Relation of Latin to other subjects:
   (a) Geometry
   (b) Science
   (c) Language
   (d) Art and Architecture
   (e) Modern Advertising
2. College Seals
3. Stamps
4. Drawings of subjects dealing with Roman Life
5. Maps
6. Illustrated Syntax charts
7. Paintings—scenes, ships

Scrapbooks—derivative, history, stories, book reviews, club activities, debates, poetry, mythology, Caesar, Cicero, Vergil, and Horace.

Editions of Schools Papers.

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Prize Winners

Name of Pupil	*School*	*Object*
Edward Kapal	Newton High	Roman Galley
Donald Giodianio	Jamaica High	Plaque—The Galley, First Triumvirate
Janet Lewis		Roman Turret
Christopher Casserly	De Witt Clinton	Capsa and Scroll
Pearl Feldman	Hunter College H. S.	Series of charts showing relation of Latin to everyday life
Latin Class	Washington Irving	
Harry Blatt	Franklin K. Lane	Series of charts—"The Latin Element in three modern Languages"
Ruth Arming		
Harry Bach		
Harriet Bonowitz		
Toby Kratchick		
Latin Club	Townsend Harris	Series of charts—"Latin and Greek in modern Advertising"
Latin Club	Grover Cleveland	School paper — "The Cleveland Echo"
Morton Spivak	Morris High	Model—"Discus Thrower"

Acknowledgment and gratitude must be paid to Miss Lucy M. Prescott, chairman of the Classical Department of Abraham Lincoln High School for her work in arranging the first meeting and the details of the two contests held in this movement of coöperation. To all the chairmen of the departments and to the teachers whose efforts were so worthily rewarded, thanks must be given.

J. MANN.

John Adams High School.

Relief Work at Annex 48, James Monroe High School

A hungry child cannot learn or succeed in school. That is why Mr. L. B. Smith, Teacher-in-Charge of Annex 48, James Monroe High School, appointed a committee of teachers a few years ago to go into the homes of the children who seemed to be in need, to investigate carefully every case of suspected poverty, and to recommend such remedies as lay within the power of the school to provide. This committee has been doing a great deal more than supplying food, carfare, clothing, shoes, eyeglasses and dental treatment. It has been educating the parents. The work has been done in the free time of the teachers in addition to the usual regular program of teaching.

These visits to the home have been invaluable to the school, the child, and the parent. The school has learned to be more understanding and sympathetic. The child has been cared for and the parent has been supplied with valuable information. He or she has been tactfully approached on matters of cheap and nourishing food, the need for greater care and cleanliness in the home, and the importance of personal cleanliness and appearance.

The school feels and society feels that every child is entitled to food, shelter and clothing. Our investigations showed that many parents were failing, through discouragement or laziness, to provide for their children and had turned to other sources, to the city, to friends, to the school.

It is often necessary to bring home to them that neither the city nor their neighbor, nor the school owes them a living, that temporary or permanent failure to supply their own needs or those of their children is a powerful educating influence in the wrong direction. It weakens their moral fiber, makes them lazy and careless and indifferent. Parents often had to be shown that the money spent on moving pictures should go for bread, that it was unfair to expect the city to pay for the day and night consumption of electricity by a radio, that a telephone is a luxury, that a cheaper apartment and fewer clothes will mean better food.

It was often found that while the parents were comparatively comfortable, the children were suffering from malnutrition and the school was expected to supply the clothes.

In one home, where the mother, abandoned by the husband, was living with two children in a dirty dark apartment back of a coal bin, the radio was going continually, the mother had good silk stockings and expensive orthopedic shoes, the older girl used lip stick and chewed gum. This girl could have stayed with the grandmother in the country, but preferred the city life. This family was later dispossessed and found another place of the same type.

In another home, the mother whom pride forbade to ask for charity was escorted to the proper authority and help was given. The gas and electricity were turned on once more, milk was provided for the baby, temporary food was supplied until the city should have taken over the case, and clothing was gotten from the Red Cross to supply the various members of the family. This mother's gratitude was moving.

A father came to school. He said he was a World War veteran. He did not produce his discharge papers. He asked for food and carfare for his boy. We supplied them until such time as an investigation could be made. The home was visited several times but no one was ever there. Finally, the father came to school in a towering rage and forbade us to visit the home. He appeared to be a strong, able-bodied man. He produced old, worn letters of various kinds, but still no discharge papers. He said, "What do you mean by telling my boy to go out and shine shoes! I don't want him to go out on the streets and work and be a bum!" We told him that we could not continue to give his boy any aid if we were not allowed to investigate the case. The next day the mother came to school. She said that the husband had been adjudged insane after the World War, had been given a disability pension, and on this they had married and raised a family which had since been entirely supported by public charity.

A girl asked for carfare and lunch. Her school work was very poor. It was suggested to her that she change

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her course so as to be in a position to earn her living as soon as possible and to help her family. Her reply was, "I'm going to be a surgeon." It was futile to point out to her the years of training, expense and experience necessary to reach this goal. She admitted that her family was in no position to pay for her education and training. But she was also consistantly unwilling to prepare for a more immediate and realizable goal.

Some of the truths forcibly brought home to the committee are that poverty is nearly always accompanied by shiftlessness or greed or dirt or dishonesty, and often by an unwillingness to work. We provide children with clothing or shoes. Almost never do they come back to say, "Thank you." They do not even reward us with good work at school or attention to their lessons. One boy who was receiving carfare and lunch was continually causing minor disturbances in his classes. Another boy played truant. Another boy who applied for aid and whose family was being cared for by the city was actually a menace and had to be kept under watch.

A very nice quiet boy had been absent a great deal. When he returned to school, his pale face and broken shoes caused us to question him. We immediately set to work to help him. We procured a fine pair of shoes. We saw them on his feet but neither he nor his parents for him expressed gratitude. The next thing was to provide him with a little money and to do this some simple work was offered him. The first day he excused himself from doing the work. The second day, he didn't offer any excuse. The third day, when questioned, he said that his parents had told him not to do the work. They are getting relief from the city.

A mother came to borrow ten dollars. The money was loaned. It was never repaid. It was suggested that her daughter, who was sixteen, mind a small boy an hour or two a day, at thirty-five cents an hour. Her answer was, "My daughter will not be anybody's servant girl."

Now I wish to present a shining exception. Of ten pupils, but one returned to give thanks. One pupil, of the many who have been helped, refused to accept anything until she had earned it. This young girl found her family in dire straights. The father was ill in the hospital, the mother was ill at home. There was no money. The mother and daughter had been running a little notion stand in front of their house but even this meager income had been stopped by the mother's illness. The girl asked to have her program changed so that she could have as much time as possible at home to help her mother. The girl was absent one day to bring the father home from the hospital and a few days later a fire destroyed the place where they were living. Not a word of complaint from the girl. She was big-eyed with perplexity but immaculately clean and tidy in patched, made-over garments. Absence and worry caused her to do poorly in her school work. Appeal was made by the committee to all her teachers, not to harass her or worry her about her poor marks. She steadfastly refused to accept charity, either in the form of carfare, lunch, or clothes. She consented however to work at anything she could do in exchange for a little money. She is a very efficient worker and, in addition, is learning something which may help her, later, to earn a living.

These conditions can be alleviated by a program of adult education which will include all information needed to establish and maintain an adequate home and which will improve the influence of the home and its surroundings on the lives of the children, the proper buying and preparation of food, the proper care of children, their training emotionally, normally, socially, physically, and the proper use of leisure.

A. N. Cushner,
Sol Greenfield.
James Monroe High School.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND COMMENTS

A Study of Results in Regents' Tests in Shorthand

In June the teachers of the shorthand department of Jamaica High School, in addition to their usual analysis of the Regents' papers, made a particular study of the results obtained under the new marking scheme as compared with those which would have resulted under the old scheme. It is because we thought our findings might be of interest to others that we pass them on.

Of the 124 students registered there were 9 failures under the new as compared with 12 that would have occurred under the old.

The range under both schemes was as follows:

	New	*Old*
Highest	98	98
First Quartile	90	92
Median	82	84
Third Quartile	73	75
Lowest	0	13

Under the new schedule 88 marks were lowered; 19 marks were raised; 12 marks remained unchanged.

Of these 88 lowered:

25 students lost 1 credit
17 students lost 2 credits
11 students lost 3 credits
11 students lost 4 credits
8 students lost 5 credits
4 students lost 6 credits
4 students lost 7 credits
8 students lost more

Of the 19 raised:

5 gained 1 credit
9 gained 2 credits
2 gained 3 credits
1 gained 4 credits
2 gained 6 credits

Under each scheme the marks were grouped as follows:

	New	*Old*
90–100	32	41
85– 90	23	22
75– 85	30	33
65– 75	30	16
0– 65	9	12

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Our losses on run-on sentences (particularly the sentence starting "Then" in letter one) amounted to 88% or .71% a paper. This loss, of course, would have been just one half this amount under the old regulations.

Our spelling deductions, of course, were the same under both schemes. Seventy-six such words averaged about 1.22% a paper. Additional spelling deductions due to typographical errors as "sercice" for "service," 32 in all, average about .5% a paper.

The losses due to words being added were:

New—720% or .58% per paper
Old —360% or .29% per paper

Those due to omissions were:

New—322% or 2.6% per paper
Old —161% or 1.3% per paper

Those due to substitutions were:

New—776% or 6.2% per paper
Old —388% or 3.1% per paper

A further analysis of the latter class of erors revealed the losses fell under these headings:

Short Form errors as "of" for "to"	122%
Singular for plural as "assignment" for "assignments"	88
Plural for singular as "classes" for "class"	66
Tense changes as "completed" for "complete"	48
Wrong endings as "Very truly yours" for "Very cordially yours"	24
Vowel omissions as "rule" for "real"	20
Poor loop formation as "advance" for "advanced"	16
Poor sizing as "which is not" for "chosen"	16
Others as "offer" for "have"	376

The losses for minors was 587% or an average of 5% a paper, while those due to typographical errors (such as a high capital) averaged .5% a paper. These, of course, would have been the same under the old scheme.

SHORTHAND DEPARTMENT.
Jamaica High School.

Americas Forging Amity, Says Secretary Hull*

During the last year it has been my privilege to preside over the meetings of the governing board of the Pan-American Union. I have been deeply impressed with the fine spirit of coöperation which the members of the board bring to each and every one of the important problems which they are called upon to consider. It is this spirit of unity, of essential community of interests, which characterizes the discussions and which guides the board in reaching its conclusions. I know of but few, if any, instances in the history of international relations in which higher standards of international dealing have been maintained.

This occasion affords me the opportunity again to emphasize the importance of fostering closer cultural ties between the nations of this continent. Such currents of understanding are essential to the growth of a truly continental system based upon mutual comprehension of purpose and ideals. The interchange of professors and especially the establishment of scholarships and fellowships for students from other American countries are essential factors in furthering this great purpose.

CONTINENTAL "LABORATORY"

I cannot emphasize too strongly the importance of giving more attention in the schools and universities of the United States to the history of Latin America. I am under the impression that in the schools of these republics the fullest attention is given to the history of the United States.

We must devote equally full attention to the history of the Latin-American countries in any instance where we may not be doing so. Their history is full of lessons of great value. To all of us, whether living north or south of the Equator, the record of the development of democratic institutions on this continent is a matter of vital interest. In a sense, this continent has been and is a great laboratory, in which the development of similar institutions, under totally different environmental conditions, is full of instruction both to the student and to the statesman.

No one would accuse me of being unmindful of the importance of developing closer commercial ties between the nations of America, but considering the situation from the point of view of the development of a distinctly American system, based upon mutual confidence and mutual understanding, I cannot escape the conclusion that the establishment of more and more channels of intellectual intercourse is of primary importance.

The commemoration of Pan-American Day this year possesses a special significance for us in the United States. At no time in our history have the relations with our sister republics been on a more firm and sound foundation. Suspicions aroused in the past have been allayed. The recent Pan-American conference at Montevideo marks the beginning of a new era.

CHANCE FOR "EXAMPLE TO WORLD"

We, in the United States, in common with the citizens of the republics of Latin America have every reason to rejoice that this new spirit pervades the continent. The free peoples of the Americas are now in a position to give to the world an example of an international system in which mutual sympathy, fair dealing and constructive coöperation are the guiding principles of international conduct. In so doing, we shall best serve our own permanent interests as well as those of the world at large.

Vocations in Fiction

In the course of a talk to the English teachers on Washington's Birthday of last year, Mrs. May Lamberton Becker said that she had discovered as adviser to readers that one of the chief interests of children in reading was in learning something about the profession which they hoped later to follow. Young people were constantly asking her to send them lists of books about doctors, nurses, lawyers, teachers. She suggested that teachers might urge children to compile bibliographies of such books as were easily available in

* From an address by Secretary of State Cordell Hull, Pan-American Day, 1934, at Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C.)

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a given neighborhood. So many of the published lists include books which are out of print, or are not to be found in the ordinary public library.

This idea had a three-fold interest. First, it promised an opportunity for a coöperative enterprise; second, it touched a vital problem of high school students—that of finding a suitable occupation; third, it might lead some of the reluctant to the pleasures of reading.

Such a piece of work seemed especially suitable for a class of students who did not read for pleasure or whose tastes in reading needed improvement. The idea was, therefore, presented to a third-term class in Walton High School who were in no way unusual, and who, with a few exceptions, enjoyed reading the tabloids and rather cheap mystery stories.

They were at once interested and, with a brief list of titles as a starting point, we begin to work out the two-fold problem of reading books which were interesting and helpful in planning for the future and of passing knowledge about such books on to other readers. In order words, our objective was to compile a bibliography of interest and assistance to all Walton girls.

Their first step, of course, was to declare a choice of profession or vocation. Their choices reflected the usual feminine interests, although one girl chose the career of veterinary surgeon, several the law, one medicine, and two aviation. The usual prerogative of woman, to change her mind, was allowed; a girl might even contribute to several different groups if she chose. Once every two weeks the girls reported orally on their reading, and if a book had been endorsed by at least two readers, the title was selected for inclusion in their bibliography.

Mrs. Becker's pages in the magazines were scanned for advice. Others accepted her invitation to write to her for advice. She delighted them by replying in long hand, giving in many cases very generous lists. It was understood that no girl would write to her unless suitable material could not be secured elsewhere, and only one inquiry could be made about a given vocation. The contents of each letter were shared with the whole group, but the treasure was not allowed out of the possession of the receiver, who in every case valued it highly.

The girls found a willing collaborator in Miss McDonnell, the librarian of Walton. She was never too busy to give the girls advice, or to show interest in their plans. In fact one of the most valuable outcomes of this unit of work was the result of her fine influence: the conviction that librarians were friendly, helpful people and that the library was a pleasant place in which to spend one's time.

As their interest grew the girls decided to write brief reviews of the books they had enjoyed with a view to the preparation of a booklet (to be called *Vocations in Fiction*) for the school library, where it might furnish guidance to the girls of other classes. Each set to work to put down briefly such comments as might be quickly read by others who sought a good book. This was no small problem, for the girls wished in most cases to write too much—often a résumé of the whole book.

It was found best to give definite directions: first, one or two sentences must give the theme of the book or enough of the plot to stimulate a reader; second, one sentence must give the reader's own reaction to the book. Each girl was asked to put herself in the place of a girl in search of a good book and ask about her own report, "Would I have time to read this report? Would it persuade me to take the book out and read it?"

The following are representative reviews:

Mary Roberts Rhinehardt: "The Girl from Scotland Yard."

This story is about a girl detective who is also a nurse. She solves a mystery that baffles the greatest detectives.

It is the best story I have read concerning my vocation, and I think it would be the first book any one should read whose ambition is to become a detective.—*Adele Pollack.*

Booth Tarkington: "Penrod."

Penrod is an amusing tale of a small boy's likes and dislikes and his reactions to both. It is a delightful book, carried all the way by the zest and flavor characteristic of Booth Tarkington.

I found it brought me a better understanding of that dreaded creature called "boy."—*Gertrude Zwenig.*

Erick Berry: "Careers of Cynthia."

Again we meet our charming friend, Cynthia Wanstead, but this time in New York, where she comes to try her artistic hand at illustrating. Her trials, successes, and failures are told in a delightfully humorous manner.

Cynthia's childhood sweetheart arrives in New York, and the story ends with just enough romance to please everyone.—*Lillian Teitler.*

The reviews were given to the teacher first for necessary correction in English. Changes were someitmes made after conferences with the writer, for the opportunity to give help in written expression was a valuable one. The finished product was then turned over to a committee who selected the best of the duplicates (fifteen girls read "Little Citizens"). These were then given to a group who typed them.

The girls decided that it might be helpful to other students in Walton to post a number of these reports on a large bulletin board in a hallway near the library. For this purpose simplicity, brevity, and neatness were essential; and many lessons were learned before these qualities were achieved.

The young artists prepared the captions to attract the attention of those hurrying by. Above the board appeared this one:

GOOD BOOKS: WE KNOW FOR WE HAVE READ THEM.

Below were smaller ones:

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INTERESTED IN ART? THRILLING BOOKS FOR THE DETECTIVE. AVEZ-VOUS BESOIN D'UNE INTERPRÈTE?

For the next Amelia Earhart:

DO YOU FEEL THE LURE OF THE FOOTLIGHTS?

And others similar.

Each review, typed on a separate sheet of paper, was put below the appropriate caption. The girls arranged the board to their own satisfaction and watched with interest the groups jot down a title or two. The response gave them ample reward for their effort.

A competition was then held for the design for a suitable cover of the booklet for the library. The librarian was the judge and chose three instead of one. The girls thereupon decided to make duplicates, two books for the library and one to be given to Mrs. Becker, to whom they dedicated their efforts.

Many of the girls were so enthusiastic that they decided to work during the summer in order to have time to prepare a neater booklet (the end of the term was almost at hand). The leader of the group asked those who were still interested in the Fall to appear at a meeting which she would then call. Twenty-five responded, a surprisingly large number considering the attraction of newer interests which each term holds.

They held several meetings for exchange of opinion and for the collection of book reports. A member of the committee showed me one which had just been turned in and asked with a pleased expression, "Do you remember what a struggle we had with Jane last Spring? Just read this report. Isn't it fine?"

A bold idea occurred to one of the girls to ask Mrs. Becker to come to the school to speak to them. Their chairman was asked to write the invitation. When the answer arrived that she would come during Book Week, their glee was boundless. It was decided to have the meeting in the library and to invite the staff of the school paper, the Modern Literature Club, the Library Staff and others who might be especially interested. Then Miss McDonnell delighted the members of the group further by arranging a tea to be given for Mrs. Becker after the talk and inviting them.

Those who have heard this charming speaker know how much pleasure and information the girls received that afternoon. Her gracious acceptance of the modest booklet warmed their hearts. The leading spirits gained valuable experience: the president in conducting the meeting and in introducing the speaker, others in assisting Miss McDonnell in ushering, and serving tea.

This was, of course, the crowning point in their efforts, but the most enthusiastic of the girls were not content to drop the project then. Their plans are to continue the work until graduation, adding pages to their booklet from time to time and holding meetings occasionally for further exchange of ideas. Although it hardly seems probable that many will remain enthusiastic for longer than another term, they are being given every encouragement to continue as long as their interest holds.

Miss McDonnell reports that the booklet is frequently consulted and since it contains the advice of their contemporaries, is far more seriously considered than a mere teacher's list might be. It seems, therefore, to have been a practical piece of work in encouraging girls to enjoy reading.

In another, and less tangible way, it has seemed worthwhile. The girls have had experience in coöperative endeavor over a period of time for an end which might be considered of some social value.

LYDIA SCHROEDER.
Walton High School.

Books to Read for the High School Tercentenary

Professor E. D. Grizzell, Chairman of the Historical Committee for the celebration of the 300th anniversary of American high schools, has prepared the following bibliography on the secondary schools. Schools sharing in the celebration will find a wealth of material in those books for their memorial activities.

1. Barnard, Henry: American Journal of Education. About 30 volumes. Consult analytical index 1855-1881 for material on schools, schoolmasters, curricula, etc. This is a mine of original materials that may be useful.
2. Belting, P. E.: The Development of the Free Public High School in Illinois to 1860. Springfield (Ill.): Illinois State Historical Society Journal, 1920. This is valuable chiefly for the State of Illinois.
3. Brown, E. E.: The Making of Our Middle Schools. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1902. This is the best single volume on the history of American secondary education.
4. Davis, C. O.: Public Secondary Education. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1917. This has some excellent material but is limited in scope.
5. Grizzel, E. D.: Origin and Development of the High School in New England before 1865. New York: Macmillan Company, 1923. This has a chapter on the Latin grammar school and academy and has some good original material on curriculum, activities, publications, names of schools, etc.
6. Hertzler, Silas: The Rise of the Public High School in Connecticut. Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1930. A very good volume for a state history.
7. Johnson, Clifton: Old-time Schools and School-books. New York: Macmillan Company, 1904. This is an interesting volume and may have valuable suggestions. It emphasizes the elementary school.

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8. Mulhern, James: A History of Secondary Education in Pennsylvania. Lancaster: The Science Press, 1933. This volume has excellent material on the Philadelphia Academy and William Penn Charter School and many others. Also conisderable original illustrations (photographed).
9. Small, W. H.: Early New England Schools. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1914. This is full of source material but unfortunately not well documented. May be very suggestive.
10. Stout, J. E.: The development of the High School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860 to 1918 (Supplementary Educational Monograph Vol. III, No. 3). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921. This is an excellent treatment of curricula for the middle western section since the Civil War. This volume together with No. 5 will supply you with a continuous array of curriculum materials.

—*Release of the Celebration Committee, 300th Anniversary of the American High School.*

MC Spaniards

Hispanic Contacts in New York City

Until one really explores the matter, it is impossible to realize the great quantity of Hispanic atmosphere there is in our big cosmopolitan New York. Among the multitude of advantages in teaching in our city is the great one of being able to push ahead mentally. For here we may reside, eat, worship, study and divert ourselves "en un ambiente español."

There are several distinctly Spanish-speaking settlements: in Manhattan, 110th Street to 116th Street, the Allen Street section of the East Side, and 14th Street and the vicinity west of Seventh Avenue. In Brooklyn, the Atlantic Avenue section near the harbor, the Heights neighborhood near Fulton Street, and the Sands Street section near the Brooklyn Bridge. In these neighborhoods one sees such signs as: "Carnecería," "Barberia," "Grocería," and so on, hears Spanish spoken, and sees Spanish and Spanish-American types. Because these people cling together, they continue to use their native language. Undoubtedly it makes them feel more at home in the land of their exile.

We have a very wide choice of Spanish and Spanish-American places in which to eat. In all of the above-mentioned districts we find eating places of varying degrees of comfort, in some of which we may find not only Spanish menus, but Spanish dishes. There are, besides, a number of isolated restaurants well worth the trying. Alice Foote MacDougal started a very lovely branch called Sevilla on 57th Street near Madison Avenue. As one enters, the effect is of a patio with angles and balconies rather in the South American manner. Penetrating within, we enter little rooms quite Hispano-Moorish in design. Even Child's has felt the Spanish urge and has a little restaurant on 8th Avenue near 49th Street called the "Spanish Mission," and one on 59th Street called the "Spanish Garden." The former is one large room divided by a broad arch in the center. The furnishings are fumed oak, red leather cushions and a bit of iron grill work. In Greenwich Village are several. One is a small and inconspicuous Gallego fonda behind Washington Square College near Broadway. There is little if any atmosphere here in decorations, but one may eat real Spanish food and hear Spaniards on all sides. So, in a way, its atmosphere is more real than artificial. Just east of Park Avenue on 59th Street is the modest but very satisfactory "Segovia" restaurant. The "Gypsy Tavern" is on 8th Street facing south. Perhaps the most lovely of these is "El Chico" in Sheridan Square. Those who spend but 50 cents for a bite should not enter, for the charges are high. So some evening, when we feel very very Spanish and very well-to-do, we can either begin or end with this restaurant. A little lower down, in Sullivan Street, is "In Old Madrid" and "La Sevillana." Down near Hanover Square, on Pearl Street, is "Angel's" where real Spanish food may be indulged in and Spanish fruits and dulces may be purchased to carry home. For men alone there is a sandwich bar called "Chile" at Broadway near 47th Street, where, if one believes in signs, tamales are to be had. At 53rd Street near 7th Avenue is a small place called "Tomos." Then there is the "Fornos" restaurant, on West 52nd Street and the "Café Internacional" on West 50th Street, where men and women are served. Away up-town, in the district near Columbia University, are several quite nice places. One is the Cervantes Restaurant at 116th Street between 7th and 8th Avenues. So, uptown, downtown, all around the town there is no excuse for not trying these Hispanic restaurants.

And what if you wish to do your worshipping in Spanish? There are a great number of Spanish Jews in New York, and one Congregation has a beautiful Temple constantly well attended. There is a Spanish and Portuguese Synagogue at 70th Street and Central Park West. The Spanish Jew is almost as proud of his Spanish heritage as he is of his religion, even though he has not resided in Spain for the past four centuries. For Catholics there is a beautiful classic Spanish church at 156th Street between Riverside Drive and Broadway. It is the church of "Our Lady of Esperanza." It is built in Romanesque style. Its *retablo* is designed with the same dignified simplicity that is found in the various niches for statues. The floor is simply tiled. This church publishes a weekly bilingual magazine so that worshippers in either tongue may be informed of church matters. Confessions are also heard in both languages. In Brooklyn, there is a less beautiful but equally charming Spanish church in Cumberland Street which takes care of the Spanish Catholics of Brooklyn. Protestant churches

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having services in Spanish and other Catholic churches are at times listed in the columns of the New York daily *La Prensa*.

Now, should we care to improve our knowledge of Spanish, we all are familiar with the splendid opportunities offered in extension and graduate courses by our leading colleges and universities in the Metropolitan area. Then there are clubs and "El Circulo Español" of the College of the City of New York is glad to receive visitors at any meeting. The "Casa y Instituto de las Españas" is open to students and friends at Columbia University. The New York Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish welcomes us at its meetings, held at Columbia University the morning of the second Saturday of each month. Then at the Washington Square College of New York University we have "El Círculo Castellano" which meets at 32 Waverly Place. The "Union Benéfica Española" is on 14th Street between 7th and 8th Avenues. The Pan-American Student League holds its conventions at some hotel twice a term.

The Hispanic Society of America has its lovely setting at 156th Street in New York. There, one may see crowns of 7th century Gothic kings, bits of Roman and Punic pottery, a few Iberian pots and jugs, exquisite lustre ware of the 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries, Barcelona glass, carved vargueños, old hand-illumined tomes and first editions, bits of old iron work and samples of tiles from Roman and Moorish days. Then there is one large room devoted entirely to Sorolla's paintings. He has depicted each of the provinces of Spain on some festive local occasion. A very large one, occupying an entire wall, represents a Romería de San Isidro on May 15. In the file of human types Sorolla has depicted peasants from each province of Spain in his or her native costume. Leaving this building, we cross a patio in which is a splendid equestrian statue of "El Cid," and enter a building devoted to modern Spanish painters. Viladrich has a number of works here and one is struck with the realism of his faces. At the Broadway entrance to this group of buildings is the edifice which houses the Heye Foundation of the American Indian. It is well worth while to see the aboriginal art and its later development under the tutelage of Spanish newcomers.

The New York Public Library on 42nd Street not only houses multitudes of Spanish books, but also, in the room devoted to Art and Architecture, it has many volumes on Spanish and Spanish-American art. There are odd Hispanic statues about the city, two of which are especially noteworthy—one of Columbus on the Mall of Central Park, called "Colón español," and one of Bolivar in Central Park at about 80th Street.

Now let us go to the theater in Spanish. At 116th Street and Fifth Avenue is the Campoamor theater, where vaudeville and movie dramas are given. Over in Brooklyn, at 102 Court Street, is the Teatro Gil where we find the "cine parlante" en español. The evening that I attended they were showing "Madame X" very well done by Spanish artists. At times the 55th Street Theater shows a Spanish program. In the Continental Varieties, now playing in the Little Theater, one may see the Spanish dancer, Vicente Escudero, and his troupe. Then, too, the Town Hall and Carnegie Hall often give us treats, such as "La Argentina," the marvelous dancer, and Segovia, the great guitarist. But one must be on the alert for these because they come and go.

Thus we can reside, eat, worship, study and divert ourselves in New York amid Spanish surroundings. Now, let us spend some of our American money in Spanish stores purchasing Spanish merchandise. On Madison Avenue is the Puerto Rican shop where are found articles made in our own Spanish island. A few others are Joseph Victori and Company, Inc., at 164 Pearl Street; Caragol at 7 Water Street; La Bodega Española on West 14th Street and Miss Elizabeth Frank, at 41 Charlton Street, where beautiful Spanish pottery tempts us.

For Spanish music, we go to Shirmers at 3 East 43rd Street or to Ditson's at 8 East 34th Street. Daniel Castellanos, on West 116th Street, handles all Spanish records. If we want flags of the Spanish-speaking countries, let us drop into any ship chandler's in South Street and make our selection; or we can buy them at Macy's.

Spanish books may be purchased at Brentano's, 1 West 47th Street, Stechert's, 31 East 10th Street, Librería Latina, Sands Street, Brooklyn, Librería de Lago, Lenox Avenue and 115th Street, Manhattan, Librería Gomez, 7th Avenue and 13th Street, Perfumes and Books of Spain, a shop at 1369 Fifth Avenue, and other shops. *La Prensa, Las Novedades, El Eco*, and *Spain* (published by the Compañía Transatlántica Española), are all periodicals readily available.

For general Spanish information in our city, the following will help: Centro Latino-Americano y Biblioteca, 67 Broad Street, the Consulate General of Spain, 515 Madison Avenue (here one may obtain booklets on the cities and regions of Spain), Instituto de las Españas, 435 West 117th Street, Pan-American Society, Inc., 67 Broad Street, Oficina de Información de Colombia, 1440 Broadway, Consulado General del Ecuador, 17 Battery Place, and the Hispanic Society of America at 156th Street and Broadway. And if we still hunger for "más ambiente español," we can secure all kinds of pamphlets and publications from Washington, D. C., by writing to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, the Pan-American Union, and the National Geographic Society.

We can secure catalogues and booklets from all the Spanish and Spanish American Steamship Lines such as W. R. Grace and Company, Hanover Square, The Panama Mail Steamship Company, United Fruit Line, Ward

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Line, Panama Pacific Line, Lamport and Holt Line, Pan-American Line, Munson Line, and others.

Surely we are richly supplied, here in New York, with the means to keep alive our Spanish and Spanish-American interests.

ETHEL C. STRATTON.
Isaac Remsen Junior High School.

Child Labor Day, January 26-28, 1935

Following a custom of nearly thirty years, the National Child Labor Committee has designated the last week end of January for the observance of Child Labor Day. The key note this year will be ratification of the Federal Child Labor Amendment.

The abolition of child labor in the major industries of the country through the NRA codes has won universal approval. But the codes are temporary—for the period of the emergency only. It is unthinkable that a single inch of the ground gained during these years of depression should be lost. Yet if the Amendment is not ratified and Congress thus empowered to pass a Federal Child Labor Law, a return of child employment must be expected when the codes expire. As soon as employers are once more free to hire children and pay them as little as they please, "cheap" child labor will flourish again.

For well over a century, effort has been made to control child labor through state legislation. But while some states have forged ahead, others have lagged far behind in measures to prevent child exploitation. Even today there are nine states which, through harmful exemptions in their statutes, permit children under the age of 14 to work in industries, in some cases manufacturing industries, even during school hours. Eight states permit children under 16 to work from nine to eleven hours per day, and eleven states permit children under 16 to work until 8 p. m. or later.

Not even the spectacle of millions of unemployed adults clamoring in vain for jobs which mean bread and butter for their families has induced the states to take children out of the labor market. They fear to take the step alone and thus subject their industries to competition with those of states which still permit "cheap" children to be employed. As recently as 1933 when unemployment was at its peak, bills to raise to 16 years the age for full-time employment were introduced in eleven states and rejected in all but two. But only a few months later when 16 years was established as the minimum age for employment *on a national basis* through the emergency industrial codes, it received the unanimous acclaim of industry everywhere.

Federal legislation applying equally to all parts of the country is the only effective method of securing the permanent elimination of child labor from this country once and for all. Twice Federal Child Labor Laws have been passed, but the United States Supreme Court has held them unconstitutional. The Federal Child Labor Amendment, now before the states for ratification, is merely an enabling act specifically empowering Congress to legislate on the subject.

Child Labor Day is a fitting time to arouse public interest in this measure, which has bene ratified by 20 states. Its progress has aroused those who see their right to employ children placed in jeopardy, and a tremendous campaign of misrepresentation has been launched which must be overcome by making known the correct facts.

The National Child Labor Committee, whose headquarters are at 419 Fourth Avenue, New York City, will send a poster, leaflets and other material on the Amendment on receipt of 25 cents for postage.

The American Museum Looks Ahead

Without doubt the educational work of the American Museum of Natural History is of greater significance to the schools and colleges of New York City than the contributions from any other metropolitan institution. Last year more than 32,000,000 contacts were made with children and adults, most of the recipients being pupils and teachers of the public and private schools of the city and environs.

Dr. Roy Chapman Andrews, the Acting Director, has just announced that plans already completed should insure in this the 66th year of its existence, the most comprehensive educaitonal program the American Museum has ever offered.

Free activities for adults will have a prominent place on the program, including lectures and specially arranged tours of the exhibition halls, courses for teachers, astronomical talks and meetings, copies of indoor nature trails to assist in studying and understanding various halls, and a series of 42 radio talks dealing with each of the 42 halls of the Museum, followed by tours to the halls spoken of in the broadcast. In addition, many interesting exhibits are scheduled to be held in the vast Education Hall of the Museum, such as the Flower Show of the Horticultural Society of New York, the Children's Science Fair, the annual display of beautiful and rare fish by the Aquarium Society, various art exhibits, the exhibition of the New York Microscopical Society, of the A. S. P. C. A., and others. Throughout the year the Museum furnishes rooms for meetings of certain affiliated organizations and speakers, which are usually open to the public. Weekly programs of Museum events may be had upon application.

Although exhibits in the Museum halls are so well labeled that the casual visitor can enjoy and understand them without special guidance, the free guiding service will be considerably enlarged this year. The six general weekly tours conducted by Dr. Smith at 11 and 3 on Wednesdays, Fridays and Saturdays will be continued, but in addition a definite program of trips for adults on six consecutive Saturdays at 3 P. M. has been arranged to study and contrast life habits of vari-

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ous primitive peoples, including the South Sea Islanders, the Eskimos, Pygmies, and Indians of the Americas. The group will leave the main foyer of the Museum at 3 P. M. on Saturdays, starting October 20.

Other free Saturday attractions are programs of motion pictures on history, geography, and nature at 2 P. M., which provide instructive entertainment for old and young.

At 4 P. M. on the four Saturdays from October 20 to November 10 will be offered a new fascinating series of talks on the beautiful Drummond Collection of jades, ivories, ambers and other gems, given by Mr. Whitlock, Curator of Minerals and Gems.

In connection with a new comprehensive radio program of 42 talks covering high spots in each of the Museum's 42 exhibition halls, Mr. Saunders will conduct follow-up tours on the Saturday after his broadcast, for interested listeners who wish to see the exhibits spoken of over the radio. These tours are free to the public and offer a splendid opportunity to become acquainted with all of the halls in general and with some of the most interesting high spots in particular.

The completion of the plans for the Hayden planetarium at the Museum, about which there has been so much publicity this past year, has stimulated popular interest in astronomy, and, accordingly, free ten-minute talks on stars and planets are being given daily, except on Sunday, at 2, 2:30, 3, and 3:30 P. M. in the Eclipse Hall of the Museum.

Dr. Clyde Fisher, formerly of the Education Department of the Museum, has been made Curator of Astronomy. Under his guidance, the Amateur Astronomers Association offers opportunity for adult star-gazers to meet with others of similar interests and to become better acquainted with the heavens. This organization meets on the first and third Wednesday evenings of each month from October to May. The address of the evening, often by a world-famous astronomer, is followed by informal discussion, after which telescopes are placed at the entrance of the Museum for outdoor star-gazing. Many eminent astronomers are interested in this organization, but it is primarily for the amateur and layman.

Ten free lectures on biologic science on Tuesday afternoons from October 2 to December 11 offer much of interest to biology students of any age, as well as to the layman. A new plan has been followed this year in dividing the course into two sections, the first for elementary biology and general science, and the second for advanced biology. Opportunity will thus be given to hear world-known authorities speak in their special fields.

The Museum will coöperate with the colleges and universities of the city more extensively than ever before. Five free courses for teachers will be given in coöperation with the College of the City of New York, and four courses for teachers in conjunction with New York University. "Alertness" and college credit will be allowed for each course. Adults other than teachers may take the course upon the payment of a fee. Museum members are admitted free to courses given in coöperation with City College.

An entirely new offering in this group is the course in "Applied Physiology and Health," dealing with the origin, development, functions, and care of the human body. Lectures will be given by Dr. G. Kingsley Noble and his assistants in the Museum's department of Experimental Biology, as well as a special lecture by Dr. William K. Gregory of the department of Comparative Anatomy. Thos who take this course will thus have the advantage of geting the results of interesting original research by Dr. Noble and Dr. Gregory, and in addition will have the privilege of working directly with Museum exhibits in the Public Health hall and the new hall of Anatomy of Man.

"Nature Study for Teachers," given in coöperation with the College of the City of New York, is designed to help teachers who have been appointed nature curators in their schools, and also teachers of elementary biology, to recognize specimens in field or laboratory, and to learn something of the interdependence of organisms in nature.

Other courses carrying City College credit as well as "alertness" credit are "The Museum in Elementary Social Studies" and "Mechanics of Visual Instruction." The first is designed to show elementary school teachers and supervisors how to use Museum materials and exhibits in specific units of work in the social studies. The latter coaches teachers in the operation of visual instruction apparatus used in the schools, such as the stereopticon, motion picture projectors (including 16 mm. sound film) and opaque and micro-projectors. Individual laboratory work allows each teacher practical experience in the handling of apparatus.

A new offering among the four courses in coöperation with New York University is a "Survey of Natural History for Teachers," with lectures by leading members of the Museum staff. It will deal with common questions pertaining to the various fields of natural history, the work of recent expeditions under the direction of The American Museum of Natural History, and related exhibits available at the Museum.

"Astronomy for Teachers," also in coöperation with New York University, is a cultural course for all teachers or any adult student interested in the subject. Observations with telescopes will be made.

"The Museum in Elementary Education" and "Primitive Culture" complete the group of academic courses in coöperation with New York University.

A number of popular courses in natural history, including astronomy, crystallography, insect life, seashore and pond life, birds, and geology will be given by well known authorities at the Museum in conjunction with New

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York University's program of Adult Education.

The various activities for children which have been so successfully carried on for many years through the Museum's department of education will be continued with important additions. Free lectures, illustrated with motion pictures and colored slides, on geography, history, nature, and industries will be given for school children on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday mornings from October 8 to December 7. Exhibition hall talks are offered classes from the public schools. These consist of a short introductory talk in the Museum classroom by the Museum instructor, followed by a visit to the exhibits correlated with the talk. A new feature of this series will be a Special Activity Program, affording the child unusual opportunity for self-expression along artistic natural history lines. The Special Activities will include Finger Painting as a medium of free expression of the child's impressions in the Museum and of his allied emotions and reactions in the outside world of nature; Nature Crafts, in which the children will create artistic nature designs and objects, modeling, blue-printing, and spatter-printing. The third Special Activity will be a class in the technique of making miniature groups of various natural history subjects, such as various races of people in their natural habitat, or of animals in native surroundings. This is a new venture for the Museum and it is hoped will stimulate interest in natural history and science as well as encourage original, artistic expression and appreciation of nature's forms and designs.

In this connection Dr. Andrews has stressed the desire of the Museum to coöperate with artist visitors who wish to copy exhibits. Chairs and drawing boards will be furnished free of charge.

For many years the American Museum has maintained a special fund for its work with children who are blind or suffer from defective sight. These Sight Conservation classes will be continued by arrangement with each teacher, giving children thus handicapped an opportunity in the Museum classrooms to handle and "see" with their fingers, Museum objects, from a butterfly to a bear, or from a rock to a mass of freshly spun silk.

The Museum sponsors two science clubs for young people: the Junior Astronomy Club and the Thoreau Nature Club. The former, now in its sixth year, and open to all boys and girls between ten and eighteen years upon payment of a nominal membership fee, has a program of unusual interest for the coming season. Meetings are held on the first and third Saturday night of each month from October to June. Talks on Astronomy are given by members of the club and by guest speakers who often are famous astronomers. All young people interested in astronomy are cordially invited to attend these meetings and to join the club if they wish. The club has just issued a Handbook of the Heavens, a simple guide for exploration among the stars, written and edited by club members, with a foreword by Dr. Harlow Shapely of the Harvard Observatory.

The Thoreau Nature Club has been recently organized to stimulate and direct boys and girls of high school age who are interested in natural science. It offers a program which appeals to a variety of interests, and attempts to promote individual initiative among its members. Its program is outlined by the club itself and guided by the Museum. The activities consist of amateur original research and study followed by the report of such endeavors at the club meetings, definite field studies by small groups who report to the club, general field trips by the entire club, studies to familiarize the group with the resources of the Museum, and with lectures by guests invited by the club. The meetings will be held regularly on alternate Saturday afternoons at 2:30 P. M., starting October 6th.

Another interesting series of 4 talks has been arranged for children of members on alternate Saturday mornings, commencing October 27. Captain Bob Bartlett, Dr. Roy Waldo Miner, and Dr. Raymond L. Ditmars will speak on this course.

All of these projects, new and old, are the outgrowth of ideas and plans formulated and built up under years of devoted supervision of the Director of the Museum, Dr. George H. Sherwood, who also served in the capacity of Curator of the Department of Education. To him, more than to any one else, should be given the credit for the inception and development of the Education Department of the Museum, with its ramified activities and growing usefulness to education in this great city.

PAUL B. MANN,

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REVIEWS

Education in Latin America

By Henry Lester Smith, Ph.D., and Harold Littell, Ph.D., American Book Company, 1933.

The psychological tendencies of peoples may be determined through an examination of their respective educational systems. "The school system in every civilized country is organized to perpetuate and to provide for the development of a national government and a national culture. We do well to study the school systems of the world as one of the ways of understanding the peoples who have organized and supported them."

In these days when, on our part, a growing interest is being generally manifested in our neighbors to the south,—and to the south-east,—and

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we are bound more closely to them and to their development through increased trade relations, we watch more carefully their economic progress, we study their social problems, and we follow closely their achievements along cultural lines. A thorough acquaintance with their educational systems, however, does not as yet in general prevail.

Hence, it is no small task that the authors have attempted in bringing out this compendium on the educational systems of the Latin-American republics, for they have had to depend largely upon such material as was available in authoritative historical and geographical sources, in the reports and other publications issued by the various ministries of education, and in United States government reports, magazines, and newspapers, including the Bulletin of the Pan American Union. Through the experience acquired by one of the authors as Superintendent of Schools in the Panama Canal Zone, they were aided in arriving at the solution of many of the different problems that confronted them. With the one end in view, namely, "to give to the student interested in world progress some conception of the educational contributions which those countries located in the tropics and beyond have to offer," the authors,—notwithstanding their statement that the descriptions of the educational systems are in no sense complete, inasmuch as they maintain that a full account of any one of them would have entailed many more pages than this present volume contains,—have well succeeded in achieving their objective by presenting in a concise manner a wealth of information on the educational endeavors of the twenty Latin-American countries and their amazing progress along these lines during the past two decades.

In this volume of twenty chapters, a chapter is devoted to each of the Latin American republics. A full-page diagram in each chapter outlines the departments of the government in control of the respective school systems as well as the types of educational institutions and their relationships, thus giving an accurate picture of the organization in each of the countries. The geographical location, the topography of the land, the type of population, the inherent characteristics of the people, the dominant religious convictions, the political and historical development of the nation, the economic and social factors are reviewed at the beginning of each chapter to acquaint the reader with the country itself before proceeding to a study of its educational activities. This knowledge is essential for a more complete understanding of the people and their institutions. Each chapter deals with the background of education, educational administration and control, elementary and secondary education, teachers and teacher training institutions, special types of educational activity, higher education, and closes with a comprehensive summary.

To make this edition further stimulating as a text-book and guide, the authors have appended at the close of each chapter a series of suggested questions and problems, followed by a number of selected reading references bearing upon the country studied, thereby affording thought-provoking material for interesting discussions in the class-room.

The authors maintain that education in Latin America has been determined largely by two factors, "both of which have been dominantly instrumental in the shaping of the intellectual destiny of the twenty republics. These factors are the geographical location of the several countries themselves, and the racial characteristics of the people. . . ."

In the introduction a survey of the general aspects of the educational field in Latin America is given, and it may be well to quote from a few of the outstanding observations:

"Schools and school systems in the southern republics have, until recent years, been instituted by and for the upper classes. The lower classes have had few educational advantages. The great middle class has been conspicuous by its absence, and only of late have these nations become convinced that the one thing needed most to set their social structure aright, is a middle class of inhabitants upon which to build a solid and secure foundation.

The school plant of Latin America, generally speaking, is a rented concern. A large percentage of both the rural and urban schools carry on in property not owned by the state.

School administration, once left entirely to private control, chiefly to the church, is now a function of the state. Every republic in Latin America today has its Minister of Education; and every Minister of Education is a member of his chief executive's cabinet.

The university, organized as it is in Europe and the United States, is practically unknown in Latin America. Professional schools, once separate and distinct institutions, but in more recent years uniting under a single administrative head, form the bases for higher education in these southern republics.

Teacher training institutions, formerly nothing more than girls' secondary schools, are gradually becoming more like the same type of institution found in the better equipped countries of the Northern hemisphere.

The Latin-American secondary school, run exclusively as a preparatory center, is modeled after the same grade of school found in the more progressive European countries. The vocational and industrial types of the secondary institutions have an entirely different classification in a majority of these republics and fall in the category of special schools.

Primary education, the name given to all elementary school activities, forms the pillar of the educational structure of Latin America. It is through the medium of this institution that all classes—adults and chil-

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dren alike—are today being reclaimed from the depths of illiteracy and ignorance.

Pre-school education has had its ups and downs, and up to the present time has not advanced far. Educational effort and finances are too badly needed in the crusade to eradicate illiteracy among the older children and the adults to divert it into the nursery and kindergarten channels.

But Latin America has experienced a great twentieth century awakening. Its leaders, educational and otherwise, are thinking and acting. Education is no longer considered a privilege belonging only to the élite."

It is interesting to note the direction of education, especially in countries like Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay whose progressive educational systems are representative:

"The recent trend in the curricular development of the elementary schools of Chile has been to add those subjects which are of a practical nature and help to tie the school to the home, rather than to hold strictly to the old type of subject matter which prepared only for the *liceos*."

To this end, new regulations for remodeling the secondary school system in Chile, in accord with well studied aims, were set up by presidential decree in 1929, and among which were:

"Secondary education should care for the physical development of the child; it should develop habits, ideals, interests, and attitudes which prepare the child better for economic life; it should make the child a more efficient social being that he may make the most of his environment; and it should develop in the child the highest aspects of personality by the proper use of his leisure time."

The government in Chile has established experimental schools of all grades. Among these are schools for adults, rural community schools, a home school for the homeless, an open-air school for the anemic and the tuberculous, and the City Experimental School of Santiago. There are also special types of schools like the Dalton and the Montessori, and schools for mentally subnormal children.

Chile may also boast of excellent teacher training institutions offering programs which can be regarded as distinct contributions and might be studied with benefit by nations the world over.

A thorough and worthwhile attempt in adult education is likewise being carried on in Argentina. Schools for adults are maintained in conjunction with elementary schools, in connection with government activities, such as the army and navy, in the penal and correctional institutions, and in some of the higher institutions of learning. The "People's University," a part of the University of Litoral, was instituted in 1930, with an enrollment of four thousand men and women for the first term. More than sixty courses are offered ranging from elementary school subjects to those of university grade.

Vocational training is placed among the objectives to be achieved by the general education reform movement in Chile. In a recent address the chief executive of the country said:

"The principal object of the present educational reform is to orient and adapt education to the needs of production and to the general growth of the country. . . . Thus at sixteen the pupils in the elementary course may leave school with special preparation for a trade and industry." This type of education is also being attempted in Argentina, Brazil, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, Ecuador, Uruguay, Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, Mexico, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, and Cuba.

Further interesting discussions on special topics like child welfare, co-education, commercial education, compulsory education, higher education, illiteracy, juvenile delinquency, kindergartens, libraries, museums, conservatories, and night schools, as related to the various countries of Latin America, may be found in this text.

This volume will prove illuminating to all who may be interested in the progress of educational movements, as well as in Pan-Americanism. It is especially recommended to instructors in history, economic geography and Spanish, and to the faculty leaders and members of the Pan-American Student Clubs as a source book of information. "The student of education in the United States or in any other part of the world who reads this book will gain an understanding and appreciation of the progress that has been made in the development of education in the South American republics particularly during this century. He will gain, as a result of his reading, a livelier appreciation of the contribution which these people have made and may be expected to make to the advancement of civilization."

LEAH W. KAHNHEIMER.
Benjamin Franklin High School.

The Life and Times of Marc Antony

By Arthur Weigall, late Inspector General of Antiquities for the Egyptian Government. Putnam.

"The Life and Times of Marc Antony," by Arthur Weigall, affords some new slants on the characters and events that crowded this most interesting period of Roman History.

From the introductory chapter, which deals with the advent of political violence in Rome in 134 B.C., to the closing paragraph when the world sceptre slips from the hands of the dying Antony, the reader will find few if any dull moments. While not intended primarily for students, the book is of great value to the teacher. It has for its distinguishing features a novel point of view and an intimate and interesting treatment of the chief actors, their roles and settings.

Catiline is no longer the rabid radical of Cicero's invective, but rather a misguided reformer. The agrarian trouble, which the Gracchi had tried to solve, with its bug-bear of cheaper corn from the provinces, is depicted

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as not dissimilar to the Farm problem of today.

There are colorful pictures of the Rome into which Antony was born—"An uncivilized city where both butchers and the butchered were educated, but in which only the obscure were sure of surviving a change of government."

The close-ups of the characters are good and afford intimate glimpses. Sulla has a besotted complexion, "mulberry sprinkled with flour." Caesar is an "ill-girt young man," Pompey "a great gentleman." Cicero is depicted as "a man who uses more soft soap than honest wine." His boast, "O happy fate of Rome to date her birthday from my consulate," had become a bore to his friends. The account given of Antony's character and career will prove of interest to the teacher who would interpret the Philippics.

He is popular with the army and, incidentally, after the enthusiasm of Caesar's first victories in Gaul had been replaced by an unhealthy scepticism on the part of the Romans, he is indispensable to his chieftain. A born gambler, he stakes all on one throw of the dice. After the defection of Labienus he risks both his own and Caesar's fortune by embarking for Greece in the face of Pompey's hostile navy. Nor does the young Hercules ever mature. He wins Caesar's displeasure by his wild parties, his riotous living and his nudist deportment at the feast of the Lupercal.

Caesar's death reveals some of Antony's better qualities. He is brave. Unarmed he wins Lepidus and his army, as Napoleon was later to win Ney on his escape from Elba. He braves assassination repeatedly. Philippi is most properly Antony's victory. Octavian spent that day in bed, ill with one of his incessant colds contracted in spite of his multitudinous tunics.

Power makes Antony extravagant. He is a Hellenized potenate rather than a Roman magistrate. His cook is given the whole plate at a banquet as a tip.

The Cleopatra episode is well portrayed from the meeting in Rome as Caesar's wife to the final dénouement. Those who would learn how a lover's quarrel can change the course of history should read Weigall's description of Actium. It is only when the curtain rings down on the dying Antony that one wonders what he might have achieved had not the lure of the East won him from the path of duty to his countrymen.

To those who would make interesting running commentaries on the characters and events of the Latin or Ancient History recitation period this book is recommended.

T. P. O'LOUGHLIN.

Samuel J. Tilden High School.

Secondary Education

By Thomas H. Briggs. Macmillan.

In many respects, this is a unique discussion of secondary education in America. For one thing, it has a point of view. It is not content merely to describe current practices, but actually attempts a definition of secondary education, its special functions in a democracy, and the direction it must take if it is to fulfill these functions. For Dr. Briggs, education is not a privilege. It is a vital necessity upon which is predicated the very survival of our present institutions. Mass articulateness, and the solidarity that comes with a universal sharing of common ideals and traditions—these are the bed-rock of our national government, and of our social continuity. The secondary school, to Dr. Briggs, is not merely a half-way house between elementary school and college. It is a distinct organism with purposes peculiar to itself, and these purposes of vast social import. Secondary education is a great "investment", as Dr. Briggs has elsewhere pointed out. The public has a right to realize dividends on this investment in the form of a loyal, intelligent, harmoniously developed, and ever-progressing citizenry. It is unconscionable to expect less. In chapters XIII and XIV, Dr. Briggs lists these ten special functions of secondary education. The statement of these purposes is so highly condensed, and so rigorously precise, that a paraphrase of them is virtually impossible in this limited review. No one else, as yet, has attempted or achieved so clear and so plausible a definition of the functions of secondary education. These purposes are by no means ultimate. Dr. Briggs offers them merely as tentative sign-posts in the wilderness that is today secondary education. No sensible progress can be made, in any phase of secondary education, without some such charting of the way. In fact, the direction of secondary education must be determined by some concept of special functions. Dr. Briggs' contribution is a welcome necessity.

Nowhere else in educational literature has anyone expounded with such detailed emphasis the influence of the emotions in the life of the individual, as has Dr. Briggs in this volume. Most theorists are still victims of a rationalist philosophy which places the emotions at the mercy of the intellect. Dr. Briggs, more than Kilpatrick, whose theory of concomitant learning is somewhat akin to Dr. Briggs', has veered very radically from this concern with intellectual education. To him, emotions, not ideas, rule the human roost. Pure thought is a figment, or at best, a rarity. It is "emotionalized attitudes," or ideas, that control thinking, integrate the individual with his social environment, act as stimulants, further thought and action, and almost solely control and predict intellectual and emotional receptivity. Since education seeks to produce social solidarity among a people, the rôle of the emotions in welding the mass into uniform feeling and action cannot be minimized. "Demagogy" and "emotional regimentation" are frequent objections to this proposed scheme for producing likemindedness. But this is the cry of those who are deluded into thinking that national

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consistency is a spontaneous growth. The amazing hold that Stalin, Hitler, and Mussolini exert over their followers is ample refutation that this is not so. In these countries, every possible means is taken to condition the masses into a frenzied and unquestioning approval of the status quo. These excesses need not manifest themselves in a temperate and intelligent government. But some such procedure must be embarked upon if the state is not to spend its billions for naught. Purblind devotion to the state is not a necessary corollary. Nor is the stamping out of free, critical opinion. But certainly, cultural and social unity are not even conceivable without some program which seeks fundamental unanimity among its peoples. The school has its part to play in this process, and a very important one it is, too. For it, more than any other social agency is fitted to organize the vast emotional resources of youth in the interest of a more deeply meaningful citizenry. Dr. Briggs makes a distinctly valuable contribution here by offering some specific suggestions and procedures. He points out that emotionalized attitudes are inevitable in our students. They virtually breathe them in with the air. It is not a question of "shall we inculcate (or indoctrinate, if you will) emotionalized attitudes? The crucial point is: what and how?" Dr. Briggs has an answer. It may not be the only one —but it is feasible, consistent, and workable.

Dr. Briggs makes a similar point with reference to our current mores, insisting that here the schools have neglected an opportunity for performing invaluable social service in making pupils conscious of American traditions and customs.

Of particular interest is Dr. Briggs' incisive analysis of the issues in secondary education. There are only ten of these issues listed, but they split our whole educational system wide-open, and reveal it to be crawling with contradiction, another instance of how our vast educational institutions have aimlessly sprawled to a questionable maturity. There is enough here to shock every thinking educator out of complacency, and goad him to intelligent action.

The chapters on "Interests as Liberal Education" deserve more than passing mention, for they, too, reveal a very vital deficiency in our school systems, which fail to generate, in the individual, interests of an abiding and absorbing nature. The school must aid the individual in finding himself emotionally and spiritually, in some phase of the fascinating diorama of existence. And his interests should give him tentacles with which to reach out and apprehend the larger universe. On this point, Dr. Briggs is highly suggestive and practical.

Chapters I-VI contain a birds' eye view of secondary education in other countries, and a good historical account of the development of secondary education in America. The new demands made by a rapidly changing world on the curriculum are discussed with great pertinence in chapter VII. Chapters VIII and IX are devoted to the characteristics of adolescence. Practically all of the most recent findings in this field are here competently surveyed.

This is not a fair review. No summary can begin to do justice to the richness, clarity, and scope of Dr. Briggs' work in "Secondary Education". The book must be read in toto, for it is not padded. A scrupulous verbal economy marks this whole treatment throughout. A life-time of mature meditation over the problems of American secondary education has been crystallized here. It has salt, brevity, vision, balance and immediate relevance to our present vexations.

Few fields offer such opportunities for a romping, critical sense as American education today. And yet, Dr. Briggs has refrained from mere destructive criticism. Where his castigations have left the flesh a little raw and quivering, he has applied the emollient of gentle constructive procedure. For he is interested, above all, in assisting American education to the realization of its immense possibilities. Its present failure is due to a lack of planning, a confusion of purposes and ideals, an uncertainty as to what it is and what it is meant to be. Dr. Briggs points the way out and offers his plan.

The role of Sybil is a very difficult one, and perhaps an arrogant one, too. But we venture on a prophecy, that when Time has ruthlessly winnowed the stacks of educational literature, Dr. Briggs' "Secondary Education" will have withstood its ravages.

A. H. Lass.

The Child

By M. F. Nimkoff. J. B. Lippincott. $2.50.

This book is divided into two parts. Part I treats in some detail of the physical, mental and emotional development of the child. Part II deals with the development of the social personality of the child through family, play, school, work, religion, and esthetics. Dr. Nimkoff's approach is the genetic one, so much the vogue today in child study. He looks at the child as an evolving organism moulded by the interaction of heredity and environment. He gives no unqualified allegiance to any school of thought, choosing the best and the soundest from each.

The artist's intuitions have often outstripped scientific progress. In child psychology this has been particularly true. For only in recent years have scientists come to recognize that the child is father to the man. And this maxim has been the guiding force in the vast exertions applied to the early, formative years of childhood. Dr. Mimkoff's insistence on the all-important character of childhood thus aligns him with the most progressive thought in this field.

While by no means frothy, Dr. Nimkoff is easily readable. He records

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the intricate and fascinating story of the child's development in a simple, lucid style.

We recommend its sound scholarship and its comprehensive yet terse presentation to those interested in child phychology. It is not a masterpiece, but it is a worthwhile, creditable piece of work, wholly unmarred by those devices which might have made of it a best-seller.

A. H. L.

Psychology

By Robert S. Woodworth. Third Edition. Holt, $2.50.

Dr. Woodworth's point of view has not changed materially since this text first appeared in 1921. He is still the reserved eclectic, presenting his evidence with a take-it-or-leave-it attitude. He possesses none of the partisan fire so characteristic of the "school" writers. Dr. Woodworth grinds no special axe. He has been content through the years to stand quietly by, waiting for the voice of truth to be heard over the clamor that has issued from the embattled psychological camps. And so, never actually taking sides, he has been able to present an unbiased and an orderly account of human psychology.

In this new edition, some of the tenets of the Gestaltists, the Freudians, the Adlerians, and the Jungians are given a grudging recognition. For Dr. Woodworth leans noticeably toward the older psychologies both in method and in temper.

Dr. Woodworth's "Psychology" is still one of the soundest, meatiest, and sanest treatises on the market. This new edition has relegated the footnotes to the end of each chapter, where they belong.

A. H. L.

Leadership Among High School Pupils

By Marion Brown. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. Cloth, $1.75.

In an attempt to determine the qualities possessed by high school pupil-leaders, Dr. Brown fine-combed two hundred and fifty-nine of these leaders in a California high school. She found that these pupils generally conform to the familiar pattern: high scholarship, high intelligence, occupational status of parent above average, wide diversity of interests and activities, and so forth. Her conclusions confirm what we would expect to find in our school leaders.

But Dr. Brown goes beyond the mere enumeration of the characteristics of those who take a prominent part in school affairs. She suggests that much of this valuable material is going to waste through inept and negligent use of extracurricular activities. For it is through these activities that the qualities of leadership are strengthened and developed. Educational authorities have not even scratched the surface here, she contends. The vast outlays for extramural work are not being directed into proper channels. We are developing leaders in a hit-or-miss fashion. Dr. Brown feels that the schools must embark upon a more conscious, more articulate program for the nurture of leaders among the student body. The tendency in our mass education has been to spend far too much time and money on the mediocre and the underprivileged, hopefully assuming that the leaders would take care of themselves. Dr. Brown's work will serve to bring into focus the true plight of the brilliant child with an urge to lead, and will, perhaps, offer counsel to those who belatedly want to apply themselves to the difficult task of helping the aggressive, forward-looking student find himself in some meaningful activity.

Dr. Brown suggests that leaders be given individual guidance so that they may realize themselves most fully, and so that their development may not be one-sided. She adds, too, that extracurricular activities should be flexibly organized with a view to individual needs.

We earnestly recommend this study to your attention. It is needlessly numerical, at times, and decidedly sparse in its constructive recommendations, but it is eminently worth looking into. For this whole problem of leadership in our schools is one that has received pitifully scant attention. The notion that our schools exist to give each individual the fullest opportunity to grow in stature and depth has been more honored in the breach than the observance. We seem to have forgotten that the doctrine of individual differences also applies to the superior student. Only lately have we come to the realization that unless we train our leaders we will not have them; or, at least, we will not have the kind of leaders we want.

A. H. L.

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HIGH SCHOOL DIRECTORY

Borough of Manhattan

High School	*Address*	*Principal or Teacher-in-Charge*	*Admin. Assistant*	*Telephone*
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN	309 E. 108th St. (P. S. 172)	Leonard Covello	Abraham Kroll	Lehigh 4-2719
Annex, P. S. 53	211 E. 79th St.	Morris Deshel*		Butterfield 8-2241
GEORGE WASHINGTON	192nd St. and Audubon Ave.	Arthur A. Boylan	Max Schottland	Wash. Hts. 7-1841
Annex, P. S. 98	212th St. and Broadway	Julia K. Ross*	Carolyn L. Swett	Lorraine 7-6744
Annex, P. S. 187	Northern Ave., north of 187th St.	Frances E. Jones*		Wadsworth 3-7300
HAAREN COOPERATIVE	10th Ave., 58th and 59th Sts.	R. Wesley Burnham	Edward O. Dewing	Columbus 5-5049-50
Annex, P. S. 10	St. Nicholas Ave. and 117th St.	Paul Frabbito*	Kate M. Monro	Monument 2-4512
Annex, P. S. 67	120 West 46th St.	Frank J. Arnold*		Bryant 9-2033
Annex, P. S. 69	125 West 54th St.	Alson B. Upham*		Circle 7-5262
Annex, P. S. 109	215 East 99th St.	Philip J. Pincus*		Sacramento 2-6540
H. S. OF COMMERCE	65th and 66th Sts. west of B'way	Edward J. McNamara	Chas. J. Lagerwall	Trafalgar 7-5832
Annex, P. S. 58	317 West 52nd St.	C. Earl Wallace*	John D. Minnick	Columbus 5-3287
JULIA RICHMAN	2nd Ave. E. 67th and E. 68th Sts.	Michael H. Lucey	Frank Bailey	Regent 4-5640
Annex, P. S. 18	121 East 51st St.	Genevieve A. Hayes*	Anna Goldberg	Plaza 3-4577
Annex, P. S. 77	1646 First Ave.	Mildred L. Sanborn*		Regent 4-5520
Annex, P. S. 70	213 East 75th St.	Edna K. Franklin*		Butterfield 8-1823
Annex, P. S. 183	419 East 66th St.	Gertrude E. Reier*		Regent 4-6138
SEWARD PARK	Grand St., bet. Essex and Ludlow Sts.	Robert B. Brodie	Anthony W. Klein	Orchard 4-1514-15-16
Annex, P. S. 2	116 Henry St.	John Goldhaar*	Edna Lewinson	DryDock 4-1699
Annex, P. S. 4	203 Rivington St.	Philip Leight*		DryDock 4-1568
Annex, P. S. 22	104 Sheriff St.	Maxwell L. Heller*		Orchard 4-4151
Annex	Hawthorne School, Westchester Co.			
STUYVESANT	15th and 16th Sts., west of 1st Ave.	Sinclair J. Wilson	John P. Clarke	Algongquin 4-3140-1
			Frank C. Panuska	
TEXTILE	East of 9th Ave., bet. W. 18th and W. 19th Sts.	William H. Dooley	Marcella A. Bartley	Chelsea 3-3848
			Leo V. E. Coughlin	
Annex, P. S. 26	124 West 30th St.	James A. Biggs*		Pennsylvania 6-2286
Annex, P. S. 48	124 West 28th St.	Jessie W. Hughan*		Longacre 5-3158
Annex, P. S. 186	521 West 145th St.	Austin G. Clark*		Edgecombe 4-3422
Annex	60 West 13th St.	Ethel G. Oakley*		Algongquin 4-3468
WADLEIGH	114th and 115th Sts., west of 7th Ave.	Stuart H. Rowe	Caroline Coman	Monument 2-8312-3-4
Annex	W. 135th St. and St. Nicholas Ter. (New York Teachers' Training College Building)	Arthur J. Roberts*		Bradhurst 2-1190
Annex, P. S. 179	102nd St. East of Amsterdam Ave.	Eleanor S. Doty*		Academy 2-8662
WASHINGTON IRVING	Irving Pl., 16th and 17th Sts.	Edward C. Zabriskie	Mary H. Johnson	Algongquin 4-3776
			Elizabeth F. Pratt	

* Teacher-in-charge

Borough of The Bronx

High School	*Address*	*Principal or Teacher-in-Charge*	*Admin. Assistant*	*Telephone*
DE WITT CLINTON	Mosholu Pkwy., bet. Gaynor and Sedgwick Aves.	A. Mortimer Clark	Frank A. Boylan	Kingsbridge 6-8300
			Placido Zingaro	
Annex, P. S. 87 (Man)	77th St. and Amsterdam Ave., Manh'n.	Oscar W. Anthony*		Endicott 2-0024
Annex	120 East 184th St.	Herman E. Mantel*		Raymond 9-2252
EVANDER CHILDS	Gun Hill Rd. and Barnes Ave.	Hyman Alpern	John A. Donohoe	Estabrook 8-5900
Annex, P. S. 19 (old)	234th St. and Kepler Ave.	George H. Van Tuyl*	Katherine Cunniffe	Fairbanks 4-1312
Annex, P. S. 104	Shakespeare Ave. and 172nd St.	Clayton G. Durfee*		Jerome 7-8546
JAMES MONROE	172nd St. and Boynton Ave.	Henry E. Hein	Israel Appell	Tivoli 2-3600
Annex, P. S. 14	3041 Eastern Blvd.	Benjamin Strumpf*	Anne D. Cashen	Westchester 7-3947
Annex, P. S. 29	Cypress Ave. and 135th St.	Jacob Feldman*		Mott Haven 9-8877
Annex, P. S. 48	Spofford Ave. and Faile St.	L. Brewster Smith*		Dayton 9-7582
Annex, P. S. 66	1001 Jennings Street	Fred Schoenberg*		
Annex, P. S. 102	Archer St., Taylor and Theriot Aves.	Samuel Schuman*		Underhill 3-1517
MORRIS	166th St., near 3rd Ave.	Elmer E. Bogart	Ralph W. Haller	Kilpatrick 5-5100-2
Annex, P. S. 30	141st St. and Brook Ave.	Emma B. Bryant*	Charlotte C. Knox	Mott Haven 9-3493
Annex, P. S. 43	Brown Pl. and 135th St.	John A. Hess*		Mott Haven 9-3989
Annex, P. S. 58	176th St. and Washington Ave.	John J. Conway*		Tremont 3-2456
Annex	157th St. and 3rd Avenue	Herman M. Elkin*		Melrose 5-6020
THEODORE ROOSEVELT	E. Fordham Rd. and Washington Ave.	William R. Hayward	Richard Sheib	Raymond 9-0700-7196
WALTON	Jerome and Reservoir Aves., north of West 195th St.	Mary A. Conlon	Simon J. Jason	Raymond 9-4132
			Julia E. Holste	
Annex, P. S. 95	Sedgwick, Norman and Gouverneur Aves.	William H. Corbett*		

Borough of Brooklyn

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Annex, P. S. 216	Avenue X, E. 1st St.	Andre C. Fontaine*	Bertha Cohen	Coney Island 6-4230
ALEXANDER HAMILTON H. S. OF COMMERCE	Albany Ave., Bergen and Dean Sts.	Gilbert J. Raynor	Raymond L. Noonan	Lafayette 3-3732
			Clifford H. Coon	
Annex, P. S. 21	McKibbins St., near Manhattan Ave.	Harvey L. Bagenstose*		Pulaski 5-4869
Annex, P. S. 83	1630 Dean St.	Alfred L. Hoffman*		Haddingway 3-1812
BAY RIDGE	4th Ave., 67th and Senator Sts.	Kate E. Turner	Mabel R. Benway	Atlantic 5-0204
Annex	63rd St. and 4th Ave.	Marguerite C. McGuire*		Sunset 6-0606
BOYS	Marcy and Putnam Aves.	Alfred A. Tausk	J. Allison Stevenson	Main 2-4310
Annex, P. S. 11	Waverly and Greene Aves.	George C. Hanson*	Richard L. Swanton	Prospect 9-7101
Annex, P. S. 35	Lewis Ave. and Decatur St.	Robert I. Raiman*		Haddingway 3-5228
Annex, P. S. 43	Boerum St. and Manhattan Ave.	Charles E. Hughes*		Stagg 2-4340
BROOKLYN TECHNICAL	Fort Greene and So. Elliott Pls. and De Kalb Ave.	Albert L. Colston	Ralph Breiling	Sterling 3-0135
			Henry H. Wikel	
Annex	Flatbush Ave. Ext. and Concord St.	Charles W. Ledley*		Cumberland 6-6120
Annex, P. S. 69	155 Ryerson St.	Harry A. Cohan*		Prospect 9-0650

* Teacher-in-charge

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High School	Address	Principal or Teacher-in-Charge	Admin. Assistant	Telephone
BUSHWICK	Irving Ave., Madison and Woodbine Sts.	Milo F. McDonald	Thomas F. Lynch	Foxcroft 9-5500
Annex, P. S. 74	655 Kosciusko St.	Benjamin Greenwald*		Foxcroft 9-4022
Annex, P. S. 75	Evergreen Ave., Ralph and Grove Sts.	Fanny Clement*		Foxcroft 9-7520
EASTERN DISTRICT	Marcy Ave. and Keap St.	Fred'k W. Oswald, Jr.	Matthew J. Murray	Stagg 2-0791
Annex, P. S. 51	Meeker Ave. and Humboldt St.	Willard S. Sprague*		Evergreen 8-10045
ERASMUS HALL	Flatbush Ave., near Church Ave.	John F. McNeill	Katherine I. Hodgdon	Buckminister 2-7803
Annex, P. S. 235	Clarkson Ave., Lenox Rd. and E. 39th St.	William Elbert*	Donald C. MacLean	President 3-1181
FRANKLIN K. LANE	Evergreen Ave., Eldert and Covert Sts.	Charles E. Springmeyer	David H. Moskowitz	Foxcroft 9-4900
Annex, P. S. 108	200 Linwood St.		M. Christine Lietz	
GIRLS	Nostrand Ave. and Halsey St.	Maurice E. Rogalin	Mabel Wright	Sterling 3-0372
GIRLS COMMERCIAL	Classon Ave. and Union St.	Evelyn W. Allan (Mrs.)	Dania Kysor	Sterling 3-5890
Annex	760 Prospect Pl. (Maxwell Teachers' Training College Building)	Frances A. Traver*	Ida St. John Oye	Sterling 3-3640
Annex, P. S. 42	St. Marks and Classon Aves.	Mildred K. Bentley*		Main 2-7660
JAMES MADISON	Quentin Rd. and East 25th St.	William R. Lasher	George B. Downing	Nightingale 4-0400
Annex	Avenue R and E. 16th St.	Max J. Eisenmann*	Dorothy Zehner	Coney Island 6-4230
MANUAL TRAINING	7th Ave., 4th and 5th Sts.	Horace M. Snyder	Patrick J. Keenan	South 8-9636
Annex, P. S. 10	7th Ave., 17th St. and Prospect Ave.	William E. Reed*	Emily S. Peck	Huguenot 4-2046
Annex, P. S. 94 (old)	Prospect Ave., opposite Reeve Pl.	J. Clarence Smith*		Huguenot 4-4628
NEW UTRECHT	79th and 80th Sts., 16th and 17th Aves.	Harry A. Potter	Marian E. Conner	Beachview 2-2502-3
Annex, P. S. 101 (old)	86th St. and 18th Ave.	Eva A. Robinson*	Fritz A. H. Leuchs	Bensonhurst 6-0711
Annex, P. S. 105	Fort Hamilton Pkwy and 59th St.	William A. Jenner*		Windsor 6-5944
Annex, P. S. 180	56th St. and 16th Ave.	Barney Hyman*		Ambassador 2-0518
Annex, P. S. 192	18th Ave., 47th and 48th Sts.	Tessie M. Jamer*		Ambassador 2-6851
SAMUEL J. TILDEN	Tilden Ave. and E. 57th St.	John M. Loughran	John A. Shea	Minnesota 9-5300
Annex	221 Kingston Ave.	Albert C. Zahn*	Olga Hingsburg	Lafayette 3-2781
THOMAS JEFFERSON	Pennsylvania and Dumont Aves.	Elias Lieberman	G. Victor Brown	Dickens 2-3500
Annex, P. S. 63	Hinsdale St. and Glenmore Ave.	Joseph Newman*	Mildred I. Freygang	Dickens 6-3920
Annex, P. S. 150	Sackman St., south of Belmont Ave.	Louis A. Goldman*		Dickens 6-4066
BROOKLYN INDUSTRIAL H. S. FOR BOYS	Flatbush Ave. Ext. and Johnson Sts.	James H. Allen		Triangle 5-9195
Annex	Cary Bldg., Jay and Nassau Sts.	Lawrence A. Pendergast*		Triangle 5-8859
BROOKLYN INDUSTRIAL H. S. FOR GIRLS	Pacific St. and 3rd Ave., Bklyn.	Margaret A. Jones		Triangle 5-9807

Borough of Queens

BAYSIDE	32nd Ave. and 208th St. Bayside, L. I. (under construction)			

* Teacher-in-charge

High School	Address	Principal or Teacher-in-Charge	Admin. Assistant	Telephone
BRYANT	Wilbur Ave., Academy and Radde Sts., L. I. C.	James P. Warren	Marie L. Johnston Vincent J. Loughran	Stillwell 4-1762
Annex	47th Ave., 37th to 38th Sts., L. I. C. (Queens Continuation School)	Catherine McEntegart*		Stillwell 4-8975
Annex, P. S. 150	43rd Ave., 40th and 41st Sts., Sunnyside, L. I., N. Y.	Hector Laguardia*		Stillwell 4-0251
FAR ROCKAWAY	Beach 25th St. and Oceancrest Blvd., Far Rockaway, L. I.	Sanford J. Ellsworth	Ludwig Kaphan	Far Rockaway 7-8902
Annex, P. S. 42 (old)	67th St. and Boulevard, Arverne, L. I.	Roland Dann*		Belle Harbor 5-0653
FLUSHING	Northern Blvd. and Union St., Flushing, L. I., N. Y.	Arthur L. Janes	Geo. H. Barmeyer	Flushing 9-0456
Annex, P. S. 27	122nd St. and 14th Ave., College Point	Joseph F. Waring*	Florence L. Case	Independence 3-4280
Annex, P. S. 41	35th Ave. and 214th Pl., Bayside, L. I.	Mary E. Brown*		Bayside 9-1444
GROVER CLEVELAND	Himrod St. and Grandview Ave., Ridgewood	Charles A. Tonsor	Anna H. Fink	Hegeman 3-4066-7
Annex, P. S. 67	Central Ave., and 71st St., Glendale, L. I.	Martin E. Greegan*	Philip E. McCaffrey	Hegeman 3-3294
Annex, P. S. 71	Forest Ave., nr. Metropolitan Ave., Ridgewood, L. I.	Ellis A. Johnson*		Hegeman 3-2079
Annex, P. S. 74	Woodward Ave. and Starr St., East Williamsburg (Brooklyn P. O.)	Arthur H. Reheuser*		Evergreen 8-3790
JAMAICA	168th St. and Gothic Drive, Jamaica	Charles H. Vosburgh	Roscoe A. Grant	Republic 9-5942
Annex	Parsons and Gilman Aves., Jamaica (Jamaica Teachers' Training College Bldg.)	Joseph F. Cashman*	Mabel L. Bernhard	Republic 9-4246
Annex, P. S. 109	213th St. and 92nd Ave., Queens Village	C. Leslie Jaynes*		Missouri 7-4454
JOHN ADAMS	Rockaway Blvd., 101st St., Ozone Park	William A. Clarke	William A. Patterson Marie L. Keller	Cleveland 3-5760
NEWTOWN	Chicago Ave. and Gerry St., Elmhurst	James D. Dillingham	Arthur E. Book	Newtown 9-0040
Annex, P. S. 12	42nd Ave. and 72nd St., Winfield, L. I.	Thomas E. Croake*	Charlotte Eggleston	Havemeyer 4-6204
Annex, P. S. 13 (old)	Corona Ave., nr. 90th St., Elmhurst	John M. Baker, Jr.*		
Annex, P. S. 89	Hampton St. and Britton Ave., Elmhurst	W. K. Crouthamel*		Havemeyer 4-7962
RICHMOND HILL	114th St. and 89th Ave., Richmond Hill	Matthew L. Dann	John C. Atwater	Cleveland 3-4007-8-9
Annex, P. S. 56	114th St., nr. Jamaica Ave.	Harris M. Kanwit*	Gertrude M. Leete	Richmond Hill 2-0656
Annex, P. S 90	109th St. and Jamaica Ave.	Florence E. Beers*		Richmond Hill 2-6561

Borough of Richmond

CURTIS	Hamilton Ave. and St. Mark's Pl., New Brighton, S. I.	John M. Avent	John W. Morris Mildred K. Kammerer	Gibralter 7-7973
Annex, P. S. 32	14 Osgood Ave., Stapleton, S. I., N. Y.	William M. Barlow*		Gibraltar 7-3833
PORT RICHMOND	Innis St. and St. Joseph Ave., Port Richmond, S. I., N. Y.	William M. Halloran	Charlotte E. Benner	Gibraltar 2-6119
TOTTENVILLE	Summit Ave., Tottenville, S. I., N. Y.	William W. Rogers		Tottenville 8-1352

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